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Learning English as a Foreign Language in the Disruptive Digital Era: The Smartphone Use in EFL Instructions

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Abstract

This research aims to investigate and understand high school students' perspectives of using Smartphone use in learning English as a Foreign Language. In the era where learning can be done anytime everywhere, Smartphone become one of significant tools in education. Students can learn English from mobile applications and from open access courses available for them to access anytime everywhere. They can also seek online learning support around the world only by using their Smartphone. We were sending online survey to our potential respondents and gained 250 high school students from five high schools in Gorontalo, Indonesia who participated in this research. The results show that the majority of respondents

(93%) have used Smartphone to learn English. Even though only a small number of respondents (17.82%) disagree that the presence of teacher or others are not significant anymore in learning English, more than half number of the respondents think otherwise. The Mobile applications that are often used in learning English are mostly referencing tools, such as *Kamusku* and Google translate. Most of the respondents are not familiar with applications that specifically designed for learning English as a foreign language.

Keywords: *EFL, smartphone, mobile application, online learning*

Introduction

The fast development in mobile technology has been indicated with the significant increase of the smart phone users around the world. This condition has provoked some studies on the use of mobile technology in education over the years. The findings have suggested that the use of mobile technology benefits teaching and learning process. However, a specific model integration of mobile technology, especially the use of smart phone, in language learning has not been investigated and designed for a secondary education, while the majority of the digital natives, the active users of mobile technology, nowadays, are those in secondary education level.

Teaching by using smartphone can be called *mobile learning*. Guy (2009, p.2). He further defines mobile learning as electronic learning through computational tools. Learning must be focused on mobility and limited to learning by using electronic devices. Keegan (as cited in Guy 2009, p.3) also explained that mobile learning can facilitate education and training using PDAs / cell phones, including smartphones, cell phones, mobile phones and other gadgets.

Buck, McInnis, and Randolph (2013) argues that the 21st Century students are not limited to the knowledge of life, even in the classroom setting, where there are now various forms of technology. The face of the contemporary classroom is ever changing. Innovations in technology are influencing how students' access, learn, retain, and apply information. Studies suggested that Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) is likely to benefit the English teaching field (Buck, McInnis & Randolph, 2013; Machmud & Abdulah, 2018; Machmud & Baliu, 2017). Mobile learning is an important technology to minimize the problem of lack of time, and also to minimize the peer pressure in the process of teaching and learning, and to encourage the learners' autonomy.

The use of technology integrated in language learning is one significant way to be considered to address the need of both teachers and students in engineering department, for instance. Integrating CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) in language instruction is not aimed at just developing students with computer skills, instead, the objective of integrating CALL in the curriculum of language teaching is “associated with self-contained, programmed applications such as tutorials, tools, simulations, instructional games, tests, and so on” (Kern and Warschauer, 2000, p. 1 as cited in Machmud, 2018). Students who are the respondents of this research are aware of the importance of integrating the use of technology into the teaching and learning process in their department (Machmud, 2018).

Pytash, Ferdig, Kist, and Kratcoski (2013) argues that teachers have multiple goals for bringing social networking into the classroom, including attempting to unite in-school and out-of-school literacies (Bowers- Campbell, 2011); helping to teach argument (Doer- Stevens, Beach & Boeser, 2011); creating classroom community (Richard, 2011); and getting students ready for colleges that are increasingly wired and multi-modal (ACT, 2012). Networking can be done easily with the use of technology. This research is emphasizing on students’ perception of the use of smartphone in EFL instructions.

Methodology

The data for this research are gained from online survey that has been spread to high school students in Gorontalo, Indonesia. We asked EFL teachers from five high schools in Gorontalo, Indonesia, to spread the online survey to their students. The survey as the main instrument in this research is used to gain students’ perspectives of the smartphone use in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructions. There are 250 students participated as the respondents in this research. They are students from five high schools in Gorontalo, Indonesia. The results were calculated by using Likert Scale and presented in figures and tables.

Results

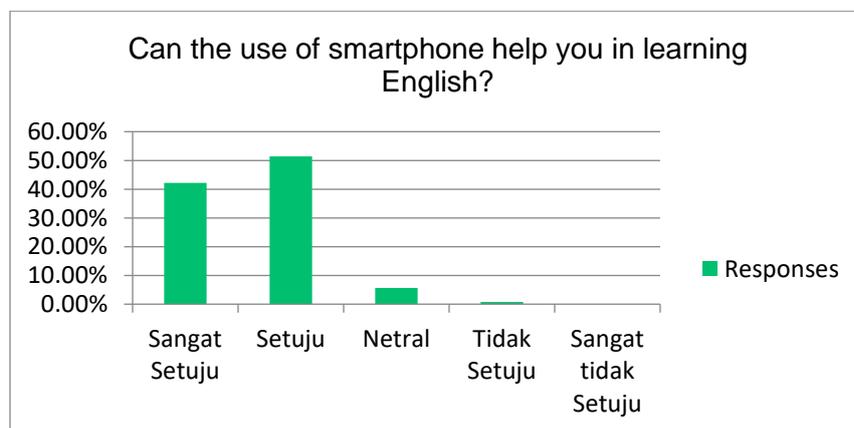
There are tremendous evidence shows that today’s generation, those who were born after the year of 2000, have different relationship with information and learning due to the fast development of information and technology and better access to the Internet. A recent study conducted by Machmud (2018) shows that more than 50% of 250 high school students spent more than 15 hours a day using their smartphone. Another study shows that by the age of 21, students, would have spent 10,000 hours playing video games, sent 200,000 emails, watched 20,000 hours of television, spent 10,000 hours on cell phone, but less than 5000 hours reading.

The study also shows that based on the trend, children age 6 and under will spend 2.01 hours per day playing outside, but 1.58 hours using computers. They will spend only 40 minutes reading daily or ask being read to. It also shows that 48% of these children have used a computer Oblinger (2004). Further, this study suggested that the intense interaction between children and technology has significantly affected the way they learn and interact with their environment.

The research result that presented in this article specifically elaborates and discusses the respondents', who are high school students, perspectives toward the integration of mobile technology in EFL Instructions. The results presented in this article are arranged and discussed based on the questions asked in the online survey, which covered their responses on whether smartphone can help them learning English as a Foreign Language; whether they use smartphone learn English independently; what language skill that they think will be enhanced with the use of smartphone; and, what mobile applications that they mostly used in learning English as a Foreign Language.

Smartphone Can Help Learning English as a Foreign Language

We asked the respondents about the use of smartphone in teaching and learning English as A Foreign Language. The figures shown in the following part shows the data from the online questionnaires.



Sangat setuju = Totally agree

Setuju = Agree

Netral = Neutral

Tidak Setuju = Disagree

Sangat Tidak Setuju = Totally disagree

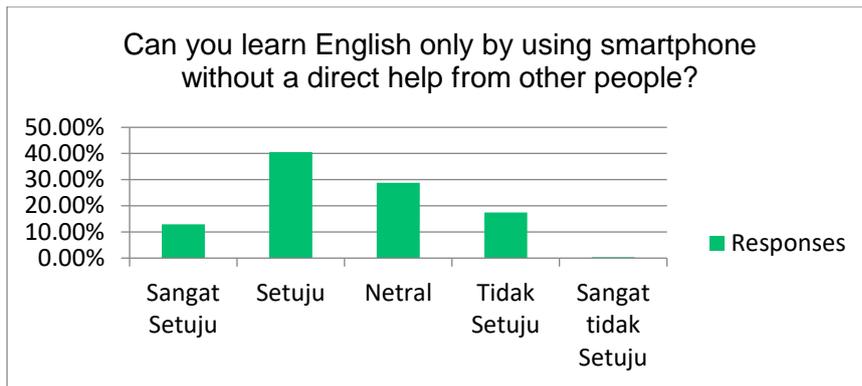
Figure 1. Students' responses on whether the use of smartphone can help them learning English

| Answer Choices | Responses | |
|------------------|-----------------|------------|
| Totally agree | 42.17% | 105 |
| Agree | 51.41% | 128 |
| Neutral | 5.62% | 14 |
| Disagree | 0.80% | 2 |
| Totally Disagree | 0.00% | 0 |
| | Answered | 249 |
| | Skipped | 1 |

The data shows that almost all students agree (51.41%) and they even totally agree (42.17) that the use of smartphone can help them in the process of teaching and learning English. It is found that from 249 respondents who answered this question, only 2 respondents (0,80%) answered disagree. This notion shows that most students aware about the importance of using smartphone in English teaching and learning process.

Using Smartphone to Learn English Independently

Learning English needs a large amount of time to practice. This can be done if the time provided for practice is adequate in school; unfortunately, in Indonesia, the time provided is only 100 minutes each week, which is not enough to use to explain the lesson as well as practice, especially if the number of students is large in one class. This creates uneven opportunity for all students to practice in class. Thus, learning English after school time is essential for students. Smartphone as a learning tool that can be used everywhere anywhere become handy and useful to learn English. We asked the respondents regarding this matter, and the following figure shows their answer.



Sangat setuju = Totally agree

Setuju = Agree

Netral = Neutral

Tidak Setuju = Disagree

Sangat Tidak Setuju = Totally disagree

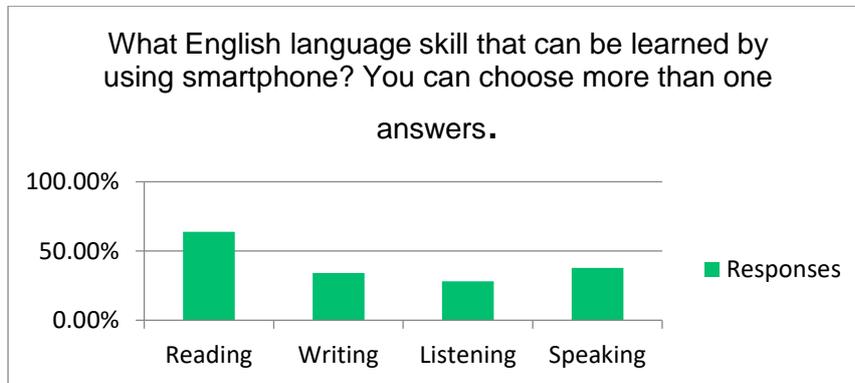
Figure 2. Students' response about autonomy in learning English as a Foreign Language

| Answer Choices | Responses | |
|------------------|-----------------|------------|
| Totally Agree | 12.96% | 32 |
| Agree | 40.49% | 100 |
| Neutral | 28.74% | 71 |
| Disagree | 17.41% | 43 |
| Totally Disagree | 0.40% | 1 |
| | Answered | 247 |
| | Skipped | 3 |

The figure and the table above show that more than 50% students as respondents in this research agree and totally agree with the statement that they can learn English without a direct help from other people if they are using smartphone. Only a small number of respondents (17.41) disagree with the notion that using smartphone can promote autonomy in learning English as a Foreign Language. This means that using smartphone can minimize the students' need of teachers in a classroom, because by using smartphone they can access any resources they need in learning English as a foreign language.

Language Skills that can be enhanced with the Use of Smartphone

Using smartphone in classroom interactions need a specific design for English Instructions; therefore, we need to investigate what language skills that can effectively and efficiently taught by using smartphone. The following figure shows the results.



Figur 3. Skills that can be learned by using smartphone

| Answer Choices | Responses | |
|----------------|-----------------|------------|
| Reading | 63.86% | 159 |
| Writing | 34.14% | 85 |
| Listening | 28.11% | 70 |
| Speaking | 37.75% | 94 |
| | Answered | 249 |
| | Skipped | 1 |

To design English instructions, we need to know the language skills that can be facilitated by the use of smartphone. The result shows that 63.86 % of the respondents answer ‘Reading’ as the skill that can be learned by using smartphone, followed by ‘Speaking’ (37.75%), Writing (34.14) and Listening (28.11%) respectively.

The result above is interesting, because on our previous research (Machmud, 2018a), shows the results that students are most likely to benefit more on increasing their speaking skill when the teachers are using technology in teaching English, whereas in this research shows that more than half of the respondents chose reading as the skill that is most likely can be learned by using smartphone.

Frequently Used Mobile Applications

The following findings shows the reason of why reading becomes the dominant skill, which can be learned by using smartphone, according to the respondents in this research. We asked the respondents what smartphone applications that they most likely used in learning English as a foreign language. The following figure shows the result.



Figure 4. The most used mobile applications in learning English as a Foreign Language

Smartphone can provide lots of applications that can be used to facilitate human's life. Some applications can be used in English Instructions. We asked the respondents about applications that mostly used by them in learning English. The results show that the most used applications are google translate, *Kamus Bahasa Inggris*, *Kamusku*, *Google terjemahan*, dan UC browser. The respondents' choices show that they only familiar with the translation application, which has a great impact in teaching and learning Reading skill, even though there is a small number of respondents have used learning language applications such as dualingo dan joox.

Conclusion

The findings show that the use of smartphone can minimize the students' need of teachers or instructors, because by using smartphone they can access any resources they need in learning English as a foreign language. Even though the respondent chose reading as the skill that is most likely can be learned by using smartphone, the results also shows that other English skills can also be taught and learned with the use of smartphone.

The reading skill choice is relevant to the students' knowledge of applications they can use in learning English. The results show that they only familiar with the translation application, which has a great impact in teaching and learning Reading skill. We need to be

aware that the importance of reading literacy skill appears has become priority of EFL teachers (Basalama & Machmud, 2018).

To sum up, this research shows that students are mostly aware of the importance of using smartphone in English teaching and learning process, thus, it is highly recommended for teachers to use smartphone in EFL Instructions.

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Translanguagism and the Bilingual EFL Learner of Saudi Arabia: Exploring New Vistas

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Abstract

The current study aimed at examining the efficacy of the translanguagism in a limited context with Saudi school children who are emergent bilinguals. Two EFL teachers were trained over a period of two weeks (a maximum of twelve hours) in practices that are not monolingual, for teaching English to forty, grade-six EFL learners in Qassim region, KSA. They were taught with translanguaging strategies over the period of four weeks and at the end of the period, subjected to a previously administered speaking linked comprehension test to

find how the translanguaging approach enabled them to grasp and express the meaning of the content. A perceptions survey was also administered to twelve school teachers of EFL in the region to gauge their attitudes and perceptions to translanguaging. The study concludes with suitable and useful recommendations for the administration, policymakers and teacher community.

Keywords: *Translanguagism, bilingualism, attitude, perception, EFL learners*

Introduction

Translanguaging is a theoretical framework that takes a new and more relaxed view of two approaches to second or foreign language teaching that have been radically discounted over the past several decades: Bilingualism and Multilingualism. Some educators claim that translanguaging pedagogy pays too much attention to the students' bilingualism; others worry that it could threaten the diglossic arrangements and language separation traditionally posited as necessary for language maintenance and development. In any case, this approach addresses the making of meaning and negotiation of communicative contexts by enabling learners to deploy their diverse language abilities and hence bringing about a new pedagogical framework for teaching and learning of a non-MT language. So far minority languages are dumped as being rather useless in the learning of a new language, but translanguaging legitimises their use in the process. Language separation and purity has long been one of the objectives of curricula in educational settings. With the phasing out of the grammar translation approach as a means to move from one language to another, the emergence of total immersion, to the communicative language teaching paradigms, isolated language systems have ruled the roost in the language classrooms. With emergent or existent but non-proficient bilingual language learners, the unsaid (or sometimes, said) principal has been to come to the target language classroom leaving at the door all the repertoire of the language(s) the learners do know.

The field of English for speakers of other languages has long been the forte of thinkers who held the belief that total immersion in a communicative environment is the only way to learn a language other than the mother tongue. This school of thought focused wholly on encouraging learners to speak only in English, and certainly never mixing the target language with the language the learner was already proficient in. Though class dynamics sometimes made it incumbent upon the learners to take to the native language, this was certainly never encouraged by the teacher who took it more as an interference in learning than a useful tool. Inhibition or a sense of shame, and inability to achieve workable communication in the target language in such cases, often led to reticence and withdrawal amongst learners, adversely

affecting participation, bringing the motivation southwards, and drastically reducing learning in these classrooms. At the same time, it is too early to moot a relatively new instructional method (translanguagism) as the panacea for all the ills of the ‘other’ language classroom.

Understanding Translanguagism

Translanguaging is a new trend in non-native language education, one which is of particular significance in bi and multilingual language learning environments targeting the ‘other’ language. Though it is a known fact that learners who are proficient in their native or mother tongue, come to the second or foreign language classroom empowered with language learning strategies that can be used in learning the target language, before the idea of translanguaging caught up, use of mother tongue in target language classrooms was usually frowned at by teachers. Given this fact, when language teachers set out to test their learners’ knowledge of content in the target language, comparing their performance to that of first language users, the very fact that they are forbidden from using the language they do know, the classroom creates a situation of inequality for them. However, inability to **express** knowledge of content need not be construed as **not having knowledge** of content. Translanguagism can be a useful learning tool in classrooms such as in Saudi EFL situations where the teacher (usually) and learners share one language and the former is in a position to enable the latter approach meaning of the content. Translanguagism is a deep learning tool that equips students to (i) understand when they need to choose specific language features with the purpose in sight and; (ii) develop the learners’ awareness of the original metalinguistic paradigm.

Reliance on translanguagism also has repercussions on another very dominant area of a language teacher’s professional life: Assessment. When we promote the idea of bilingualism or translanguagism in the EFL classroom, authentic assessment can certainly not lie in comparing their performance with that of target language native speakers because as Gracia says, “bilinguals are **not** two monolinguals in one”, rather as the first part of the term **trans** conveys, they are travellers to and from one language to another, gliding across linguistic landscapes, mixing and choosing from their two language repertoire. They are, without doubt, different from monolinguals. The language repertoire of bilinguals is far richer than that of monolinguals and what sets translanguagism apart from code switching is the fluidity of language behaviour in the case of the former.

Theoretical Framework

Literature Review

Canagarajah (2011) states that proficiency for multilinguals (or bilinguals) does not lie in building abilities in each language separately and individually, but in building repertoire i.e. in developing consciousness of the various functions of the languages they know and in developing the abilities to know when to use which repertoire. He further asserts that classroom studies have clearly established that translanguaging is a natural and intuitive phenomenon for multilingual students. Yet it can be enhanced in them by creating opportunities for critical analysis. By virtue of its very nature, the use of the other (native) language in the target language is not to be named an error whether norm or form-based. In fact, a translanguaging approach will demand formulation of a new set of 'errors' in a translanguaging classroom. The author very pertinently points out that even the monolingual is a multilingual in the sense that he/ she frequently shifts between codes, registers and discourses, it is therefore, a matter of narrowness of definition whether a language use is mono, bi or multi lingual. Finally, a very significant question is raised by the study: Do better choices apart from translanguaging exist for better communication in the multi or bilingual learning environment?

In a study with Spanish speakers, Lopez et al. (2014) found that translanguaging helped assess the mathematics content knowledge of emergent bilinguals (learning English) as they pitched into their existing linguistic repertoire to tackle questions thought their English was still basic. This study clearly established that authentic assessment of content knowledge can be ensured with translanguaging for emergent language learners. Bilingual students greatly benefit from the flexibility offered by translanguaging affordances as they give them a fair playing ground to demonstrate their content knowledge.

Cenoz and Gorter (2017) quote Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012b) who state that translanguaging provides language scaffolding to the emergent bilinguals and that this is a support that can be removed once learners find their footing in the target language. This is an important observation to counter fears that the tendency to translanguage may become rooted in the learner and the target of natural language use may never be achieved. However, even this is countered by Garcia and Li (2014, 20) who assert that spontaneous translanguaging practices deserve legitimization as authentic learning. The authors further point out that ensuring sustainable translanguaging can be a daunting task as it calls upon the multilingual's entire repertoire and shapes two or more languages on its own.

Lopez, Turkan and Guzman-Orth (2017) declare at the outset that translanguaging has something to do with the bilingual language repertoire. In their report on translanguaging as a

pedagogy they claim that it helps assess the existing knowledge base of bilingual students and helps figure out their capabilities even if they are not proficient in English language. In an important exposition they quote Grosjean (1989) who holds that the bilingual is actually two monolinguals joined into one. Further, that these two individuals have two unconnected language systems which they access as individual systems and not as a single, unified system with a combined repertoire. They further quote Garcia (2009) and Sanchez et al. (2013) stating that the emergent classroom with bi or multilingual learners have necessitated a revamping of the assessment patterns to fairly evaluate the content knowledge of bilingual or English learners. A new term, 'emergent bilingual learners' is used to refer to learners newly introduced to learning of English in addition to their mother tongue. This report is of particular relevance to the EFL environment of KSA, as the English language learners are what the author call 'late arrivals' to bilingualism. This refers to those language learners who are exposed to the 'other' language closer to grade five, in the phase of transition to middle school when major academic changes are experienced in the difficulty level of learning content. This is very much similar to KSA where English is introduced to the learners in Grade four. Lopez et al. insist that assessing these learners via translanguaging can help design viable instructional systems.

At least three perspectives to translanguaging are discussed by Jaspers (2017) under the transformative limitations of the approach. One, he talks about the real fears of the minority language activists who feel that even within the so-called free, dynamic, separate space that allows for translanguaging as much as for minority languages within school environment, is not without strings as the proponents of the approach warn that the minority languages cannot exist in the long run as 'museum pieces'. This implies the almost compelling need for their dilution. The other, diametrically opposed view is that of sociologists who ask how pertinent is the idea that linguistic changes at school can significantly transform the society or redefine social opportunities. Jaspers further points out that there is no denying the fact that a measure like translanguaging does improve learners' attainment levels, but that these cannot be taken for granted as the outcomes. The outcomes of fluid language use have to be considered against a lot many dynamics such as local conditions and personal choices.

In a study based simultaneously in Luxemburg and Netherlands, Duarte (2018) examined teachers' translanguaging based approaches including both migrant and minority languages in the mainstay of prevalent educational system. The study then analyses classroom transcripts to understand how formal, instructional translanguaging can be used in classrooms with minority languages by reducing language separatism to encourage content knowledge. Duarte found that translanguaging did fulfil the scaffolding function, valorizing the learners'

primary language. Further, use of different languages fostered both content and language knowledge among the subjects of the study. Finally, scepticism came from teachers initially on the suggestion of translanguage approach but when given safe spaces to experiment and freedom to operational use translanguagism to suit their particular classroom needs, the stepwise approach helped them shape the concept successfully.

Zein (2019) claims that introducing translanguagism at learner level is not sufficient to change bi or multilingual class dynamics. The author holds that innovation is needed in developing translanguaging skills at the teacher training level. Two reasons are cited for this: One, the linguistic repertoire of the teacher and its exploitation can ensure better scaffolding in the multilingual classroom. Two, translanguaging as a factor that works in close contact with teacher's language competence is a virgin territory that needs exploration.

Seltzer and Garcia (2019) discuss in a report how translanguaging with Latinx students for content and text knowledge helped boost their pride in bilingual and bicultural language systems. The approach is also mooted as one that helped these bilingual learners in American schools to establish connections between Spanish (their primary language) and English (their sole medium of instruction).

Statement of the Problem

If learner needs are to be met with successfully, it is imperative for institutions and teachers to keep abreast of the related research field. Further, learner needs are forever evolving, as is also the case with the Saudi EFL learner. Bi or multilingualism is a prized ability in modern world which is often defined as a global village. While the past decades of English education have seen an overt emphasis on language separatism, learning outcomes have left much to be desired. Hence the need to evaluate translanguagism as an alternative.

Significance of the Study

Teachers are the agents of change, a pedagogical change that may be well researched, amply funded, supported by administrators and policy makers, but it may still fail to make a mark if it does not find favour with the teachers. This study aims to exhaust such a possibility by evaluating the perceptions and attitudes, and their agreement or otherwise to the concept of translanguaging as a methodology innovation.

Research Questions

Given the theoretical background above, the study answers the following research questions:

1. What are the teachers' perceptions and attitudes to translanguaging as a foreign language learning tool, and is there agreement between the two?
2. What language functions does a translanguaging based pedagogy achieve in the setting of an Arabic dominant learner base in the Saudi EFL classroom?

Research Objectives

The study endeavors to evaluate the suitability of the translanguaging approach to the peculiar EFL situation of Saudi Arabia.

Relevance of the Study to the International Context

EFL situations are just as challenging for teachers in any environment as they are in Saudi Arabia. This is also what makes EFL/ ESL research conducted anywhere equally relevant in all non-native speaking settings. It is sincerely hoped that the current study will enlighten the difficult terrain of EFL education all over the world.

Methodology

Two EFL teachers working with grade six learners were first trained over period of two weeks (maximum of twelve hours) via workshops held on the school premises before the commencement of the experiment. During this period, a large number of theoretical sessions were held in which they were given reading materials on translanguaging as a theory of bilingual education. Findings of leading names such as Garcia and Li were taken up for discussion and they were encouraged to discuss their views after reading these expositions. The teachers' consciousness was also raised to the current practices of translanguaging which are unconsciously a part of their pedagogy as the learners are too young and unexposed to English to take up a communicative-immersive approach. Qualitative data in the form of teachers' (N=12) responses to a closed-ended questionnaire to gather their perceptions, attitudes and agreement or otherwise between the two was collected in the study. An initial twenty-item questionnaire was tested for validity by three senior EFL teachers, their suggestions were incorporated and the questionnaire that was finally administered consisted of ten self-report statement to be answered using the five point Likert Scale, a reliable measure for attitude and perception evaluation (Rea & Parker, 2005). On the scale used here, one stands for Totally Disagree and five stands for Totally Agree.

Forty grade-six EFL learners' performance on a speaking linked comprehension test administered prior to the experiment was taken as the baseline of performance. The same test was administered to the group at the end of the intervention. These scores worked as pre and post test assessments.

Population

The participants for the study were twelve EFL teachers at public schools in Qassim, KSA. All the teachers had more than five years of teaching experience, had attended at least one in-service teacher training program in the last one year and had additional professional qualification of at least a Diploma in CLT/ ESL/ TESOL. These teachers were requested to fill out an eleven-item self-report questionnaire on attitudes and perceptions. These were later analysed and are presented in Table 1. The other set of participants were forty Grade six male EFL learners in the same region. It may be pointed out here that using Arabic in the EFL classroom in the early years of the introduction of EFL is almost a compulsion with the teachers in KSA as the learners' exposure to English is really negligible for cultural and religious reasons, Arabic language and culture being considered pristine and replaceable by none other. However, as the learners gain ground in the language, the influence is tapered off, more as part of an unconscious method than otherwise.

Data Analysis and Results

Table 1 below summarises the responses received from the EFL teachers about their attitudes and perceptions. We have included questions on both the factors to evaluate whether they bear a positive attitude to translanguaging as implementation of a new approach may not work well without the teachers being convinced of its usefulness, and an evaluation of their perception is significant to gauge how far they are aware of translanguaging and/ or other bilingual issues in EFL classrooms.

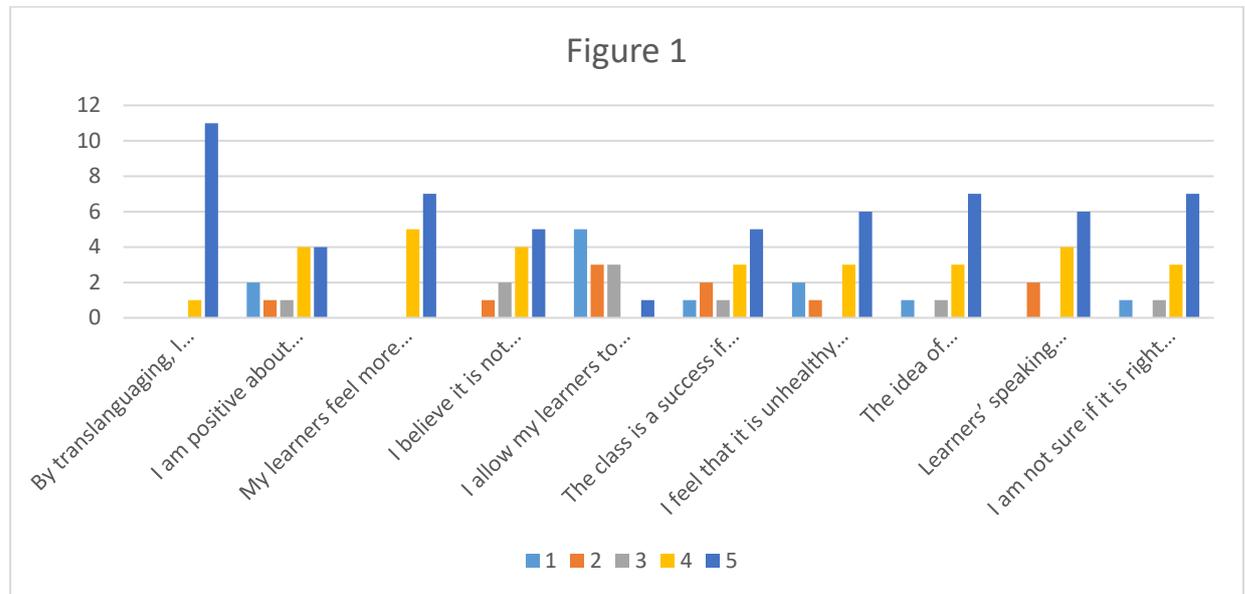
Table 1: Questionnaire and Responses

| | Statement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----------|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| 1 | By translanguaging, I understand the use of translation to Arabic to help my learners understand the content. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 11 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 2 | I am positive about allowing my EFL learners to use the mother tongue to ask questions. | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 4 |
| 3 | My learners feel more involved in the lesson if they are allowed to use mother tongue. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 7 |
| 4 | I believe it is not possible to fairly evaluate learners' content knowledge by asking them to answer in English. | 0 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | I allow my learners to freely interact amongst themselves in Arabic to discuss the English lesson. | 5 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 |
| 6 | The class is a success if the learners get to share their ideas in English or Arabic as they feel comfortable. | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 5 |
| 7 | I feel that it is unhealthy for the learners to use the mother tongue as it will only get reinforced in their language repertoire. | 2 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 8 | The idea of translanguaging is difficult to implement in the class. | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 7 |
| 9 | Learners' speaking output may improve if they are not inhibited in the use of MT in demonstrating their knowledge. | 0 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 10 | I am not sure if it is right for the EFL class to allow the use of the MT. | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 7 |

Graphically, the data set is represented as figure 1 for ease of interpretation.

Figure 1: Graphical Representation of Teachers' Responses



Initially, there was inhibition amongst the teachers to the proposal of answering a questionnaire that sought information on the use of anything other than English in their EFL classrooms because of prevalent practices of CLT coupled with immersion as far as possible. Only on being assured of the secrecy of the data and the need for truthful evaluation in the larger interests of the learners, did they fill out the questionnaires.

The data clearly indicates unanimity of opinion whether for or against a perception, though we agree that the sample size of twelve is small. As many as eleven of the twelve teachers are in the grey area as far as understanding what is meant by translanguaging goes. This translates to 91.1% of the data set. This finding is not surprising given the fact that translanguaging is not a talked about pedagogy in KSA. A high response of 58.3% agreeing with the statement 8 also goes to support this conclusion as teachers report that they conceive difficulties in the implementation of translanguaging in their classrooms although they do feel that learner response is likely to improve if they are allowed to speak freely in any language they are proficient in (statement 6). This reflects a positive attitude to inclusion of translanguaging as a practice. The response in this case is more than 66% in favour of allowing learners linguistic freedom to share knowledge of content. This finding is also supported by response to statement 9, where an even higher 83.3% agree that inhibition in using MT adversely affects learners' speaking output. In response to allowing learners to use MT to ask questions (statement 2), 66.6% of the teachers are positive to the idea and all twelve of them also feel that use of MT ensures learner involvement in the class processes (statement 3).

However, an equal number (66.6%) do not allow space for collaborative peer activity in Arabic as we can see from response to statement 5. This finding is also supported by response to statement 7 with which 75% of the participants disagree, expressing concern that allowing the use of MT will reinforce only that language with the learners. This result indicates a wrong perception about translanguaging, one which can be corrected with education and training. However, 75% (N=9) of the teachers are aware that assessment on the parameters that are used with first language speakers is unfair to their EFL learners as they recognise the fact that their output will not be up to the mark in the foreign language even if they possess content knowledge.

From the questionnaire responses we can derive the result that teachers are positively disposed to translanguaging practices in EFL classrooms but their perceptions about the approach are sometimes wrong.

Further, when we compared the learners' output to a speaking linked comprehension test that they had already taken before, the results show that the intervention with liberal bilingual practices did indeed benefit them as the class mean rose from 19.6 to 42.03, which is an increase of more than 46%. Teachers also observed greater class participation, less anxiety and better engagement of the learners. Such Bilingual practices will improve the pragmatic competence of EFL learners that Arab EFL learners lack (Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi, 2019)

Conclusions

The following conclusions may be drawn from the study:

1. The first conclusion answers to research question 1. Teachers' attitudes to translanguaging as a practice (as they are as yet not exposed to the theoretical aspects of it) are positive and they are in favour of greater bilingual methods in the EFL classrooms. The reason for this is the unfair playing ground that EFL learners are provided when their content knowledge is assessed in a language that they are not proficient in. However, some of their perceptions need thought, for instance their belief that bilingualism will reinforce the MT to the exclusion of English amongst the learners. This and other perceptions can be corrected with relevant in-service teacher education on new trends in EFL education.
2. Answering the second research question, this study concludes that translanguaging ensures better learner involvement in the learning process and takes away much of his/ her inhibition. It ensures that the learner speaks out his/ her content knowledge, is assessed fairly and transfers MT proficiency and learning strategies to English.

Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

The findings of the study lead to the following recommendations:

1. Pedagogical strategies using translanguaging need much research and design to make them purposeful, keeping in view the aims of the lesson and having in-depth knowledge of how the pedagogy will enhance the EFL learning environment.
2. Meaning-making by encouraging active student interaction should be kept at the centre of the strategy.
3. Language learning in a translanguage classroom should not be defined as enhancement of the target language. On the contrary, the EFL teachers must be made aware of the fact that enhancement of one language (implying the MT here) will bring about an enhancement in the 'other'.
4. Caution needs to be observed in integrating translanguagism into the EFL pedagogy. Language transition is a two way process whenever languages interact, implying that Arabic as a language is also likely to be influenced in the process. This is also what Hickey (2001) asserted in a study with Irish pre-schoolers (under language maintenance program) and English pre-schoolers (under immersion program). Even though the medium of instruction was Irish, the former produced about half of their utterances in English, while children with English as the first language produced two thirds of these in English. Comparable outcomes indicate the vulnerability of the minority language.

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Mind Painting for Promoting EFL Students' Reading Comprehension Skill

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Abstract

It is critical to provide students with a meaningful experience in learning a language and foster their creativity. Therefore, the inclusion of art in foreign language classroom setting is beneficial to some extent. It helps students develop imagination and visualize their minds for better learning. This paper explores the use of mind painting as a strategy for promoting EFL students' reading comprehension skills and students' perception of mind painting. A pre-experimental research design using quantitative approach with one-group pre-test post-test design was implemented. Two questions were addressed: (1) to what extent does mind painting promote reading comprehension? (2) how do students perceive the use of mind painting in

promoting reading comprehension? For the purpose of this study, five students in 10th grade of Sekolah Putri Darul Istiqamah were taught by using mind painting strategy. Students were given a pre-test and post-test which were analyzed to determine the effectiveness and implication of mind painting on students' reading comprehension. Furthermore, an interview was conducted at the end. Upon testing the hypotheses, results indicated that there was no significant difference between students' pretest and post-test after the mind painting was implemented. The writers believe that there were other influential factors such as students' background knowledge and reading ability. However, students stated that mind painting helped them to comprehend the story, increase their creativity and motivation.

Keywords: *Mind Painting, Reading Comprehension, Reading strategy*

Introduction

There is a saying that a picture is worth a thousand words. It indicates that with a single picture, a lot of written words which may contain complex ideas can be conveyed. Both image and language are the form of expression and they express thoughts and emotions. Hence, this similar characteristic they have makes them related each other. Their relation may be seen in learning art or language learning especially in teaching reading in which students use their sense to achieve comprehension (Zimmermann and Hutchins, as cited in Moreillon, 2007).

Achieving comprehension in reading is difficult for EFL students since English is not their first language. There are many problems encountered by EFL students in comprehending the reading text. Most students face difficulty in words recognition, knowledge of words, phrases, paragraphs and text (Hamra & Syatriana, 2010), they encounter ambiguous words, unfamiliar vocabulary, and limited available time to process the text cognitively (Qarqez & Ab Rashid, 2017) and they found it difficult to recall the information they just read (Shehu, 2015). These problems prevent students from understanding the reading text comprehensively.

Besides the problems encountered by students in comprehending the text, the reading activity in English classroom tends to be uninteresting since it involves reading the text and answering the question related to the text. Based on writer's experience in teaching, the uninteresting and monotonous learning activities make students got bored when they were exposed with text. Teacher should be able to create fun and interesting learning environment to enhance students' involvement and comprehension in reading.

One way that can be taken in teaching reading is to involve arts in the form of visual aids as the teaching strategy. It has been recognized that in learning a language, reading

involves mental pictures in brain. When someone reads, they do visualization and they create mental pictures to accompany what they are reading. It indicates that creating mental pictures help them to comprehend the text. Shehu (2015) stated that the implemented strategies and deep cognitive activities embedded in the process are able to increase the students' reading comprehension performance.

There have been several studies focusing on creating mental pictures to increase reading comprehension (Erfani et al, 2011; Hibbing & Rankin-Erickson, 2003; Rich & Blake, 1994; Wang et al, 2015). However, this current study focuses on specific strategies in the classroom that might be manipulated to improve reading comprehension. It is not aimed at developing mental image, but also exploring students' creativity through drawing activity. Drawing provides pictures that may increase students' positive attitudes towards illustrated texts that may result in more positive attitudes towards reading in general (Hibbing & Rankin-Erickson, 2003). The use of simple drawing techniques allows learners to master foreign language in an enjoyable way (Altun, 2015).

It is critical to provide students with a meaningful experience in learning language and foster their creativity. Therefore, the inclusion of art in foreign language classroom setting will benefit to some extent. It helps students develop imagination and visualize their minds for better learning. Altun (2015) suggests that drawing activity in language learning helps students develop imagination and visualize their minds for quicker learning, encourage them to develop focus towards lessons and increases teacher attractiveness. Harvey and Goudvis (2000) points out that the readers who create images through visualizing are able to make the reading experience more pleasurable and engaging, like movies in the mind.

Literature Review

Problems in Reading Comprehension

There are some difficulties of EFL students in reading text included lack of vocabulary, learning support, knowledge of words, phrases, paragraphs and text (Hamra & Syatriana, 2010: 34). Specifically, students face a great obstacle to comprehend a text when they are not familiar with the words or the vocabulary of the passage which prevent them to decode the message in the text. Shehu (2015) also agreed that one of the problems encountered by students in comprehending the text is lack of vocabulary. Rich & Blake (1994) stated that limited vocabulary prevents students to understand abstract concepts.

Another problem interfering with reading comprehension is student's lack of essential background knowledge (Rich & Blake, 1994; Hamra & Syatriana, 2010). Meanwhile,

Moreillon (2007) says that background knowledge is important in comprehending the content of text because when background knowledge is activated, the reader connects new information to prior knowledge to integrate the new information and comprehend the reading text.

Furthermore, students have to handle issues related to strategies in reading. Commonly they lack reading strategies (Hamra & Syatriana, 2010; Rich & Blake, 1994). Meanwhile students should be able to employ some reading strategies such as predicting, text mapping, and summarizing to facilitate good comprehension (Mistar, Zuhairi, & Yanti, 2016).

Regarding the problems in reading comprehension, it is important for teachers to provide students with trainings in the use of strategies (Mistar, Zuhairi, & Yanti, 2016). One of the strategies that can be implemented in teaching students is involving arts in the learning process. The arts play a great role for better teaching. Engagement in the arts helps teachers develop more strategies to engage students in learning (Farokhi and Hashemi, 2012).

Art in Teaching Reading

Farokhi and Hashemi (2012) mentioned some benefits of placing art within the language classroom setting. It enables students to express their ideas visually and it helps teacher build on students' prior knowledge. The inclusion of art, especially visual aids may develop students' comprehension.

John and Yunus (2018) find out that visual aids such as pictures and videos help students in improving their comprehension of the texts and their ability to find the literary concepts. When students understand better, they are able to cope with the task and ultimately comprehend the texts. Moreover, Cakir (as cited in John and Yunus, 2018) states that visual aids such as pictures, videos and films enable students to conceptualize ideas.

Allen and Marquez (as cited in John & Yunus, 2016) state that visual aids provide stimuli to the learners which helps them to easily gain understanding of the ideas presented in the texts. Furthermore, Chien, et al (2016) point out that graphics and visual aids are also able to increase students' interests in learning the target language.

Mind Painting as the Strategy in Teaching Reading

There has been ample research related to mind painting with different terms; visualization, sensory imaging, or imaging process (Hibbing & Rankin-Erickson, 2003; Erfani et al., 2011; De Koning & Schoot, 2013; Wang et al., 2015; Brosch, 2018). In this study, mind painting refers to visual mental imagery as the basis of the implemented strategy in teaching reading. Wang et. al. (2015) stated that visual mental imagery sometimes referred to as

‘visualizing’ or ‘seeing in the mind’s eye’. This is very crucial in both learning and memory. The elaborative process of visual imagery begins with a reader generates additional material or information which is relevant to the topic of text. This elaboration is able to improve reading comprehension (Murray & Burke, as cited in Wang et. al., 2015).

The teaching reading involves students forming mental images (visualization) in their process of comprehending the text. Tomlinson (1998) explains that significant improvement in reading comprehension can be achieved from visualization. It is also significant to recall information both in L1 and L2. The mental imagery is able to improve reading comprehension of readers who identified as poor in comprehension. However, simply asking readers to mentally visualize during reading without explicit instruction on how to do this may have serious limitations (De Koning & Schoot, 2013).

This study tries to go further than simply asking students to create picture in their heads. In this study, the strategy is elaborated into steps which can be implemented in pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activity. The students used pictures in their mind within the three steps during learning.

The process of teaching reading requires strategies before, during and after reading (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2012). The activity before reading is aimed at achieving the affective objective, they are developing positive attitude toward reading and developing taste in reading. This activity helps student to engage with what they are reading as what Harmer (2003) mentioned as one of principles in teaching reading. If the students are not engaged with the reading text, it will make them uninterested in reading it.

During reading activity is done to achieve the cognitive objective or to comprehend the text, which includes identifying the main idea, finding specific information, and inferring explicit information. While, after reading activity is conducted to integrate reading skill to other language skills (Sadoski, 2004). In this study the strategies were elaborated into three phases (pre-reading, while reading and after reading) during the teaching process. This integration and the use of pictures and visualization produced Mind Painting strategy in teaching reading.

Method

Research Design

This study used a pre-experimental research design using quantitative approach with one-group pre-test post-test design. There were two research questions addressed in this study; (1) to what extent does Mind Painting Strategy promote students’ reading comprehension?;

and (2) what are students' perceptions on the implementation of Mind Painting Strategy in the classroom?

Participants

One class in 10th grade of Sekolah Putri Darul Istiqomah was chosen by using random sampling technique. The class consists of five female students. The students' proficiency level is B1 from English CEFR placement test.

Instruments

Pretest and posttest were administered before and after treatment to find out students' score related to their reading comprehension which covers literal and interpretative level of reading comprehension. Reading test consists of narrative text and report text, each text consists of questions which measure the literal and interpretative level of comprehension. In order to understand the students' ability in reading comprehension performance after the treatments, a post-test of reading comprehension was administered. This test included the same content but different items. The result of pretest and posttest were analyzed to determine the effectiveness and implication of mind painting on students' reading comprehension. Moreover, an interview was designed to know students' perception toward the implementation of Mind Painting Strategy in the classroom.

Procedure

The study was completed in six weeks. In the first week, the students were given pre-test. The duration of pre-test was 30 minutes. In the next four weeks, the students were taught using mind painting strategy and the materials provided in this study were literary works. The strategy is elaborated into three stages; pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading. After giving instruction, a posttest was performed at the last meeting following by an interview to get students' response toward the use of mind painting strategy. In each stage during the implementation of Mind Painting strategy, various activities were conducted. The activities are elaborated in the following table.

Table 1 Activities in the implementation of Mind Painting strategy

| | Teaching Reading Process | | |
|-----------------|--|--|---|
| | Pre-reading | While-reading | Post-reading |
| Purpose | Students are given stimulus before they read the text to activate their background | To achieve the cognitive goal, that is to comprehend the reading text | To integrate reading skill with other language skills (speaking) |
| Activity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Play instrumental music which suits the story through audio speaker – The teacher orally explains the half story in brief. – Students pretend to be the character in the story – Students guess what happens in the story | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The students are given the text and mark unknown vocabulary in it – Students read the text – Students draw picture to describe the story | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The students show picture they have drawn – Students retell the story based on the picture – Students answer the questions related to the story |
| Tools and media | Audio speaker | Colorful marker, paper, pencil | Drawing paper |

Initially, in pre-reading activities, the teacher played instrumental music which suits the story through audio speaker. It gave students stimulus while they were listening to the teacher while telling the story in brief, especially about the character in the story. After the students listened to the teacher, students guessed what happens in the story.

The students were given the passage and they should mark the unfamiliar vocabularies. In this study, the reading materials were literary works such as short story by Ernest Hemingway; *Cat in the Rain*, *the Old Man at the Bridge*. After that, students read the text and they were also given a piece of blank paper. In the paper, when they had finished reading the passage, they had to draw the pictures which able to describe the story based on their

understanding. These drawings contained the information they had constructed from the text they had heard and read.

After drawing the story, the students showed their own picture in front of the class. Each of them was given a chance to present their pictures and retell the story based on their perspective. Finally, the students answered the questions related to the passage.

Results and Discussion

The first research question focused on determining if there were any significant differences between students' reading comprehension before and after implementing Mind Painting strategy. Table 2 indicates the comparison of the mean score between students' pre-test and post-test score.

Table 2 Paired sample statistics of students' Pre-test and Post-test Score

| Paired Samples Statistics | | | | |
|---------------------------|---------|---|----------------|-----------------|
| | Mean | N | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| Pre-test | 59.9120 | 5 | 24.37544 | 10.90103 |
| Post-test | 85.2000 | 5 | 2.25278 | 1.00747 |

As indicated in this table, the mean score in post-treatment condition showed an increase ($\bar{X}_{pre} = 59.91$; $\bar{X}_{post} = 85.2$). In order to accept or reject the null hypothesis, the data which obtained through pretest and posttest was analyzed by using t-test.

Table 3 Paired sample test of students' Pre-test and Post-test Score

| | Paired Differences | | | | | t | Df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|----------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|---------|--------|----|-----------------|
| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Pre-test - Post-test | -25.28800 | 22.14454 | 9.90334 | -52.78408 | 2.20808 | -2.553 | 4 | .063 |

Considering the result of paired t-test in table ($t = -2.553$, $df = 4$, $p = .063 > 0.05$), it could be stated that there was no significance difference between students' pretest and post-

test after mind painting implemented. The writers believe that there were other influential factors in this study, such as students' background knowledge and reading ability.

Koda (as cited in Gilakjani and Sabouri, 2016) mentioned that there are various factors that affect students' reading comprehension. These factors include vocabulary and prior knowledge, metacognitive information, and strategies that students use in reading. Moreover, Trehearne and Doctorow (2005) expressed that there are other variables influencing students' reading comprehension skill. These factors are students' reading attitudes, the method of teaching on comprehension, text form, versatility and awareness of various strategies of reading comprehension. Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016) also pointed out other factors such as environmental influences, complexity of the reading text, anxiety during reading, decoding or word recognition speed, interest and motivation, and medical problems.

The proficiency level of students in Sekolah Putri Darul Istiqamah is B1 based on English CEFR placement test. It indicates that they are independent users who are able to understand points of the passage they read. Further research about the factors affecting students' reading comprehension skill may be conducted.



Figure 1 Student's drawing 1

Despite the result of hypothesis testing, however, students seemed enthusiastic about mind painting strategy. They stated that mind painting helped them to comprehend the story, increase their creativity and motivation. It was expressed when the students were interviewed about their perception. The students were interviewed by asking them questions related to drawing and implementation of Mind Painting strategy. The result of interview shows that the students preferred to be taught using Mind Painting strategy.



Figure 2 Student's drawing 2

First of all, since most of them like drawing, they think it is a good idea to imagine and draw the story before and after reading it. They found that the story became more vivid in their head after they drew it. It indicates that drawing ease the students when they did visualization of the constructed ideas. The students also think that Mind Painting is fun as it attracts them to engage in the learning process. Altun (2015) mentioned that drawing encourages students to develop focus towards lessons and increases their interest. In addition, Harmer (2003) pointed out that students should engage with the reading text to interest them.

Student 2 : I like it. Because e... I can increase my drawing skill and the story can be real by drawing it

Student 3 :Ya I think it's fun. I love when we draw the continuation of the story. I think the meaning a lot much wider, ya. Brain can imagine so many things when they saw a picture and there is a quote picture worth a thousand words

Mind Painting strategy also helps students to better understand the story they are reading. As stated by student 1 and student 4, as follow;

Student 1 : Ya because drawing really help me to more understood the story, what the meaning of the story and what the... message from the story

Student 4 : drawing and listening to the story help me because I can imagine the story. So I understand

As students read, they already had the information which can trigger their comprehension since they were given stimuli before reading in pre-reading activities. They already visualized pictures in their mind about what is happening in the story. They made a personal connection to their imagination. After reading, the pictures they created gave them more understanding about the story in detail and they were able to grasp the ideas in the story.

Conclusion

Involving arts as the teaching strategy is one of many ways to help students in attempt to comprehend the text. The present research has revealed that students' mean score in reading test improved ($\bar{X}_{pre} = 59.91$; $\bar{X}_{post} = 85.2$) after they were taught by using Mind Painting strategy. Though the t-test result ($t = -2.553$, $df = 4$, $p = .063 > 0.05$) indicated there was no significance difference before and after treatment, the students stated that the strategy was very helpful in their learning process.

The sample size in this study ($N = 5$) is small. Consequently, the statistical findings should be viewed with caution. It is also difficult to generalize the results of this study to all EFL students. Therefore, for future research, a larger population is suggested with the involvement of more strategies to be used.

Pedagogical Implication

This study can be taken into consideration for those who want to design strategies in teaching reading by involving arts and pictures. As this study shows students' enthusiasm in performing Mind Painting in their reading class, this strategy is recommended to be utilized by teachers in teaching EFL students. Teachers can emphasize students' ability to conceptualize their creativity and ideas by using Mind Painting strategy as well as to gain their interest and participation.

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English Vocabulary Learning Strategies Used by EFL Arab Learners

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Abstract

Learning of words is an activity that begins the day a learner enters the language classroom and continues throughout the lifetime. This fact sufficiently underlines the place of vocabulary building in the language, and even more, in the EFL and L2 classroom. A ‘good’ language user is invariably the one who can use words well. However, as in the case of any other language skill, the knowledge and facility with learning strategies can make all the difference between successful or otherwise language learners. This paper aims to study the vocabulary learning strategies employed by the EFL learners at Jazan University, KSA in order to cull out the worthy strategies and make useful pedagogical recommendations.

Keywords: *vocabulary learning strategies, ESP*

Introduction

Since “language ability is to quite a large extent a function of vocabulary size” (Alderson, 2005, p. 88), it is imperative that language educators understand the processes that lead to vocabulary growth (Dodigovic, et al, 2017, p.1). Foreign or Second Language Acquisition has come a long way from the conventional classroom where the teacher dictated grammar rules to the learners and required of them to master the art of translation as the one and only means of learning the target language. In modern times, communication rather than mastery of grammar rules has taken the centre stage in the EFL or L2 classroom. To this end, it is realized that vocabulary is a very basic and desirable element in the process of language learning and acquisition because in any language it forms the basic building block. It is the concrete ground that the other language skills and the elements of sound and grammar can be built on; otherwise language learning cannot take place. Without vocabulary, second / foreign language learning or acquisition will not occur: for these learners, they need knowledge of effective vocabulary leaning strategies to develop a sizeable vocabulary bank. We believe that the present study will arouse the learners' interest in the importance of vocabulary learning strategies for successful learning of a foreign or a second language. Further, this will enable them to develop and/or adopt individual learning strategies that will eventually improve their vocabulary, the building blocks of communication. Thinkers and language researchers have long arrived at this conclusion.

The famous linguist, Wilkins (1972) rightly said that though some meaning may be conveyed with poor knowledge of Grammar, no meaning may be conveyed at all without vocabulary. Carthy (1990 as cited in Zhi-liang, 2010) states that even with good command over

grammar and the sounds of L2, meaningful communication cannot happen without knowledge of words. Lewis (1993) says that vocabulary acquisition is foundation of Second Language Acquisition. Further, that the four language skills are heavily dependent on vocabulary. Harmer (1997, as cited in Nosidlak, 2013) states that vocabulary is like the vital organs without which language cannot function. Yang and Weiping Dai (2011) assert that any language acquisition has lexis as the basis. According to Jassim & Dzakiria (2019) games are used not only for making children successful in EFL classes but more importantly, for motivating them and increasing the cooperation among children. Min (2013) claims that irrespective learner competency in grammar and pronunciation, effective communication is still a factor of vocabulary.

According to Hong Shi (2017) communications and cooperation among learners help arouse and recall their memory of newly learned vocabulary. Moreover, interactions between teachers and students facilitate language learning.

Objectives of the study

The main aim of this study is to paint a preliminary picture of vocabulary learning strategies employed by Jazan University ESP students. Further, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. To explore the range of general strategies used by the EFL Arab learners' in English vocabulary learning.
2. To identify the specific strategies employed by EFL learners in English vocabulary learning.
3. To identify which vocabulary learning strategy/ies is/ are the most frequently used by these students.
4. To identify which vocabulary learning strategy/ies is /are the least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies.

Theoretical Background

Definition

In the field of L2 learning and pedagogy, the learners are classified as successful and unsuccessful. It is believed that behind this difference is the fact that the successful learners employ different and more effective strategies than the less or unsuccessful ones. The strategies responsible for successful and unsuccessful learners have been defined differently by different scholars.

Rubin, (1987, p. 23) has defined language learning strategies as those means which help the cause of language system development in the learner thus directing having an outcome on language learning (cited in Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006).

Ellis (1999) is more direct in his definition when he says that vocabulary learning strategies are those that contribute to learning of vocabulary in the learner.

In a similar vein, Cameron (2001) defines VLSs as those learner actions that help them understand as well as remember words (cited in Rahimy & Shams 2012: 141).

Nation (2001) states that there are important features by which vocabulary learning strategies are defined. These:

- (1) involve choice;
- (2) are complex, i.e. consisting of several steps;
- (3) require knowledge and benefit from training; and
- (4) increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and use.

Catalan (2003) gives an exhaustive definition of vocabulary learning strategy as the processes or steps that fulfill the following objectives: (a) finding the meaning of new words hitherto unknown to the learner, (b) to retention of these in long-term memory, (c) ability to recall the newly acquired words at will, and (d) ability to use new vocabulary in oral or written communication.

Oxford (2003) defines VLSs in a direct definition as specific actions of the learners that make learning of new words simpler, quicker, more enjoyable, more self-directed, effective and applicable to new language situations.

Intaraprasert (2004) defines vocabulary learning strategies as a complex of techniques used by language learners to comprehend the meaning of a new word, to restore and expand their knowledge of newly acquired vocabulary.

Takač & Singleton (2008), however, believed that vocabulary learning strategies are only one of the several aspects of the overall language learning strategies.

Souriyavongsa, et. al. (2013) consider vocabulary learning as a kind of map to learning of language by students of EFL.

Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

The vocabulary learning strategies have been classified variously by scholars. Social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive are the four categories defined by Oxford (1990) as ideal for language learning strategies. Ever since many language studies have been employing this classification to study strategies in the language classroom.

Gu and Johnson (1996) carried out extensive research in the Chinese classrooms to develop the following taxonomy to categorise vocabulary learning strategies:

- Beliefs about vocabulary learning,
- Metacognitive regulation,
- Guessing strategies,
- Dictionary strategies,
- Note-taking strategies,
- Memory, rehearsal strategies,
- Memory encoding strategies,
- Activation strategies.

Thus their classification is more specific than earlier scholars. Schmitt (1997) classifies VLSs into two main groups of strategies:

1. Discovery strategies: means employed by language learners to explore new words;
2. Consolidation strategies: internalization of the new word encountered.

Further, he categorized vocabulary learning strategies into five sub-categories:

1. Individual strategies known as **Determination strategies**
2. Acquisition of new words by means of interaction with other users, known as **Social strategies**
3. Forming new connections in the memory linking new words to existing schema known as **Memory strategies**
4. Employment of mechanical means such as memorization to acquire new words known as **Cognitive strategies**
5. Tracking, making decisions and evaluating own progress in language learning known as **Metacognitive strategies**

Gu (2003), in his more recent article, names two important factors that divide vocabulary learning strategies on the basis of **task** and **person**. Task-based VLSs are applied depending upon the language task at hand. Person based strategies can be differentiated by individual variations in language learning strategies. He also states that memory, form, meaning and use, in addition to context play a vital role in VLSs.

Xhaferi& Xhaferi, G. (2008) classified vocabulary learning strategies into two types namely: shallow and deep strategies. Shallow Strategies rely upon the short-term memory as they involve guessing meaning from the context, as in the case of fast readers. Deep strategies

are used by the learners who learn slowly but lead to greater retention. These rely more on the use of the dictionary, forming associations with already known words and keyword method.

Tragant, Thompson, & Vicrori (2013) categorize VLSs into six strategy types, based on:

- 1) Memory;
- 2) Cognition;
- 3) Compensation;
- 4) Metacognition;
- 5) Management of feelings;
- 6) Social interaction

Xu, and Hsu (2017) classified VLS into four broad categories and twenty-five subcategories. The four main strategies are Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Memory Strategies and Socio-affective Strategies.

According to Akbari and Tahririan (2009) the VLSs are divided into two major groups: strategies for the discovery of a new word's meaning (comprehension strategies) and strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered (learning/acquisition strategies). Comprehension strategies included determination strategies and transactional strategies. Determination strategies are divided into three main sub strategies: guessing meaning from the context, word analysis and looking up the word in the dictionary. With regard to transactional strategies, since asking the meaning from the teacher or classmates was not the way by which words were learned in social interactions, this strategy was called transactional strategy.

Previous Studies on Vocabulary Learning Strategies

In a study of Spanish male and female ESL learners, Catalan (2003) found significant differences in the number of strategies used. Further, male and female students differed in the variety of strategies that they employed for language learning.

In an extensive study of 675 Taiwanese learners of English, Tsai and Cheng Chang (2009) found that the most used strategy was dictionary use and the least used one were perceptions strategies. However, in contrast to Catalan's study, no significant differences between male and female students' employment of VLSs were found. One expected outcome was that the lower, intermediate and higher-level students used vocabulary strategies ranging in that order.

Zhi-liang (2010) studied the pattern of English VLSs used by the non-English major students in Chinese Independent Colleges on the following counts, such as: attitudes to vocabulary learning; strategies most commonly used; problems encountered in vocabulary

acquisition; the most effective strategies used; differences in vocabulary by grades, and gender. The findings showed that female students used a wider range of strategies than the male students, and also devoted more time to vocabulary learning and practice. The most preferred strategies included use of the bilingual dictionary, guessing meanings from the context, seeking teacher assistance when encountering a new word in a sentence, oral and written repetition of new, whereas, use of English dictionary, seeking peer assistance for the meaning of new words, word analysis for part of speech, affix or root were the least-used strategies.

In a study of Iranian language learners Soureshjani (2011) observed that learners employed association ie connecting a new word to its synonyms and antonyms and using physical actions to describe a word as the most frequently used strategies.

In a surprising finding, Asgari and Ghazali Bin Mustapha (2011) while examining the vocabulary learning strategies used by Malaysian ESL students majoring at teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL) found that the participants were not aware of most of the vocabulary strategies being discussed in the language arena. If at all they employ any of these, the frequency is very low.

In a study to find the frequency of the use of VLSs by Jordanian EFL learners at Jordan University of Science and Technology, Al-Khasawneh (2012) arrived at the clear result that determination strategies were the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies among the students. On the other hand, the least frequently used were metacognitive strategies.

Kameli, et. al (2012) conducted a study to evaluate the influence of formal language learning environment (classroom, teachers, and peers) on vocabulary learning strategies used by ESL students studying in the programme Teaching English as a Second Language in University Putra Malaysia. The most supportive factors for new word acquisition were found to be the teachers, peers and classroom environment.

Nosidlak (2013) conducted a study to analyse the language learning strategies used by 102 advanced students of English philology at the Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland to specify the most favoured vocabulary learning strategies used by the advanced students and related the same to their proficiency. It was found that the advanced learners used a combination of strategies to learn new words with internet being a popular source of these. Further, traditional sources of vocabulary acquisition were also much used. Finally, the advanced learners used similar but diverse VLSs.

Lin and Yang (2014) found that: instrumental motivation exerts primary effects on the participants during their junior or high school period, for expanding vocabulary in pursuit of good performance on English tests, for entering an ideal school, or for parents'/teachers'

compliments. They found also some vocabulary strategy use, the participants' instrumental motivation and integrative motivation subtly interweaved at a later stage of their life, alternately activating their English learning; and cognitive, memory and compensatory strategies were more facilitative for the participants' vocabulary learning.

Rashid's (2014) findings suggest that looking for chances to encounter newly learnt words in resources such as English language newspapers/magazines or books on literature, writing words in sentences, using words in everyday conversation in English, and listening to English-Language TV programmes are strategies both most frequently used and perceived to be most effective. The keyword method, followed by listening to words on computers/tape-recorders/mobile phones/mp3 or electronic dictionaries, and repeating words aloud are reported as the least-frequently used and considered least effective strategies.

The results of Ming Wei's (2007) study indicated an overall medium use of VL strategies of Chinese students, with high-proficiency students learning vocabulary in a more systematic and organized way. The study also showed that Chinese female students make insignificantly more use of VL strategies than male learners; in addition, there are some important differences at the microlevel, and female students are more aware of the importance of management in VL.

Methodology

The questionnaire used in the study is an adaptation of Gu and Johnson's (1996, pp. 673-679) Vocabulary Learning Questionnaire (VLQ Version 3), and Gu and Johnson's (1996) VLQ5© Chinese Version and Gu, (2018) Validation of an Online Questionnaire of Vocabulary Learning Strategies for ESL learners VLQ6.4, VLQ5© Chinese Version (as cited in Gu and Hu, pp. 14-19) with elements added from O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Gu and Johnson's (1996) classification of vocabulary learning strategies. The reason for this was their exhaustive comprehensiveness with a high validity quotient at .80 or above in most cases for the questions, and where it was slightly less, the alpha value was .627 making them valid and reliable. The questionnaire designed to gather information about learners' opinion on vocabulary learning and vocabulary learning strategies was administered and for analysis purpose the responses were documented in the given table. The learners were asked to read each statement carefully and click (√) the response which describes their opinion on a scale of 1 to 5, where 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = undecided, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree. The sample questionnaire has been attached as Appendix 1.

A questionnaire was developed to gain knowledge of the vocabulary acquisition strategies most used and preferred by college students. The questionnaire was first developed with a pool of seventy-eight questions in consultation with English teachers at the three colleges under study. As per their advice, its reliability and validity were ensured by dropping repetitive and redundant questions. The final version comprised 38 items that sought learner feedback on vocabulary learning strategies that were grouped as per the following layout:

1. Guessing;
2. Dictionary use;
3. Making a written note of new words;
4. Memorizing;
5. Activation;
6. Metacognitive;
7. Social;
8. Translation to mother tongue.

For each of the strategies a minimum of three and a maximum of sixteen questions were included to ensure reliability of the responses. The questions were arranged corresponding to the strategies listed above. The questionnaire was administered to 78 male students to whom English is taught as an ESP Course at Jazan University, Saudi Arabia. The respondents belonged to three Colleges under the university: Engineering (N=26) henceforth E, Computer Science (N=26), henceforth CS and Business Administration (N=26) henceforth BA, all in the Second Semester of their First Year of Bachelor's Degree Programme. The questionnaire was administered to them in class; sufficient time was given to them for the purpose. It is also worth mentioning here that the questionnaire was translated into Arabic for easy comprehension and processing (please see appendix 1).

Data Analysis and Discussion

The complete corpus of response was compiled in two ways: As a comprehensive score, with responses to each question being represented as a sum total of the responses of all 78 subjects (Table 1); and two, as responses being factors of the respondents' previous practices of choosing vocabulary learning strategies best suited to their specialized field of study (Table 2).

Table 1: Comprehensive responses

| No. | Question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----|---|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1. | I make use of the logical development in the context (e.g., cause and effect) when guessing the meaning of a word. | 5 | 6 | 5 | 40 | 22 |
| 2. | I use common sense and knowledge of the world when guessing the meaning of a word. | 4 | 6 | 6 | 43 | 19 |
| 3. | I make use of my knowledge of the topic when guessing the meaning of a word. | 4 | 7 | 9 | 38 | 20 |
| 4. | I make use of the grammatical structure of a sentence when guessing the meaning of a new word. | 4 | 8 | 15 | 27 | 24 |
| 5. | I look for any examples provided in the context when guessing the meaning of a new word. | 3 | 7 | 4 | 46 | 18 |
| 6. | When I see an unfamiliar word again and again, I look it up. | 22 | 17 | 13 | 14 | 12 |
| 7. | When I want to confirm my guess about a word, I look it up. | 15 | 20 | 27 | 10 | 6 |
| 8. | When not knowing a word prevents me from understanding a whole sentence or even a whole paragraph, I look it up. | 19 | 19 | 23 | 12 | 5 |
| 9. | I pay attention to the examples of use when I look up a word in a dictionary. | 20 | 22 | 21 | 8 | 7 |
| 10. | When I want to know more about a word that I already have some knowledge of, I look it up. | 16 | 20 | 26 | 9 | 7 |
| 11. | I make a note when I want to help myself distinguish between the meanings of two or more words. | 29 | 26 | 14 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | I write down both the meaning in my native language and the English explanation of the word I look up. | 17 | 17 | 21 | 16 | 7 |
| 13. | I make a note when I see a useful expression or phrase. | 32 | 20 | 14 | 8 | 4 |
| 14. | I make vocabulary lists of new words that I meet. | 18 | 20 | 17 | 15 | 8 |
| 15. | I go through my vocabulary list several times until I am sure that I don't have any words on that list that I still don't understand. | 16 | 31 | 19 | 6 | 6 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---|----|----|----|----|----|
| 16. | When I try to remember a word, I repeat it aloud to myself. | 5 | 10 | 12 | 31 | 20 |
| 17. | When I try to remember a word, I repeat its pronunciation in my mind. | 6 | 3 | 7 | 47 | 15 |
| 18. | When I try to remember a word, I write it repeatedly. | 17 | 11 | 7 | 24 | 19 |
| 19. | I memorize the spelling of a word letter by letter. | 7 | 11 | 9 | 35 | 16 |
| 20. | I attach physical sensations to certain words (e.g., stinking) when I try to remember them. | 26 | 16 | 7 | 19 | 10 |
| 21. | I act out a word in order to remember it better. | 15 | 28 | 20 | 9 | 7 |
| 22. | I create a mental image of the new word to help me remember it. | 18 | 29 | 11 | 11 | 9 |
| 23. | I associate a new word to a known English word that looks similar. | 13 | 25 | 26 | 7 | 7 |
| 24. | To help me remember words I analyze words in terms of prefixes, stems, and suffixes. | 23 | 23 | 19 | 8 | 5 |
| 25. | When I meet a new word, I search in my memory and see if I have any synonyms and antonyms in my vocabulary stock. | 32 | 20 | 14 | 6 | 6 |
| 26. | I group words into categories (e.g., animals, vegetables, utensils, etc.) | 26 | 18 | 13 | 9 | 12 |
| 27. | When I try to remember a word, I remember the sentence in which the word is used. | 12 | 21 | 9 | 20 | 16 |
| 28. | I remember the new word together with the context where the new word occurs. | 14 | 11 | 27 | 18 | 8 |
| 29. | I try to read as much as possible so that I can make use of the words I tried to remember. | 22 | 32 | 13 | 5 | 6 |
| 30. | I make up my own sentences using the words I just learned. | 35 | 19 | 10 | 6 | 8 |
| 31. | I try to use newly learned words in imaginary situations in my mind. | 15 | 27 | 17 | 10 | 9 |
| 32. | I often discuss with others on how to memorize new words with others. | 23 | 20 | 16 | 12 | 7 |
| 33. | When encountering new words, I ask teachers or classmate for help. | 19 | 12 | 18 | 15 | 4 |
| 34. | I actively communicate with foreigners. | 23 | 19 | 23 | 8 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|------------|--|----|----|----|----|---|
| 35. | I study and practice meaning in pairs/groups in class and outside class. | 31 | 16 | 18 | 10 | 3 |
| 36. | When memorizing a new word, I often memorize its Arabic meaning first. | 20 | 6 | 8 | 37 | 7 |
| 37. | When speaking, I arrange the meanings what I will express in Arabic, and then translate them from Arabic to English. | 18 | 30 | 11 | 12 | 7 |
| 38. | I often do self-evaluation for my words study so as to improve memorizing methods and strategies. | 17 | 29 | 8 | 18 | 6 |

Figure 1: Pareto Representation of Comprehensive Responses

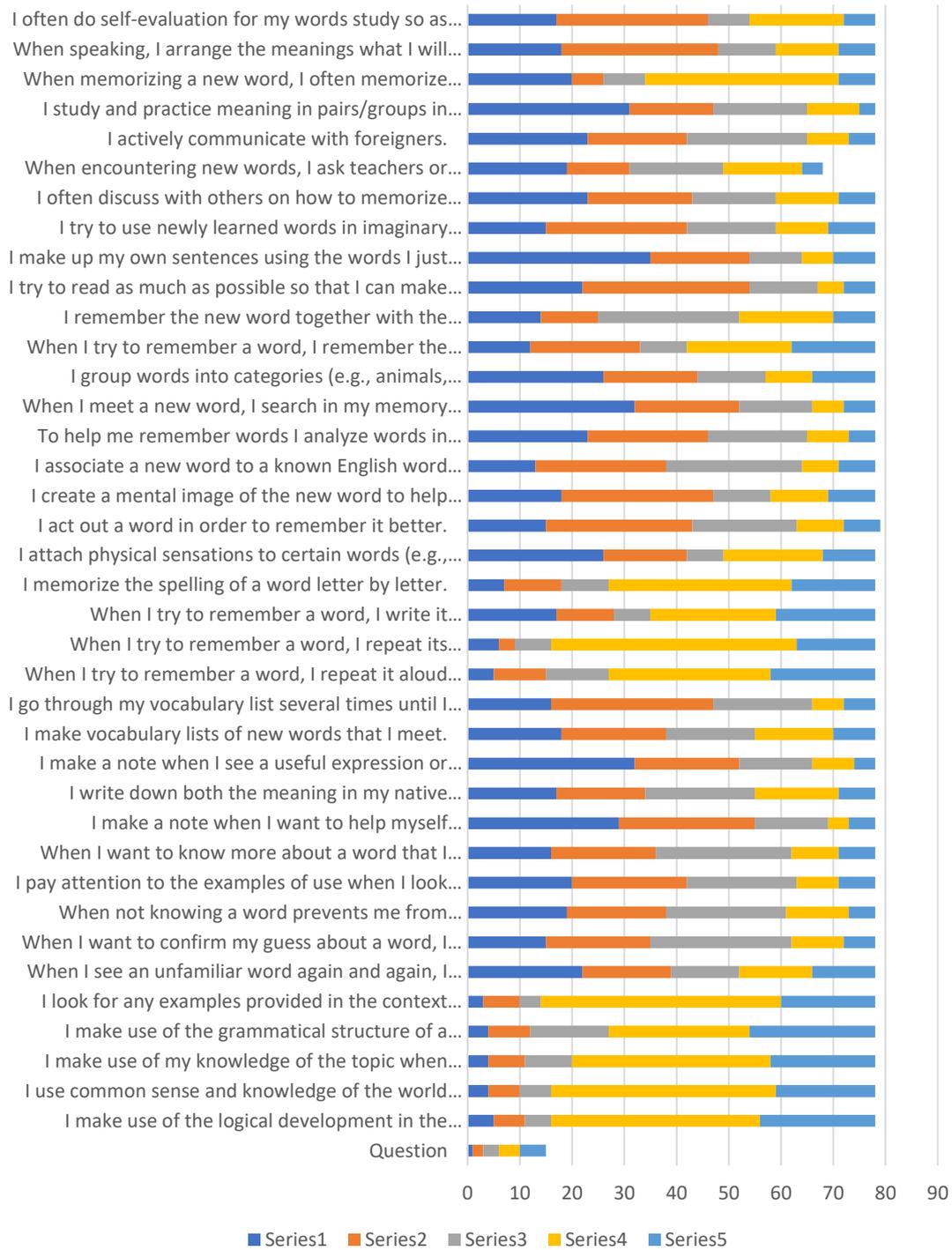


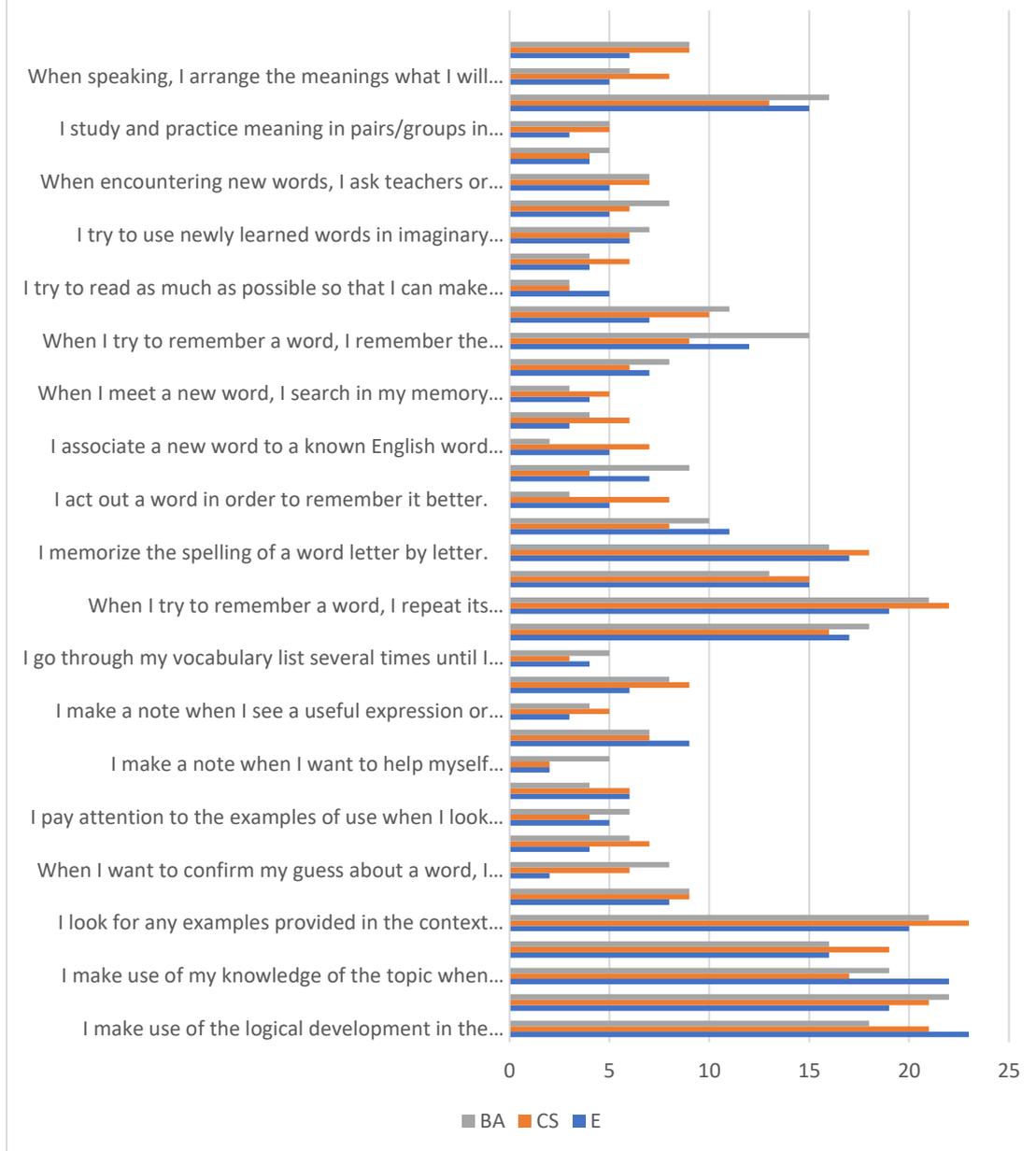
Table 2 VLSs most used in the colleges (sum of ‘Strongly Agree’ and ‘Agree’ out of a maximum response of 26 for each college)

| | Question | E | CS | BA |
|-----|--|----|----|----|
| 1. | I make use of the logical development in the context (e.g., cause and effect) when guessing the meaning of a word. | 23 | 21 | 18 |
| 2. | I use common sense and knowledge of the world when guessing the meaning of a word. | 19 | 21 | 22 |
| 3. | I make use of my knowledge of the topic when guessing the meaning of a word. | 22 | 17 | 19 |
| 4. | I make use of the grammatical structure of a sentence when guessing the meaning of a new word. | 16 | 19 | 16 |
| 5. | I look for any examples provided in the context when guessing the meaning of a new word. | 20 | 23 | 21 |
| 6. | When I see an unfamiliar word again and again, I look it up. | 8 | 9 | 9 |
| 7. | When I want to confirm my guess about a word, I look it up. | 2 | 6 | 8 |
| 8. | When not knowing a word prevents me from understanding a whole sentence or even a whole paragraph, I look it up. | 4 | 7 | 6 |
| 9. | I pay attention to the examples of use when I look up a word in a dictionary. | 5 | 4 | 6 |
| 10. | When I want to know more about a word that I already have some knowledge of, I look it up. | 6 | 6 | 4 |
| 11. | I make a note when I want to help myself distinguish between the meanings of two or more words. | 2 | 2 | 5 |

| | | | | |
|------------|---|----|----|----|
| 12. | I write down both the meaning in my native language and the English explanation of the word I look up. | 9 | 7 | 7 |
| 13. | I make a note when I see a useful expression or phrase. | 3 | 5 | 4 |
| 14. | I make vocabulary lists of new words that I meet. | 6 | 9 | 8 |
| 15. | I go through my vocabulary list several times until I am sure that I don't have any words on that list that I still don't understand. | 4 | 3 | 5 |
| 16. | When I try to remember a word, I repeat it aloud to myself. | 17 | 16 | 18 |
| 17. | When I try to remember a word, I repeat its pronunciation in my mind. | 19 | 22 | 21 |
| 18. | When I try to remember a word, I write it repeatedly. | 15 | 15 | 13 |
| 19. | I memorize the spelling of a word letter by letter. | 17 | 18 | 16 |
| 20. | I attach physical sensations to certain words (e.g., stinking) when I try to remember them. | 11 | 8 | 10 |
| 21. | I act out a word in order to remember it better. | 5 | 8 | 3 |
| 22. | I create a mental image of the new word to help me remember it. | 7 | 4 | 9 |
| 23. | I associate a new word to a known English word that looks similar. | 5 | 7 | 2 |
| 24. | To help me remember words I analyze words in terms of prefixes, stems, and suffixes. | 3 | 6 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|-----|--|----|----|----|
| 25. | When I meet a new word, I search in my memory and see if I have any synonyms and antonyms in my vocabulary stock. | 4 | 5 | 3 |
| 26. | I group words into categories (e.g., animals, vegetables, utensils, etc.) | 7 | 6 | 8 |
| 27. | When I try to remember a word, I remember the sentence in which the word is used. | 12 | 9 | 15 |
| 28. | I remember the new word together with the context where the new word occurs. | 7 | 10 | 11 |
| 29. | I try to read as much as possible so that I can make use of the words I tried to remember. | 5 | 3 | 3 |
| 30. | I make up my own sentences using the words I just learned. | 4 | 6 | 4 |
| 31. | I try to use newly learned words in imaginary situations in my mind. | 6 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. | I often discuss with others on how to memorize new words with others. | 5 | 6 | 8 |
| 33. | When encountering new words, I ask teachers or classmates for help. | 5 | 7 | 7 |
| 34. | I actively communicate with foreigners. | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. | I study and practice meaning in pairs/groups in class and outside class. | 3 | 5 | 5 |
| 36. | When memorizing a new word, I often memorize its Arabic meaning first. | 15 | 13 | 16 |
| 37. | When speaking, I arrange the meanings what I will express in Arabic, and then translate them from Arabic to English. | 5 | 8 | 6 |
| 38. | I often do self-evaluation for my words study so as to improve memorizing methods and strategies. | 6 | 9 | 9 |

Figure 2 VLS most used in the colleges



Discussion and Conclusions

Responses to the questionnaire very clearly show certain trends in learners’ perceptions and practices so far as VLSs are concerned. It may be recalled that the questions were based on nine broad strategies; a minimum of three and a maximum of five questions were devoted to each strategy. The responses have been observed to be uniform irrespective of the area of specialization of the respondents. In other words, it was noted that the respondents uniformly preferred or avoided certain strategies. Guessing the meaning of new and unknown vocabulary ranked topmost in the strategies they applied. Of these too, guessing the meaning from prior

knowledge, whether of the language or of the world in general, are most favored by the respondents. A large number (N=46) also glean the meaning from the examples present in their book. Overall, it can be said that the respondents relied majorly on contextual information and environment to understand new vocabulary.

In contrast to this practice, using a dictionary to find meanings of new words ranks quite low on the respondents' preferred strategy list. In fact, in some cases as in question 11, as many as 55 respondents answered in the negative on the use of a dictionary in learning new vocabulary. Similarly, the conventional practice of encouraging learners to write new words on reference cards to recapitulate frequently, or writing them out as notes of any other form, fails to find favor with the respondents. This is quite understandable with a generation of tech savvy young people who are more tuned to their electronic devices than to pen and paper. Forcing them into such practices is likely to yield none or even negative results. On the other hand, responses to questions 16-19 that are based on memorizing new words in the conventional ways such as, repeating new words aloud, learning the spelling letter-wise or writing a new word repeatedly, are favored by the respondents. Discreet enquiries revealed that they rather enjoy these strategies as they use the 'Keep', 'Notes' or similar functions in their smartphones to practice these new words. Metacognitive and Cognitive strategies are poorly rated by the respondents, so also Social strategies as the element of shame is attached to using their scant knowledge of the language in public, whether with foreigners, teachers, or their peers. Translation is not a generally preferred strategy with the exception that they prefer to form schema for new words by first associating them with their Arabic meanings.

Recommendations

Though it is best to allow learners to learn as it comes naturally to them, with the strategy they prefer individually, certain core strengths in foreign language learning, such as the role of peers may be introduced to them. In other words, the place of collaboration in learning cannot be overstated and it is also recommended in the current setting. Metacognitive and cognitive learning strategies may also be encouraged by first making the learners aware of their role in language learning. Sometimes, simple ignorance of strategies prevents learners from exploiting their learning potential to the full. In-service teachers' training programs too need to focus on bridging the knowledge gap between teachers and the latest developments in education philosophy.

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APPENDIX 1

أستمارة استراتيجيات تعلم الكلمات الإنكليزية لدى الطلاب (النسخة العربية)

التعليمات: الرجاء القيام بالاجابة على جميع اسئلة الاستمارة من خلال وضع علامة (√) تحت الرقم الذي يمثل انطباعك عن العبارة التي ستقوم بقراءتها. تم تصميم الاستبانة لجمع بعض المعلومات عن رأيك كمتعلم للغة الإنكليزية عن طريق واساليب تعلم الكلمات الانكليزية الجديدة. من فضلك قم بقراءة كل عبارة ثم اختر الرقم الذي يمثل انطباعك الاولي عن العبارة التي قرأتها بوضع علامة صح (√) حيث تمثل 5 اوافق بشدة و 4 اوافق و 3 محايد و 2 لا اوافق و 1 لا اوافق بشدة. ليست هناك اجابة صحيحة واجابة خاطئة ولا تطل التفكير في الاجابة فقط حرر انطباعك الاولي.

| No. | Student's Vocabulary Learning Strategies | لا اوافق بشدة 1 | لا اوافق 2 | محايد 3 | أوافق 4 | أوافق بشدة 5 |
|-----|---|--------------------|---------------|------------|------------|-----------------|
| 1. | I make use of the logical development in the context (e.g., cause and effect) when guessing the meaning of a word. غالبا ما استخدم التسلسل المنطقي للنص في محاولة فهم بعض الكلمات وذلك كاستخدام مفهوم المؤثر والأثر عند التخمين. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | I use common sense and knowledge of the world when guessing the meaning of a word. غالبا ما اقوم اركز على التفكير المنطقي ومعلوماتي السابقة عندما اخمن معنى أي كلمة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | I make use of my knowledge of the topic when guessing the meaning of a word. أستخدم معرفتي في موضوع الذي أقرؤه عندما أقوم بتخمين معنى أي كلمة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | I make use of the grammatical structure of a sentence when guessing the meaning of a new word. أستفيد من معرفتي بالتركيب القواعدية لأي جملة عن قيامي بتخمين معنى كلمة جديد في تلك الجملة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | I look for any examples provided in the context when guessing the meaning of a new word. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| | عند محاولتي تخمين معنى أي كلمة فإني أبحث عن أي أمثلة قد تكون موجودة في النص لتساعدني. | | | | | |
| 6. | When I see an unfamiliar word again and again, I look it up. لا أبحث في القاموس عن أي كلمة غير مألوفة عندي مالم تتكرر علي أكثر من مرة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | When I want to confirm my guess about a word, I look it up. غالبا ما أعود للقاموس إذا ما رغبت في التأكد من حدسي حيال معنى أي كلمة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | When not knowing a word prevents me from understanding a whole sentence or even a whole paragraph, I look it up. لا أعود للقاموس للتأكد من معنى أي كلمة إلا إذا ما توقف معنى الجملة على هذه الكلمة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | I pay attention to the examples of use when I look up a word in a dictionary. غالبا ما أنتبه للامثلة المستخدمة في القاموس عندما أقوم بالبحث عن كلمة معينة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | When I want to know more about a word that I already have some knowledge of, I look it up. أعود للقاموس عندما أرغب في زيادة معرفتي بمعاني أي كلمة أعرف معناها مسبقا. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | I make a note when I want to help myself distinguish between the meanings of two or more words. غالبا ما اكتب لنفسي ملحوظات لتساعدني في تمييز معاني الكلمات لكلمتين أو أكثر. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | I write down both the meaning in my native language and the English explanation of the word I look up. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | I make a note when I see a useful expression or phrase. غالبا ما أقوم بتدوين أي مقطع أو عبارة تلفت انتباهي. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | I make vocabulary lists of new words that I meet. أقوم بعمل قوائم للكلمات الجديدة التي تمر علي. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | I go through my vocabulary list several times until I am sure that I don't have any words on that list that I still don't understand. أكرر المرور على قوائم الكلمات التي لدي حتى أتأكد من أنه لم تعد هناك كلمات على هذه القوائم ولا أعرف معناها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | When I try to remember a word, I repeat it aloud to myself. تكرار الكلمات بصوت مسموع يساعدي في تذكر هذه الكلمات. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | When I try to remember a word, I repeat its pronunciation in my mind. أكتفي بترديد الكلمة في راسي اذا كنت ارغب في تذكرها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | When I try to remember a word, I write it repeatedly. أقوم بكتابة الكلمة مرات كثيرة لأتذكرها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | I memorize the spelling of a word letter by letter. أتعمد حفظ تهجئة الكلمات حرفا حرفا. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. | I attach physical sensations to certain words (e.g., stinking) when I try to remember them. أقوم بربط الكلمات الجديدة بالحواس ليساعدي على تذكرها فيما بعد. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. | I act out a word in order to remember it better. اقوم بتمثيل بعض الكلمات لاتمكن من تذكرها لاحقا | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | I create a mental image of the new word to help me remember it. أقوم بخلق تصور ذهني عن الكلمات الجديدة لاتمكن من تذكرها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | I associate a new word to a known English word that looks similar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| | أقوم بربط الكلمات الجديدة بالكلمات الإنكليزية التي اعرفها في اللغة الانجليزية اذا كانت تتشابه معها. | | | | | |
| 24. | To help me remember words I analyze words in terms of prefixes, stems, and suffixes. لاتمكن من تذكر الكلمات فإني اقوم بتحليلها الى اصول وزوائد قبلية وبعديّة (البادئات واللاحقات). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | When I meet a new word, I search in my memory and see if I have any synonyms and antonyms in my vocabulary stock. عندما أصادف كلمة جديدة فإني ابحث في ذاكرتي عن أي مرادفات او عكوس لها في مخزون كلماتي. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | I group words into categories (e.g., animals, vegetables, utensils, etc.) أقوم بتجميع الكلمات على شكل مجاميع (مثلا الحيوانات, والخضار, والأدوات, ...الخ). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. | When I try to remember a word, I remember the sentence in which the word is used. عندما أرغب بتذكر كلمة معينة فإني اتذكر الجملة التي وردت بها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. | I remember the new word together with the context where the new word occurs. أتذكر الكلمة الجديدة والسياق الذي وردت فيه. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. | I try to read as much as possible so that I can make use of the words I tried to remember. أتعهد القراءة بكثرة في اللغة الانجليزية لاتمكن من استخدام الكلمات التي ارغب في تذكرها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. | I make up my own sentences using the words I just learned. أقوم بتكوين جمل خاصة باستخدام الكلمات الجديدة التي تعلمتها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. | I try to use newly learned words in imaginary situations in my mind. أقوم دائما بتخيل حوارات في رأسي واستخدم الكلمات الجديدة فيها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 32. | I often discuss with others on how to memorize new words with others. أقوم دائما بمناقشة الاخرين حول طرق حفظ الكلمات الجديدة. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. | When encountering new words, I ask teachers or classmates for help. عندما أقف على كلمة جديدة فإنني أستعين بزملائي والمدرسين لمساعدتي في معرفتها. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. | I actively communicate with foreigners. أستطيع أن اتحاور بطلاقة مع الاجانب. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. | I study and practice meaning in pairs/groups in class and outside class. أدرس وأمارس المعنى مع زملائي في أزواج / مجموعات داخل الفصل وخارج الفصل. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36. | When memorizing a new word, I often memorize its Arabic meaning first. عندما أرغب في حفظ أي كلمة جديدة فإنني أقوم أولاً بحفظ معناها العربي. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37. | When speaking, I arrange the meanings what I will express in Arabic, and then translate them from Arabic to English. عند التحدث ، أرتب المعاني ما سأعبر عنه باللغة العربية ، ثم أترجمها من العربية إلى الإنكليزية. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. | I often do self-evaluation for my words study so as to improve memorizing methods and strategies. غالبا ما أعمد الى تقييم أدائي في تعلم الكلمات وذلك لتطوير مهاراتي واستراتيجياتي في حفظ الكلمات. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |



Reading in the Digitized Era: Analyzing ESL Graduate Students' E-Reading Habit

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Abstract

This empirical investigation on the e-reading habit involved 109 graduate students (32.29 as mean age, SD – 10.34). The cross-sectional study gathered data through the employment of an 16-item adapted [by Maden (2018)] survey-questionnaire (with a reliability of Cronbach alpha = 0.87). Analysis of the data revealed that the respondents, on the average, are of 'satisfactory e-reading habit'. Moreover, it was determined that a gender difference exists favoring the female respondents of the study. In addition, a significant negative correlation is established between the respondents' e-reading habit and age. Finally, the study disclosed that respondents socioeconomic status influences e-reading habit. Discussions and Implications are herein found.

Keywords: *reading, e-reading, reading habit*

Introduction

Technology and globalization have provided tremendous influence in the fields of education and communication. Supportive of this is the claim of Delos Reyes, De Vera and Medriano (2018) that communication has been revolutionized making possible the comfort and ease of online messaging driven by the birth of wireless internet. Similarly, Rillo and Alieto (2018) maintained that, in this modern time indexed by technological revolution, most things have not remained as they were before. One good example supporting this claim is reading. Liu (2005) argued that reading has been greatly impacted by technology. It is an educational practice solely done before in print, until when it was possible to digitize materials. Supportive of this is the claim of Schneps, Thomson, Chen, Sonnert, and Pomplun (2013) that computers have modified the manner in which people interact with texts. In a similar vein, Gayan (2019) explained that technological innovations have altered the manner in which people approach information. Furthermore, the coming of the digital era is the section of human history when materials could be shared, accessed and read through computers, tablet devices, ipad, smartphones among others (Maden, 2018). This is a form of revolution which has altered the mode in which reading could previously be realized. Noticeably, although it is noted that the alteration has not come as a sweep and neither has it completely and immediately removed previous practice, it is claimed to slowly instigate a shift.

Reading materials electronically is what e-reading is all about. This practice has been favored for obvious reasons. Maden (2018) maintained that electronic reading materials save time, space and energy. This claim implies the following: first, e-reading saves learners from the inconvenience of carrying materials which, in most times, are of weight; second, e-reading spares readers from the struggle of finding a place to safe keep the print materials; and last, electronic readers are able to access digitized materials easily. Arguably, previous worries relating to the bringing, keeping and use of print materials are removed when one decides to read digitally.

The promise of ease and comfort in performing e-reading has been greatly considered. However, teachers' preference for this latest mode as regard reading is greatly based also on the idea that technology-based activities have a great appeal to present-time learners than the traditional ones. Thus, professional training and development of teachers are claimed to be focused to new forms of digital literacies (Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, Castek, & Henry, 2013). Despite being an interesting research concern and topic, limited investigations were conducted to provide empirical data as regards the e-learning habit. Exemptions to this claim are the studies of Yamaç and Öztürk (2019) which investigated the perceptions of pre-service teachers on new

literacies; Maden (2018) which investigated the digital reading habit of Turkish pre-service teachers; and, Akbar, Taqi, Dashti and Sadeq (2015) which aimed to determine how e-reading influences reading rate, comprehension and attitude. It can be noticed from this listing that the investigation of e-reading and e-reading habit as constructs were directed to learners at non-graduate level. However, none or at best limited are investigations carried out with graduate students as respondents; thus it is argued that the graduate students are underserved by research. Therefore, this investigation intended to provide empirical data relative to the e-reading habit of graduate students. In addition, this study purposed to determine whether a gender difference on the digital reading habit of the respondents could be drawn from the analysis of collected data. Addedly, the study aimed to determine whether age correlates with e-reading habit. Finally, this paper sought to identify whether a digital divide across socioeconomic status could be empirically established.

Review of related literature

Electronic reading

Traditional reading is claimed to be reading done through printed texts with books, magazines, pamphlets, and journals as limited examples. For years, there was no other known means to do reading except with the utilization of print resources. Thus, books and the likes have remained, over long period of time, to be perceived as essentials in the attainment of educational objectives. This means that printed materials as resources cannot be divorced from other educational practices. In fact, education has been noted to have reliance on printed books (Margolin, Toland, Driscoll, & Kegler, 2013). Although this practice has stayed for a long time, it did not remain as is. Wischenbart (2013) noted that there is an increase in the publishing of e-books, and a decline in the reading of printed books. This suggests that preference reading electronic materials is significantly growing, and that e-reading as an option is favourably considered. Supportive of this is the report of Walsh and Simpson (2013) that present-day learners are finding the use of technology beneficial and suited to their inclination. Corroborating with this claim is the report of Shen (2006) which noted that learners prioritize the internet as information source.

Reading through technology-based means has provided readers with options impossible when doing print reading. Electronic gadgets allow the use of tools such as word or phrasal search which, as claimed by Schneps et al. (2013), led to two things, the enrichment of the reading process and broadening of access to the text. Further, when doing print reading, linking texts with images and videos is not probable. This limitation in print reading is an advantage

offered in digital reading. In other words, through the use of extensive tools, e-readers are able to receive reinforcement in terms of pictures, videos, and pronunciation. These technological tools bring life to reading, and afford e-readers the qualitative privilege of digital reading (Yalcintas Sezgin & Ulus, 2017). In addition, the same authors maintained that mentioned features found in e-reading increases motivation to read and have aided comprehension. Against these, it is reasonable to believe that the importance of e-reading, as a form digital-literacy skill, can no longer be underrated; therefore, it is imperative to conduct investigations on this newly-found technology-based literacy

Electronic reading habit

Reading undoubtedly is an important skill to acquire. In fact, it claimed to be a basic manner of acquiring information and understanding (Erdem, 2015), and the heartbeat of education (Fatiloro, Adesola, Hameed, & Adewumi, 2017). Hence, educational systems have placed prominence on this skill; thus, it is considered as an essential skill needed to be well-founded among learners. Therefore, schools are of the goal of developing not only the reading skill, but more greatly making reading a sustainable habit. Moreover, as an extensively investigated construct, various authors advanced different definitions of the term. For authors like Buslon and Alieto (2019), it is a process of interpreting symbols and signals for the realization of understanding and communication. This definition is related to the claim of Özbay (2007) that reading is a cognitive process involving evaluation of symbols perceived through the eyes. These definitions are silent about the platform in which the skill is performed which is the only major difference that separates print reading from e-reading. Thus, it is maintained that e-reading is a process of interpreting letter symbols perceived through digital screens of technological device either online or off-line.

On the other hand, habit *'is a characteristic behavioral pattern that is learnt and reinforced in a manner realized in every case automatically'* according to Blaha and Bennett (1993, p.86). This means that habit starts from being an act and progresses to becoming a patterned behavior consistently realized. Similarly, for authors like Verplanken and Aarts (1999), habit relates to sequences of act learned and automatically performed. Following this definition, it can be inferred that the idea associating habit with automaticity remains to be echoed. This suggests that a habit is an automatic behaviour developed over time through constant practice.

Developing habit for reading is essential because learners who read more are the ones able to improve their skills, become critical thinkers who understand the world and understand

the roles they are to play in society (Edwards, 2011). This holds true in all types of reading – be it print or digital. Thus, various studies have been conducted to investigate the variable reading habit (e.g. Davidovitch, Yavich, & Druckman, 2016; Akçay, 2017). However, investigations on reading habit taking place digitally remain scarce (Gayan, 2019; Bates et al., 2017; Maden, 2018) especially those with graduate students who are identified respondents of this study.

Electronic reading habit and gender

Gender as a construct is created and developed by society (Bacang, Rillo & Alieto, 2019). It means that one's identity relating to whether being a male or a female is mainly dictated by the community. Moreover, Robbins and McGown (2016) submit that the gender binary (male and female) persists to be the categorization adhered to by the people. A parallel claim was provided by Gilbert (2009) that most individuals are accustomed to the male and female categorization of gender.

As an important factor to account in various investigations, the construct gender seemed to be ubiquitous among researches (Alieto, 2018; Bacang, Rillo & Alieto, 2019; Berowa, Ella & Lucas, 2019; Devanadera & Alieto, 2019; Torres & Alieto, 2019a; Torres & Alieto, 2019b; Ramos, Miñoza & Alieto, 2019). Moreover, gender has been included as an imperative construct in the investigation of e-reading (e.g. Abidin, Pourmohammadi, Varasingam, & Lean, 2014 ; Fatiloro, Adesola, Hameed & Adewumi, 2017)

Moreover, inconclusive results are determined by studies as regard the relationship of gender and digital reading habit. On one hand, gender has been determined to bear no significant influence of the e-reading habit. This is evidenced by the research of Abidin et al. (2014) which enlisted 240 form-four Malaysian students, gender was found to have no influencing effect on the e-reading habit of the students. On the other hand, gender was identified to have significant relationship with e-reading habit. Supportive of this claim is the research work of Fatiloro et al. (2017) who surveyed 200 College of Education students, and employed a quantitative design in the investigation of the e-reading habit having utilized gender as a moderating variable. The study found that there exists a significant relationship between the respondents' e-reading habit and gender with females determined to have better reading habit; hence, the need to factor in the variable gender in the investigation is to contribute results contextualized among graduate students.

Electronic reading habit and age

The spread of technological influence is claimed to be barriered by several factors; but, the most influential is the idea advanced by Prensky (2001) who claimed that there exists a digital. The same author provided a dichotomous categorization of individuals regarding adaption and access of technological innovations, the digital immigrants (DI) and the digital natives (DN). Those born during the digital era are called digital natives; on another hand, those born before period of technological advancement and are struggling to cope with the changes as result of technological revolution are the digital immigrants. This categorization implies that age is an essential consideration in the adaption and use of technological advancements. Although the author did not specify the year in which the digital age has begun, researchers like Howlett and Waemusa (2018) claimed that the digital natives are those born from the year 1982 while the digital immigrants are those born before it. Therefore, considering the time frame of this study, those aged 35 and below are the DN and those aged beyond are determined as DI. The claim that younger individuals are able to adapt technology while older ones are faced with great struggle is legitimate research area to explore. In this study, it is claimed that digital reading is an innovation led by technology thus determining the influence of age is an interesting venture.

Electronic reading habit and socioeconomic status

The determination of socioeconomic status (SES) is not realized through consideration of one factor alone (Bora & Ahmed, 2018). Different authors have claimed that SES is gauged through various constructs. Some examples include: education of parents (Destin, Hanselman, Buontempo, Tipton & Yeager, 2019), and household income (Devanadera & Alieto, 2019). It must be noted that this list could be extended to include occupation status and social background.

Moreover, upon survey of literature, it was noted that SES as a variable is included in most investigations relating to fields of education, language study and language policy (e.g. Delgado & Kassim, 2019; Devanadera & Alieto, 2019; Berowa, Devanadera & David, 2018; Miñoza and Montero, 2019). Against this, it is maintained that the SES of the respondents is an imperative consideration in the study of digital reading habit. However, despite so, to the researcher's knowledge, very limited studies were conducted on this regard. Thus, this present study investigated the role SES play in the extent of the e-reading habit of the respondents.

Research questions

This research work which enlisted graduate students is with a four-pronged objective. The following questions served as guide in the conduct and fulfilment of the investigation:

1. What is the e-reading habit of the respondents?
2. Is there a significant difference on the e-reading habit between male and female respondents?
3. Is there a significant relationship on the e-reading habit and age of the respondents?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the e-reading habit and socioeconomic status of the respondents?

Hypotheses of the study

The study provided four questions to answer. Among them, one could be answered through descriptive analysis of data. Further, remaining ones could be answered through the employment of inferential statistics. Along this line, the following hypotheses are given:

H_o – There is no significant difference on the e- reading habit between the male and female respondents.

H_o – There is no significant relationship between the respondents’ e-reading habit and age.

H_o – There is no significant relationship between the respondents’ e-reading habit and their SES.

Methodology

Research design

The study employed a descriptive-quantitative-correlational design. Johnson (2000 in Somblingo & Alieto, 2019) claimed that descriptive investigations intend to describe the investigated variables using simple statistical treatment such as mean, standard deviation and percentage (Abdon et al., 2019; Pattern & Newhart, 2017 cited in Tanpoco, Rillo & Alieto, 2019). In addition, the study aimed to determine if significant relationship exists between variables (e-reading habit & age; e-readig habit & SES); thus, the study is also determined to be a correlatonal research. Moreover, the study is characterized as cross-sectional as the amount of time used in data gathering is relative short and ‘one shot’ (Setia, 2016 in Perez & Alieto, 2018). Furthermore, the study used a survey-questionnaire as an approach to data gathering as informed by Dillman, Smith and Christian (2009 cited in Alieto, 2018) – noted to be both

efficient and effective especially when data are to be drawn from a large sample size such as in the case of this study.

Respondents of the study

The study involved a total of 109 graduate students taking their master's degree. On other note, The English language and the educational system in the said language are two of the greatest legacy of America to the Filipinos (Antonio, Bacang, Rillo, Alieto & Caspillo, 2019). As such, Filipinos are identified as English as a second language learners (ESL).

As regards gender distribution, most of the respondents are females who constitute 68% of the sample size. This statistics, to an extent, reflects the claim of Alieto (2019) that the course relating to teacher education is more appealing to females than to the male counterparts.

For the demographic profile age, the youngest respondent is aged 20 and oldest is aged 55 with 32.29 as mean age ($SD = 10.34$). This implies that the students intending to gain master's degree are of different age. Moreover, the distribution as evidenced by the standard deviation suggests that the age of the respondents are extremes.

With regard to the respondents' socio-economic status, majority of the respondents (40.4% or 44) reported to belong to middle class. On another hand, 31.2% or 34 claimed to be of high socio-economic status. The remaining percentage (28.4%) of the respondents have identified themselves to be of low economic status.

The research tool

The employment of likert questionnaire is an ever-practiced approach in data gathering (Ubalde & Rosales, 2018 cited in Ricohermoso, Abequibel & Alieto, 2019). In light of this, this study made use of an adapted questionnaire from Maden (2018). The questionnaire was originally composed of 26 items. The instrument was analyzed in terms of appropriateness of the statements as regards the objectives of the investigation. From the said process, 10 items were removed and only 16 were kept for the pilot testing of the tool.

The instrument was pilot tested to 30 graduate students who did not form part of the final sample size. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha was the employed method to determine reliability of research tool. It is disclosed that analysis of the data revealed that the instrument is of 0.87 reliability which is identified as 'good'; hence, all the 16 items were included in the final creation of the questionnaire.

Data gathering procedure

Possible participants were communicated through a correspondence. In the letter, it was explicitly stated that participation in the study is purely voluntary and that participation would not cause one to earn any form of merit and neither does non- participation would cause any form of demerit.

Participants who have decided to participate received a copy of the questionnaire which they brought home and promised to submit a week after. Out of the 135 provided questionnaire, only 109 were solicited back – 81% reponse rate. Efforts were exerted to contact the other participants who failed to give back the questionnaire; however, it was to no avail as most of them claimed to have lost the questionnaires or misplaced it.

Coding procedure

For the analysis of data drawn from the qualified and collected questionnaires to be possible through the use of SPSS, the following codes were used: Gender (1 for male and 2 for female), SES (1 for low, 2 for middle, and 3 for high). It must be noted that no code was provided for age; instead, the declared age of the respondents were encoded in the software as reported.

For the determination of the e-reading habit of the respondents, the responses were coded as follows: 1 for never, 2 for seldom, 3 for mostly, and 4 for always.

To give interpretation to the mean score of the tabulated responses, table 1 was used for the said purpose.

Table 1

Electronic Reading Habit Scale

| Range | | Descriptor | Interpretation |
|-------|------|------------|-----------------------------------|
| 3.25 | 4.0 | Always | Very Satisfactory E-Reading Habit |
| 2.5 | 3.24 | Mostly | Satisfactory E-Reading Habit |
| 1.75 | 2.49 | Seldom | Fair E-Reading Habit |
| 1.0 | 1.74 | Never | Poor E-Reading Habit |

Statistical tools utilized

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in this study. Specifically, in the determination of the e-reading of the graduate students, mean (M) and standard deviation (SD). For the objective to determine significant difference on the e-reading habit of the respondents,

the statistical treatment known as independent sample t-test was used. Moreover, in order to determine whether or not a significant relationship can be drawn between the respondents e-reading habit and their SES and the respondents e-reading habit and their age, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient (Also known as Pearson r) was employed.

Results and discussion

E-reading habit of the graduate students

The data drawn from the utilized research tool was tabulated, encoded and analyzed to determine the graduate students e-reading habit. Table 2 provides the descriptive analysis of the data.

Table 2

Respondents' e-reading habit

| Variable | M | SD | Description | Interpretation |
|-----------------------|------|------|-------------|------------------------------|
| Digital Reading Habit | 2.80 | 0.41 | Mostly | Satisfactory E-Reading Habit |

N=109; Scale: 3.25 to 4.0 – Always (Very Satisfactory E-Reading Habit); 2.5 to 3.24 – Mostly (Satisfactory E- Reading Habit); 1.75 to 2.49 – Seldom (Fair E- Reading Habit); 1.0 to 1.74 – Never (Poor E- Reading Habit)

The table discloses that, on the average, the respondents perform e-reading most of the time as evidenced by the mean score. It is interesting to note, upon further analysis of the data, that none of the respondents reported to have an e-reading habit characterized as 'poor'. It is speculated that since technology has integrated itself as an essential part of life it becomes inevitable for the respondents across ages to read digitally such as in the case of the respondents in this investigation. In addition, the result that points to the idea that the respondents are performing e-reading in a frequent manner is alluded multiple reasons.

One relates to the claim of Liu (2005) - the growth of information available in digital form. It is argued that digital creations are growing exponentially. Behind the claim is the reason that digital contents are much easier to produce and more economical to create as compared to their print counterparts. Additionally, it is claimed that it is the reason explaining the massive production of digital contents on daily basis. There is growth and abundance of available information in the digital world (Wisichenbart, 2013) which explains the attraction of

the respondents to attain digitalized information and contents through the performance of e-reading on a daily basis.

Moreover, Delos Reyes, De Vera and Medriano (2018) are seen to provide another reason for this result. The authors claim that the advancement in technology, the creation of wireless internet as an example, has caused unprecedented practices – the access and sharing of digital contents anytime and anywhere. Logically, it is inferred that digital reading could be now performed with less restrictions. Against this, it is further claimed that the discussed characteristic of e-reading, a task that could be performed with ease and comfort, has motivated the respondents to be engaged in reading digitally.

Digital reading habit across gender

To determine the significant difference on the reading habit between the male and female respondents of the study, the statistical tool known as independent sample t-test was employed in analyzing the data. Table 3 presents the analysis.

Table 3

Gender difference on the digital reading habit

| Variables | | | M | SD | Sig. |
|--------------------|--------|--------|------|------|--------|
| E-reading Habit | Gender | Male | 2.61 | 0.63 | 0.000* |
| | | Female | 2.91 | 0.25 | |

* significant at alpha = 0.01

The data ($p\text{-value} = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.01$), as provided in table 3, suggests that there is a significant difference on the e-reading habit of the respondents when data are grouped according to gender favoring the females. This further means that gender is a factor influencing e-reading habit. Interestingly, previous studies yielded result, to an extent, contradicts the present result that females are more engaged in doing a digital activity as females were found to be less adaptive to new technological platforms (Okazaki & Santos, 2012), less technologically adept (Goswami & Dutta, 2016), less confident of their technological skill (Li and Kirkup, 2007) than their male counterparts.

Moreover, the result on gender difference as regards e-reading habit opposes the claim of Abidin et al. (2014) that gender has neutral effect on the investigated construct. On the contrary, gender was determined to play an important role. This claim is corroborated by the findings of Fatiloro et al. (2017) who found that females significantly differ in digital reading

habit – females were of better habit as compared to males in the said study. It is supposed that extent inclination or preference in doing e-reading explains the result. Meaning, as a speculation, the female respondents of the study are more inclined of doing e-reading compared to the males of this study.

Correlation : E-reading habit and age

To determine the significant relationship between the respondents’ e-reading habit and age, the data were analyzed using the statistical treatment known as Pearson r. Table 4 shows the analysis.

Table 4

Significant relationship between the respondents’ e-reading habit and age

| Variables | | r- value | Sig. | Inter. |
|-----------------|-----|----------|------|-------------|
| E-Reading Habit | Age | -0.32 | 0.04 | Significant |

* significant at alpha = 0.05

The analysis revealed that there is a significant relationship between the respondents’ e-reading habit and age as evidenced by the p-value ($0.04 < 0.05$). Furthermore, the relationship is noted to be negative and characterized as ‘low correlation’. This means that older respondents have ‘poor’ e-reading habits; conversely, younger ones have ‘better’ e-reading habit. This result mirrors, to an extent, the claim of Prensky (2001) who claimed the existence of digital divide. The contention is that older generations are less likely to adapt to new forms of technology. Thus, it is supposed, along this line, that as e-reading is performed using digital devices which requires an extent of proficiency in handling it posts challenges to older respondents. Moreover, another form of proficiencies are needed to enable one to access the web, search using engines and do other online activities which may be overwhelming for some respondents especially the old ones as their exposure to technology use is not as profound to those of the young ones who have lived a life surrounded by technology.

Another logical reason seen to explain the reason of the negative correlation between age and e-reading habit relates to the challenges digital screens present to people of age. The bright screen and small font size discourages older ones are concerns and issues of old people when performing reading which younger ones do not care at all. This reason is advanced to

support that claim that older people limit their e-reading as screen viewing causes strained eyes – thus making e-reading less preferred.

Correlation: e-reading habit and socioeconomic status

To determine whether or not a significant relationship between e-reading habit and socioeconomic status of the respondents exists, the data were subjected to analysis using Pearson r. Table 5 gives the analysis.

Table 5

Significant relationship between the respondents e- reading habit and SES

| Variables | | r- value | Sig. | Inter. |
|-----------------|----------------------|----------|-------|-------------|
| E-Reading Habit | Socioeconomic status | 0.518 | 0.000 | Significant |

* significant at alpha = 0.01

The data (p-value = 0.000 < alpha = 0.01) suggests that there is a significant relationship between the variables. As provided by the r-value (0.518), the relationship is positive and moderate. This means that respondents coming from high economic status are noted to be the ones with ‘good’ e-reading habit; conversely, those coming from low economic status are the ones noted to be of ‘poor’ e-reading habit. This further suggests that SES as factor influences the e-reading habit of the respondents. It is argued that the reason for this result stems from the idea that online reading, online access among other online activities require the need for two essential things: a digital device and internet access which are claimed to be of a cost. This implies that those who could perform e-reading are the ones who could afford to purchase a digital device, be it a cellphone, computer, ipads among others, and could pay for an internet connection. Thus, as provided by this result, it can be further inferred that a divide exists and the division is between those who can afford and those otherwise.

Conclusion

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions are reached:

First, the respondents of the study are performing digital reading frequently; however, are not always doing digital reading as the preference for reading in print remains as an option. Therefore, it is noted that despite the proliferation of digital materials and the presence of

technology which has revolutionized reading in this time and age e-reading has not completely substituted print reading.

Second, gender plays an important role in the understanding of e-reading habit. This study provided a differing result as compared to previously conducted studies which pointed that males are more likely to be engaged in doing online activities. It is claimed that this study does not debunk nor refute existing claim on gender difference as regards online performance and activities; instead, provides an essential data in the pursuit of understanding the influence of gender on e-reading habit in specific contextualizations.

Third, the aged the respondent the less satisfactory their e-reading habit is. This means that technology integration is not all glory. It entails challenges as well specially to ageing population of the society as reflected by the result of this study.

Last, e-reading divide caused by financial capacity exists. E-reading is practiced when one can afford. Technology promises comfort and ease, but not for all. It is, as of the present stats. Exclusive for those who have the financial means to have it.

Implications

The study provides the following implications:

One is that the teaching mode in the graduate school should not be a complete adoption of method as such would prove to be detrimental to the varying state and characteristics of the students in relation to their preference, financial capacity, limitations and technological proficiency. Second is that, teachers explore the complex reasons behind the gender gap and socioeconomic divide on e-reading. Moreover, after understanding the reasons behind, efforts must be extended to bridge the gap. Third, sensitivity and tolerance must be afforded to older students attending graduate school. This does not mean that no effort would be provided to develop their skills relating to digital literacy. However, it explained that in giving assignments and reading tasks options be afforded – either in print, digital or a mixture.

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Overcoming Pronunciation Hurdles in EFL Settings: An Evaluation of Podcasts as a Learning Tool at Qassim University Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

Pronunciation is a major hurdle in the language competence of a non-native language user. The Saudi EFL learners are particularly concerned about picking the right pronunciation as natural inhibition acts as a limiting factor in the trial and error method which can otherwise be used to learn the correct pronunciation of English. The current study used the audio-visual MP3 option that the learners can carry on their smartphones and coupled these with innovative, challenging yet engaging activities to check if it brought about a change in the learners' pronunciation skills. Of the two groups that were engaged in the study, the experimental group

of college going EFL major participants showed a remarkable improvement of group mean in pronunciation tests by almost 50 percent in the post-test after the intervention of podcasts over a period of three months. The study concluded that podcasts are a popular learning tool among the Saudi EFL learners and should be exploited in their benefit.

***Keywords:** pronunciation, podcast, speaking learning tool*

Introduction

Pronunciation is one of the most important skills that EFL learners must develop for the purpose of effective communication. Fraser 2000 stated that pronunciation is the most important oral communication skill and that pronunciation matters in the judgment of the speaker by the listeners. It is the most difficult skill of the language to learn. Besides, human speech sounds in general, basically depend on the place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing, which are very crucial for clear pronunciation (Naji, 2019). According to Morley 1998, it is the pronunciation which creates the impression about the speaker of his knowledge of the language. Pronunciation mastery is needed for proficiency which, in turn, makes learners pragmatically competent in any social context (Alrefae & Al-Ghamdi, 2019). On the other hand, bad pronunciation can lead to misunderstanding between speaker and the listener. Moreover, a learner with poor pronunciation accent can lose his/her confidence and it may have overall negative impact on the personality of the learner. It is therefore important to understand that we may use simple words or grammatical structures in our communication, but we cannot use simple pronunciation (Lund 2003). Gelvanovsky (2002) maintains that pronunciation matters majorly in our social life like in deciding our prestige, social standing and even our professional competence. Students should be aware of supra-segmental aspects such as connected speech and word stress in order to help them become more autonomous learners, we can take advantage of the positive aspects of teaching adults instead of simply assuming that's it's too late to improve their pronunciation (Thompson & Gaddes, 2005). There are several hurdles which can affect the learning of pronunciation of a foreign language. **Age** is considered as an important factor in learning English pronunciation. Senel 2006 stated that learners who start at an early age are able to pick the second language more fluently and with clear accent but some scholars like Kenworthy 1987 do not support any relationship between age and acquiring of pronunciation skill. **Phonetic ability** is yet another factor in pronunciation abilities of a learner. As per Senel 2006, "some people have a better ear

capacity than some other people”. **Motivation and attitude** are the other essential traits for the development of the target language (Dornye, 2009).

Further, learning a second language would be difficult if a learner has a negative attitude towards the language (Darrin, 2017). Learner’s **native language** or **mother tongue interference** or **L1 influence** is the most important factor affecting EFL learner’s pronunciation skill. Cook 2008 said, “usually it is very easy to spot the first language of non-native speakers from their accents.” The native language can not only affect the capability of hearing English sounds but also their production as per Avery and Ehrlich 1992. In the EFL Saudi context, pronunciation is challenging for the majority of university students because of the lacking opportunities for using English in authentic situations in their daily life (Al-Harbi, 2019). This suggests the need for maximizing the opportunities for listening to English using technological aids such as podcasting. According to Al-Ahdal and Shariq (2019), technology has revolutionized the opportunities for Saudi EFL learners to learn English independently using mobile assisted language learning (MALL).

Review of Literature: The Saudi EFL learner and pronunciation

Bin Turki (2008) has also pointed out that due to L1 interference the speech of Saudi speakers contains instances of incorrect sound output of certain consonants. They are not able to differentiate between the sounds of /p/ and /b/ and /v/ and /f/ as a result *park* is pronounced as *bark* and *vine* as *fine*. It is a known fact that most learners face difficulty in pronunciation of foreign language because of mother tongue interference. In case of Saudi learners of EFL, L1 interference becomes all the more challenging because of fundamental differences in the sound system of Arabic and English languages. Vowels and consonants in English are not the same as in Arabic. Pronunciation consists of segmental features (consonants and vowels) and suprasegmental features (intonation, stress, pitch and rhythm). Saudi EFL learners face hurdles with both. Akuli (1989) and Al-Hattami (2010) have pointed out phonetic contradictions between English and Arabic language. Some of the examples are:

- (i) /p/ is a phoneme in English but it does not find a place in Arabic.
- (ii) /t/ is alveolar in English but it is dental in Arabic.
- (iii) /d/ is alveolar in English but it is dental in Arabic .
- (iv) /c/ is a phoneme in English but it does not find place in Arabic.
- (v) /v/ is a phoneme in English but it does not find place in Arabic

According to Jalal Ahmad (2011), Saudi students of EFL have difficulty with every aspect of language i.e. writing, reading, speaking, grammar and pronunciation. The learners particularly find certain English consonant sounds difficult to pronounce e.g. /p/, /d/, /v/, /t/. Khan (2011) pointed out that Saudi Learners are not able to appreciate the difference between the sounds of /sh/ and /ch/ as in *sheep* and *cheap*. Hameed and Aslam (2015) imagine a situation in which an 'English educated' Arab youngster will ask a parking attendant what he/she has to pay for the 'barking' since the phoneme /p/ finds no place in Arabic. Hago and Khan (2015) trace such pronunciation errors to allophonic differences between Arabic and English languages. Saudi learners also struggle with English vowel sounds because of ill realization of English vowel length. The result is that *pick* becomes *peak* when a learner lengthens /i/ into /i:/. With respect to suprasegmental features, Saudi learners mix up stress and intonation patterns. They wrongly stress syllables in individual words, stress the wrong word in a thought group and miss syllables in connected speech (Ali Bin-Hady, 2016).

Podcast

Podcast is a digital audio or video file available on internet for download to be played on any media player. Podcasting in education can play a very vital role. Campbell (2005) rightly points out that podcasting can dramatically play the most significant role in language learning, that of making communication possible. Tynan and Colbarn (2006) identify podcasting with m-learning as it makes possible for a learner to interact with educational resources while he or she is not physically present in classroom. Barnes, Marateo and Ferris (2007) call the present-day students as net generation and it is a challenge for the evolving pedagogy to meet the needs of these tech savvy students.

Podcasting and Pronunciation in EFL Learning

Ducate and Iomicka 2009 found that use of podcast could be effective for improvement in pronunciation of EFL learners. Knight (2010) examined the effectiveness of podcast as a tool for phonetics. His study revealed that podcasts are very effective tool for enhancing phonetic accuracy. Lebron - Lozada (2012) conducted a case study on the use of podcast generated by students themselves. This study showed that such podcast helped students in improving their overall conversational abilities in the sense that their speech was more fluent and pronunciation better. Al-Qasim and Al-Fadda (2013) conducted a quantitative study to analyze the effect of podcast on the students of EFL in Saudi Arabia with special reference to listening comprehension. They conducted their study on 46 female EFL learners. The results

of this study showed that the group which used podcast as learning tool performed much better than the one which did not use it.

Saka (2015) examined effectiveness of audio books on the pronunciation of EFL learners. He researched on 65 Turkish learners at Uludag University and found that audio books are very effective in improving the pronunciation of the learners. According to Hassan (2016) podcast are not only effective in EFL teaching but are also very useful tools at the hands of teachers. Podcasts are useful in learning language in general and effective in enhancing the listening skills of EFL learners. Robi (2016) in his study has highlighted the positive attitude of the students towards podcast. Podcast by native speakers made English learning exciting. Lack of internet access can pose problem for the students and too lengthy podcast can make students lose interest.

Mazouzi (2016) analyzed the role of audio books in improving pronunciation of EFL learners. This study found that use of podcast lead to considerable improvement in the pronunciation at all levels. The researcher also interviewed the participants of the study and found that all the learners had favorable attitude towards audio books. Shahid & Ali (2017) analyzed the usefulness of E-Learning tools in enhancing oral competence of the students. They found that oral proficiency of the students improved considerably with an introduction of podcast in EFL classrooms as it creates an environment of interactive learning whereby increasing the participation and motivation of the learners. Listening to podcasts allows learners to acquire correct pronunciation and better speaking skills. In a study conducted on Iranian EFL learners, Namazian, Islam et al (2017) have recommended use of podcast in EFL classes to enhance listening ability of the learners. Shahid and Zuraina (2017) studied the role of video podcast in EFL programs and found that video podcasts were of immense use in improving listening comprehension of EFL learners. Shahid (2017) found that video podcasts are of immense value in developing listening comprehension of EFL learners. What should be the duration or the length of the video podcast? He emphasized that an appropriate length of the video podcast is important for achieving the desired results. Astrimardila and Erwin (2017) have strongly advocated for the use of technology in EFL learning as technology helps both students and teachers. Technology can make English learning an interesting experience thus engaging students enthusiastically. Use of technological tools like podcast helps teachers in being creative and effective in classrooms. Vast amount of material available on podcast is extremely helpful for teachers in improving the listening and speaking skills of the EFL learners. Tryanti et al (2018) have studied and emphasized the importance of podcast in EFL programmes as it raises student's motivation to learn English. It is reasonable to expect that

motivated students shall overall perform better including in their pronunciation of English language.

Rahman, Haryanto and Kisman (2018) have studied the impact of podcast in improving listening comprehension skills of EFL learners. With the help of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies they found that podcast significantly improve listening comprehension skill of EFL learners in comparison to those who do not use podcast. They also found that most of the students approved of the use of podcast in teaching listening comprehension in EFL programs. Improvements in listening skills lead to betterment in pronunciation as well.

The review of literature, thus, amply reveals that there is unanimity among scholars and researchers that a student of EFL faces many challenges but hurdles in pronunciation are the most. There are many factors for faulty pronunciation, but mother tongue interference is the single most important hurdle and is even more challenging for Saudi learners because of fundamental differences in the sound system of Arabic and English languages. Use of technology has been found to be of immense help in EFL programs and podcasts, in particular, have been extremely useful both for students and teachers. Use of podcasts has been found to be effective in enhancing the listening, speaking and pronunciation skills of the EFL learners including those from Saudi Arabia.

Statement of the Problem

Vocabulary acquisition, retention and recall are the major challenges for the Saudi EFL learners. Even with the best effort of teachers to not resort to translation to mother tongue, integration of innovative technologies and more authentic testing machineries, learners' output on this component remains poor. This study tries to find if the use of podcasts enhances these skills in them as is supported by some literature in the area. For instance, Amemiya, Hasegawa, Kaneko, Miyacoda, and Tsukahara (2007) found in a study that though there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups at the end of a two week long experiment, at least 40% of the English vocabulary was retained by those participants who used iPods as compared to the traditional manual writing memorization exercises followed by the other group. Remarkably this group only retained 27% of the language items. Similarly, a study by Lord (2008) found that there was significant enhancement in the pronunciation abilities of the participants as far as total pronunciation skills were concerned. This study used the Pronunciative Attitude Inventory. Thus, previous studies have clearly established positive learner attitudes to the use of podcasts and in these studies, technical hurdles were also not

faced at any point of time as the learners were well acquainted with their use via their non-academic exposure to these. However, there exists a gap in research as far as Saudi Arabia and its EFL scenario are concerned. It is this gap that the current study hopes to fill by examining the use of podcasts as a pronunciation learning tool for the Saudi EFL learner.

Research Questions

The study worked around the following research questions:

1. Does the conventional teaching methodology sufficiently train the Saudi EFL learners in English pronunciation?
2. What is the learners' output with the use of podcasts as pronunciation help in and outside the classroom?
3. By what parameters can the podcasts be chosen to ensure optimum learning outcomes for Saudi EFL learners?

Research Objectives

In keeping with the Problem Statement above, the current study set as its objective to find out how useful the Podcasts are in improving the pronunciation skills of the Saudi EFL learners given the facts that English is a foreign language for them and their exposure to real time native pronunciation of the language items is really limited.

Significance of the Study

New ideas rule the roost of the EFL milieu, and it is in keeping with this trend that the current study holds significance. It is the need of the hour for the teaching community to keep apace what engages the youth if they are to stay connected to their learners. In Saudi Arabia, classrooms are inundated with innovative teaching technologies but the learners desire that which is their anywhere-anytime teacher. Podcasts or portable audio-visual files are a big hit with this generation and we are to equip them with a language they can use anywhere-anytime, the means have to be equally accessible to them. Hence the intervention of MP3 files that can be downloaded onto their smart devices for use even outside the classroom.

Methodology

Metrics for Podcast Collection

The freely available TED Talks running to eighteen minutes and covering any of the current topics that may be of interest to the youth were used for the study. In all, twelve out of

twenty of these were chosen by the researcher. In three different pre-runs, these were vetted by a panel of four EFL faculty members, two of whom were native speakers of English to ensure that the video content was suitable for the average Saudi EFL learner. At least half of the selected videos came with subtitles for additional assistance. The titles that were finally chosen were as follows:

- i. The secrets of learning a new language
- ii. Sleep is your superpower
- iii. The difference between healthy and unhealthy love
- iv. How to build your confidence and spark it in others
- v. This is what happens when you reply to spam email
- vi. 10 ways to have a better conversation
- vii. The magic of truth and lies
- viii. How to speak so that people want to listen
- ix. The disarming case to act right now on climate change
- x. Your body language may shape who you are
- xi. Looks aren't everything. Believe me, I'm a model
- xii. Brain magic

These talks ranged between ten to eighteen minutes. While some of these talks had a direct relation to the participants' communicative competence, both verbal and non-verbal, the others were chosen for their closeness to the dilemmas faced daily by young people all over the world. The purpose was to make the exercise not only learning rich but also, interesting and exciting for the participants. Once the repertoire was okayed by the panel, the experiment got underway with the previous term's listening-speaking scores of the participants acting as the base data of their competence. These are later chronicled with the post test scores in Table 1.

Population, Scope and Method of the Study

Pronunciation is part of the EFL curriculum and is also one of the components tested for assessment. Innovative methods are constantly being thought of by the teachers and learners are well adjusted to technological interventions being a part of the learning pedagogy. Saudi young people, especially college populations, use their smart devices as learning tools, sometimes as per the guidance of their teachers, but majorly as an individual initiative. The participants for this study were two groups of sixteen students each as control and experimental groups from the College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University of KSA. All the participants were males in the age bracket of 20-21 years being the third year students of

English major courses at the university. The EFL background of these participants was common as they all came from urban schools and had had a minimum of eight years of EFL education by the time of the experiment. Another characteristic that the participants shared was their scores in the listening-speaking components of the last term end exams which were held a month prior to the commencement of the experiment. The experiment lasted twelve weeks, each week the participants of the experimental group (hereinafter EG) were asked to listen on the podcasts one TED Talks video the title of which was suggested by the teacher. The control group (hereinafter CG) in the meantime were taken through the listening-speaking curriculum in the conventional fashion.

At the end of the first week, and in this week the participants were requested to listen to *The Secrets of Learning a New Language*, reinforcement and evaluative exercises were taken up. It may be mentioned here that the EFL class is held daily for 45 minutes through five days. In the very first activity that the researcher proposed the EG was divided into four groups of four participants each where two were asked to speak on the merits of learning a new language while the other two groups spoke on the demerits of it. The participants were free to prepare cryptic notes to refer to and to speak in turns, the only bind being that they were to stick to English. The teacher acted as the mediator and gently but imperceptibly corrected their pronunciation errors. The next day, a quiz was planned with the entire group being divided into two groups, the quiz was based on the various points raised by the speaker Lydia Machova in the talk. New words introduced in the talk were practiced over and over again during the quiz, frequently going back to Machova's rendition to reinforce the pronunciation with the participants. The third day activity required the participants to come to the class with two words each from English whose pronunciation always challenged them and train their peers in speaking them out correctly. On the fourth day, a pronunciation dominoes game was planned with two teams where boxes numbered one to six contained bits of paper bearing words that were to be pronounced by a team for which the dice was thrown by the other one, one piece pulled out from the box with the number same as that got on the dice. The fifth day was kept for an open house discussion helping participants analyze and share the obstacles they faced with the TED Talk of the week. They were also encouraged to go back to the talk in the following weeks too and practice pronunciation of not only the new words they came across, but also the routine and mundane words. The process was repeated but with minor variations in the week-long activities planned for a video. At the end of the twelve-week period, the participants were again required to take a term exam in listening-speaking. The pre and post

test results were compared within the groups (EG and CG) and also inter group to evaluate the efficacy of the podcasts in enhancing EFL learners' pronunciation.

Data Analysis and Results

As mentioned early in the section above, university level listening-speaking test results were documented before the onset of the experiment. These were later compared inter and intra group to understand if podcasts or traditional classroom methods were better for enhancement of learners' pronunciation. Table 1 below presents the frequency distribution of these scores for CG. The pronunciation component in both the pre and post test carried 25 marks.

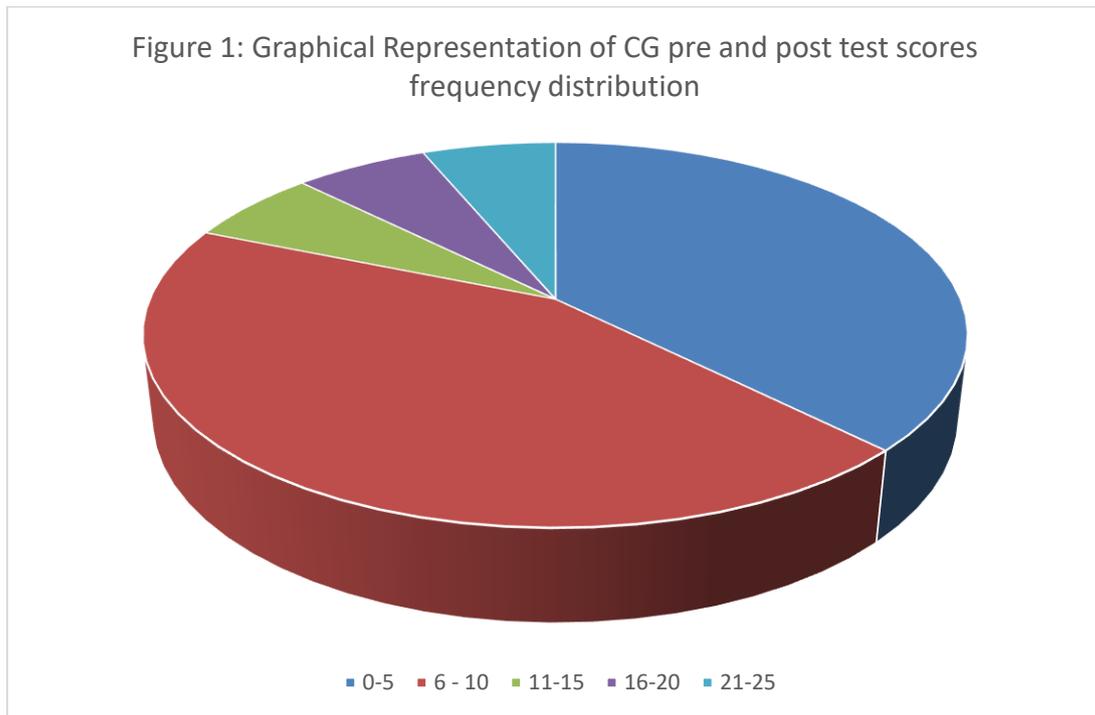
Table 1: CG pre and post test scores frequency distribution

| | 0-5 | 6-10 | 11-15 | 16-20 | 21-25 |
|-----------|-----|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Pre test | 6 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Post test | 7 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

Further, the mean score of the CG in the pre and post test did not show any significant change, with the pre-test mean resting at 7.5 and the median at a comparable 7. In other words, the tendency of all the subjects in the CG is towards a score of 7 in the pre-test. Similar values are reflected in the post-test as well: the mean at a negligible higher of 7.56 and the median value at 7, again showing the tendency of the group to score 7 out of a maximum of 25 marks, a worrisome low of 28%.

Figure 1 below graphically represents the frequency distribution summarized in Table 1.

Figure 1



From the data it is clear that the CG participants more or less remained dormant so far as the enhancement of pronunciation goes. This finding is also worrisome as given their low mean score, it can be concluded that their pronunciation skill will be bracketed as ‘poor’, certainly far from the desirable learning outcomes. These outcomes are quite different for the EG as documented in Table 2 below.

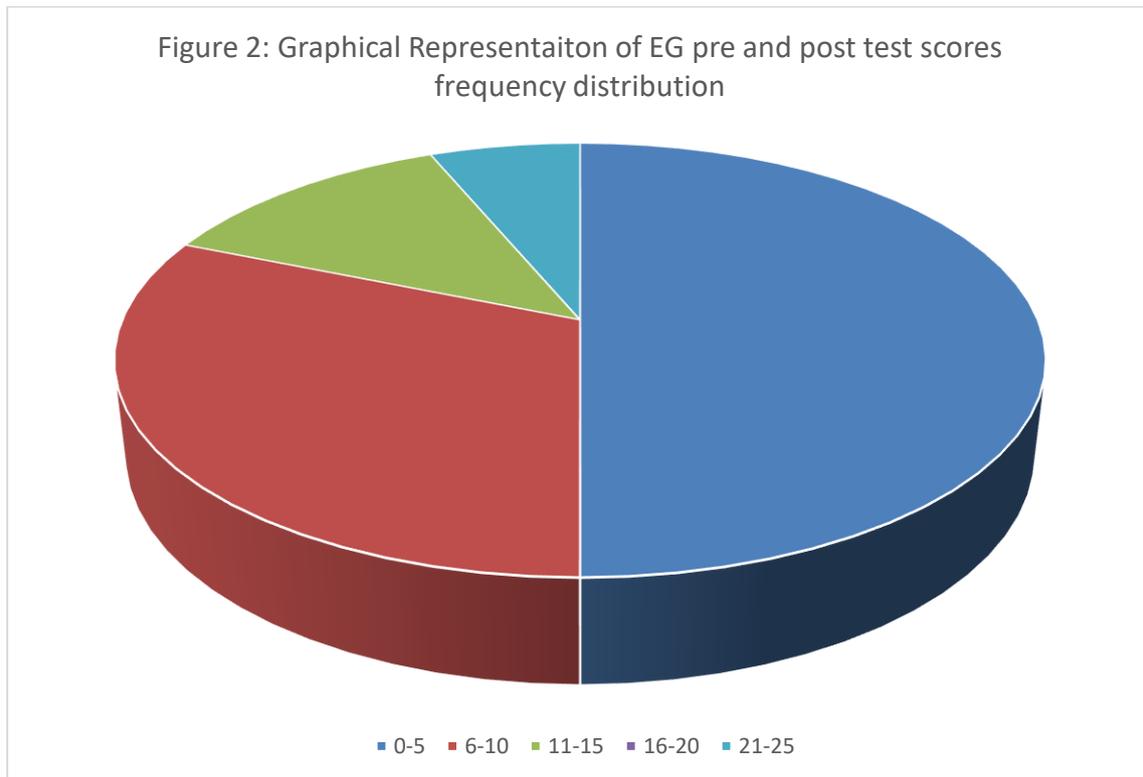
Table 2: EG pre and post test scores frequency distribution

| | 0-5 | 6-10 | 11-15 | 16-20 | 21-25 |
|-----------|-----|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Pre test | 8 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| Post test | 1 | 0 | 8 | 6 | 1 |

For the convenience of interpretation at a glance, these results are presented in Figure 2 graphically using a pie diagram.

Figure 2 below graphically represents the frequency distribution summarized in Table 2.

Figure 2



Measures of the central tendency for this group demonstrate clearly that the intervention was well received by this group. In the pre-test, the group mean rested at 7.48 and the median was at 7 showing a right skewness pattern. This reading is not significantly different from the CG which had comparable values in pre as well as post-tests. What draws the attention in the scores of the EG is the jump in the values in the post-test. While the group mean rose to 13.81, a steep rise of 50.68%, the median value also shifted to 13 which goes to show that the entire group's performance was positively affected by the intervention. The rise in the group mean also translates to 55.24% average score in pronunciation.

Conclusions

The study helped draw certain conclusions: Innovative technological intervention can help tackle many problem areas that are a teacher's anathema in the language classroom. Technology can definitely not be banished from the educational lives of the learners today, as teachers, we can, at best, keep pace with it and adapt it to fulfil learner needs. This study began with a quest to ascertain if podcasts can be useful in enhancing Saudi EFL learners' pronunciation, it concludes that audio-visual input such as provided by podcasts along with the

right choice of subjects that these concern themselves with, can bring about a positive development in their pronunciation skills. As teachers, we need to be abreast of what clicks with our learners, whether technologically or otherwise, to be able to integrate that as an engaging agent in the classroom.

Recommendations

The study recommends that learner needs and available technology to fulfil those needs should be adequately inventoried before recommending any pedagogical changes in the EFL classroom. Further, the public domain (internet) is flooded with educational options that sometimes tempt institutions and teachers but any blind adoption of these need not endure the production of desired learning outcomes. Finally, technology ought to be a fun tool for both teachers and learners, and it is this moot idea that needs to be promoted across educational environments for optimum development and growth of the learner.

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Analytical Reconstruction: A Language Education Philosophical Foundation of Lyrics and Video “Baby Shark”

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Abstract

The song “Baby Shark” is one of the most popular language-learning media for children. Many studies have proven the effectiveness of songs in improving children's language skills. The study of the foundation, meaning, and value in the songs is also important to do. With the inferential content analysis

method, this study aims to find the philosophical foundation of language education reflected in the videos and lyrics of the song "Baby Shark." This research begins with data making (unit determination), data reduction, inference, and analysis. The unit used as data in this study is a video and lyrics of the song "Baby Shark" on the Pinkfong Youtube channel. In conducting inference, hints and signs are used, and the data were analyzed by paying attention to each word in the song lyrics, every movement, and expression in the video, as well as other supporting information such as background music. Besides, the theory of language philosophy and education are used as a basis for the inference. NVivo 12 Plus was used to help the analysis. Based on the results of inference, it was found that the philosophical foundation of language education underlying this song is analytical reconstructionism. Interpretation of the meaning of the song can only be understood by connecting verbal signs with nonverbal signs on the video. Also, social issues are raised to be able to understand the reality of family life in Korea. By knowing the philosophical foundation of this song, teachers are expected to be wise in using it in learning so that learning objectives, according to the curriculum, can be achieved.

Keywords: *analytical, reconstruction, philosophical foundation, baby shark, songs*

Introduction

The role of songs has been confirmed as crucial media to help students' learning. Songs do not only engage the students in learning (Lo & Li, 1998; Schoepp, 2001; Shen, 2009; Arevalo, 2010; Brown & Brown, 1997; Bokiev, et al. 2018; Widyasari, 2016), but also motivate students (Stansel, 2008; Chou, 2014; Romero, 2017; Ajibade & Ndububa, 2008; King, 2010; Cook, 1997; Lems, 2018) and help them in building vocabularies (Shiple, 1998; Cameron, 2001; Fisher & MacDonald, 2001; Ernoz, 2007; Romero, 2017; Coyle & Gracia, 2014; Chou, 2014; Davis & Fan, 2016; Aquil, 2012; Kerekes, 2015; Kusnierek, 2016; Javadi-Safa, 2018; Suriyatham, 2019). As the other literary works, like poetry and prose, songs also play vital part in inserting and building values (White, 2015), ideology (Tomlinson, 1995; Photikanit & Sirasoonthorn, 2018; El-Falaky, 2015; Kusumah, 2016), and culture (Cheung, 2001; Plagwitz, 2006; Ajibade Ndubaba, 2008; Jolly, 1975; Saricoban & Metin, 200; Orlova, 2003; Pennycook, 2003; Pennycook, 2007; Arevalo, 2010) of a region or nation. Many studies in cognitive science, anthropology, sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, FLA, and SLA, have been verified the significant contributions of songs in young learners' lives (Engh, 2013).

In this digital era, YouTube has become the most popular social media used by children to access many contents, including songs. The most popular and watched song in the last four years, which reaches

4,277,154,202 views (in December 2019), is "*Baby Shark*." It was uploaded by the Pinkfong YouTube channel and becomes popular until now. Even this video reached rank 32 in the top 100 of the most viewed videos in all over the world in 2019. Looking at this phenomenon, "Baby Shark" indeed becomes one medium of learning English for children around the world. Carrying 'Family Members' theme, it contains more critical and implied meaning than just the introduction of family members. Especially in the video of Pinkfong Youtube channel, there are many signs in the movement that lead to the motives of the video maker.

Research that examines Baby Shark's lyrics and videos are still minimal. Arif & Triyono (2017) have indeed conducted a critical discourse analysis of Baby Shark's lyrics and found that Baby Shark is a song that depicts a culture of hard work. By using metaphors, the song is intended to show a form of the mindset of the Korean people. Besides, Maydi & Esfandiari (2018) focused on how video *baby shark challenge* is used to represent a leader profile. From their study, it was found that through the baby shark challenge, the leader can build his profile as a firm but humanist figure. Unfortunately, from those previous studies, there are no findings that can show the philosophical foundation that underlie that song. As a media in teaching and learning English, to be the basis of its educational practice (Nurlaila, 2014; Suyitno, 2007; Ornstein, 1991; Saritas, 2016; Bim-Bad & Egorova, 2016), it is undebatable that Baby Shark must have clear language and education philosophical foundations. The foundations are reflected, both through song lyrics and in the video. Consequently, this study was conducted to investigate the philosophical foundation of language education reflected in the lyrics and video Baby Shark.

Background Literature

Philosophy of Education

Education requires philosophy as a basis and guidance in carrying out the practice of Education (Nurlaila, 2014; Suyitno, 2007; Ornstein, 1991; Saritas, 2016; Bim-Bad & Egorova, 2016; Mukaromah & Mutoharoh, 2019). Dewey (1961) mentioned that philosophy can be said as a general theory in the world of education, which later became a crucial foundation in determining the educational curriculum (Ornstein, 1991; Hopkins, 1941; Dewey, 1916; Smith, Stanley, & Shores, 1957; Bim-Bad & Egorova, 2016; Ogowora, Kuria, Nyamwaka, & Wyakan, 2013; Budiharso & Arbain, 2019). Not only curriculum, but philosophy also distinguishes the basis for educators to make decisions in the selection of material, textbooks, media, and other cognitive and non-cognitive activities (Ornstein, 1991). Thus, Education can be said as a laboratory for philosophical theory and speculation to be tested and implemented (Dewey, 1961; Patel, 1958) and philosophy is a guide to educational wisdom passed down from generation to generation (Young, 2013;

Doganay & Sari, 2003). Renani (2019) has proven that a good understanding of philosophy from the teacher has a positive effect on the teacher's professional knowledge related so that it will significantly support the practice of education.

There are various philosophies of education from time to time, which form the basis of Education practice in each country. Each philosophy gives a framework, both for policymakers, as well as for practitioners in the world of Education. It is undebatable that the selection of the philosophical foundation is inseparable from the ideology of each country and region (O'neil, 1981). Some philosophies of education that are known are perennials, essentialism progressivism, reconstructionism, existentialism, post-modernism, and critical pedagogy.

Perennialism is based on Realism philosophy, which aimed at helping students to know and internalize ideas and values which are universal and lasting forever (Tan, 2006). Intellectual is the most crucial focus through the classics and the traditions of the community (Ellis, Cogan & Howey, 1991). The material used should be classic and great books, including arts, music, and classical literature, to make students capturing the essence of truth, goodness, dan beautiful (Guttek, 2004), like Shakespeare's works. Teachers should be well educated, knowledgeable, intellectual, and have good morals as a model.

However, like perennialism, essentialism emphasizes universal and permanent ideas that can be gained through great works of great people. Schools are expected to convey cultural and historical heritage to students for their skills, attitudes, and values development (Ellis, Cogan & Howey, 1991). The curriculum is not determined based on students' needs and interest, but rather by the traditions and heritage that the students need to master for advanced education, the world of work, and active social and political participation (Guttek, 2004). Intellectually and morally, experts are the essential requirement for the teachers to be able to maintain students' competence and discipline. In order to be a good member of civilized society, discipline cannot be negotiated to master (Ornstein & Levine, 2003). Besides, in order to check students' achievement, many competency tests are conducted as the assessment.

Unlike perennialism and essentialism, progressivism offers a shift in the approach to education. It concerns the uninterested teacher-centered and rigid process of teaching. The human experience is the source of knowledge and values, so it highly depends on individual experience. Schools, as social agencies, have to be democratic and create more chances for students to interact with an environment that is continually changing. Problem-solving, inquiry, and self-discovery are skills which are crucially developed to confront students' personal and social problems. Teachers are facilitator and guide to help the students in their problem-solving. Since the attention is on the holistic development of the whole child – emotionally, physically, socially, and intellectually (Guttek, 2004), collaboration is more important than competition.

In line with progressivism, reconstructionism also considers schools as social agencies rather than mere academic institutions. Nevertheless, it is argued that schools should be the centers for the reconstruction of society and the creation of a new social order. Learning about global issues, like economic and political problems such as poverty, warfare, famine, and terrorism, as well as be equipped with the necessary skills to solve these problems, are the main focus of school activity. It also includes multicultural education, believing that students need to go beyond their inherited culture to construct a tremendous sense of identity and purpose. A multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary curriculum is adopted, and the teacher also needs to create real social projects for students.

In existentialism, universal and straightforward ideas are rejected. Reality is on individual construction. It is believed that every individual is unique, and they have their condition and choices (Ornstein & Levine, 2003). Schools should recognize that every student is a free, unique, and sentient being with personal fears, hopes, and aspirations (Tan, 2006). Individual needs and preferences determine the material and way of learning.

Consequently, it neglects the needs of the community and society, leading to selfishness and egoism (Ozmon & Craver, 2003). Open-minded and reflective are fundamental skills for the teacher to build a free atmosphere for students' learning. Real-life examples of struggles faced by individuals could be introduced through a variety of means such as literature, films, and music. An authentic assessment sounds more suitable for reflecting the students' progress.

Postmodernism is a more perspective of beliefs. Rejecting the existence of objective and eternal knowledge, they assert that all claims to knowledge are constructed by those in power to establish and perpetuate their control over the oppressed and exploited. Postmodernists beliefs that the aim of education is authorization and alteration – to occupy the students to discard the dominant or people in power obligation, develop their own identities, and convert society by liberating the marginalized groups from domination. Teachers play a crucial role in helping students to transform their knowledge to serve ideological and political interests in different ways (Ozmon & Craver, 2003). Student-centered learning will give students a chance to begin with, the real personal identities, histories, and ordinary experiences then proceed to more abstract meanings of culture, history, and politics. A variety of narratives should be used for the students to see the different perceptions from those in power and those who are marginalized (Tan, 2006). Through this approach, Yew (2020) stated that students can recognize the different constructions of reason and knowledge in specific historical contexts and learn to reflect on, re-interpret, reformulate, and construct their own identities and histories.

Critical pedagogy is based on existentialism, post-modernism, and the impact of Marxism. Critical pedagogy aims to analyze social and educational conditions in schools and society in order to surface exploitative power relationships and introduce reforms that will produce equality, fairness, and justice (Gutek, 2004). It opposes the transmission of universal and traditional knowledge, ideas, and values. They are also skeptical of the hidden curriculum to use for the sake of people in power domination. Instead, it promotes a flexible and multidisciplinary curriculum that is based on the students' own experiences. A good teacher has to be able to select the teaching materials and activities with the students' life stories as the starting point. From that initial activity, a plurality of voices and perspectives is encouraged by students from different ethnic, language, class, and gender. He or she also assists the students in achieving their own identity and working towards greater equality and justice for all.

Philosophy of Language

Philosophy, which comes from the Greek word, *Philos* (love) and *Sophia* (wisdom), means investigating things that are favored or wisely favored. Because of his love for something, a philosopher will always come to his critical questions. Through philosophy, philosophers can think openly in order to get the deepest essence of something. Thus, philosophy is a product of thinking, which is a general belief, principle, and attitude and a process that can form a concept for decision making in life.

The process of thinking in philosophy indeed cannot be separated from the use of language. Language is used as the primary communication media. Consequently, philosophers also need language as a medium of thought and convey the results of their thinking, namely through the use of language (Sudartini, 2011). Language and thought are interdependent (Grice, 1989; Davidson, 1984). With language, philosophers are able to do philosophy, and with philosophy, linguists can understand the language in-depth and comprehensively. High-level thought processes (Vygotsky, 1978) and reflective inquiry (1933), which were carried out by philosophers, can only be achieved by using language. Thus, it seems clear that the philosophy of language becomes an essential branch of philosophy in its existence.

Just like other philosophies of science, linguistics also develops on the philosophical basis of language itself. Various linguistic theories are born from various philosophical foundations that have varied views on language. Various streams of language philosophy emerged, such as the philosophical language of structuralism, analytic, existentialism, pragmatism, and post-modernism. All these philosophical foundations view language through different points of view.

Structuralism gives a new paradigm for linguists, sociologists, and philosophers to analyze a specific field as a sophisticated system of interrelated parts. It believes that all human activity and its products are

constructed and not natural (Moghaddas & Dekhnich, 2015). It also holds that everything has meaning. It is believed that every system holds a structure, and that structure regulates the position of every element. Structural rules deal with existence than deviations, and that structures are the "real things" underlying the surface of meaning (Moghaddas & Dekhnich, 2015). Meaning can be gained through the process interpretive when signs do not exist without another sign acting. To get a holistic understanding and interpretation, relating all the signs, verbal dan non-verbal is crucial.

Analytic philosophy opposed idealism and the method of this form of metaphysics. This philosophy is a foundation to explain, elaborate, and test philosophical statements (Kaelan, 1998). In order to prove the truth, language should be used since language has cognitive functions. As stated by Grice (1989) and Davidson (1984), language and thought are interdependent. The true meaning can be gained by formulating the logical thought using language. A meaningful proposition can only represent the reality if it has a logical structure and can be verified empirically. The proposition is not only about its grammatical form but expressed in the categories of contemporary formal logic. The study of logic reveals the fact that meaning validity depends on the premise and the conclusion of the sentence.

Pragmatism is a philosophy or thought about action (Keraf, 1987: 15). This philosophy states that whether a theory is correct depends on the meaning of the theory for humans. Thus, the measure for all actions is the benefit in practice and results that promote life. On that basis, our goal of thinking is to obtain the final results that can bring our lives more advanced and more useful. Pragmatism criticizes the old philosophical systems, which, according to pragmatism, have made the mistake of looking for the ultimate, absolute, and eternal essence. Regarding language, adherents of pragmatism argue that language is a means of dialogue and expression of ideas. Thus, new meanings will be obtained when there has been interaction and dialogue between the users of the language.

Blackburn (1994) defined postmodernism as a response contrary to assurance in objective or scientific truth. It denies the idea of fixed meanings or any correspondence between language and the world, or any fixed reality or truth or fact to be the object of inquiry. Postmodernism seems to have influenced the ways of finding the truth of meaning. Truth is subjectivity, which means that subjective truth emphasizes the importance of the experience experienced by an individual, which he considers relative. Derrida, through his deconstruction theory, states that meaning is obtained through intertextual studies so that there is no definite and final meaning. In a text with accepted meanings, there are still meanings obtained through other means or even radical ways to find meanings that are not expressed by the text but are deeply embedded in the text. The meaning depends on the experience of each individual that is relative and not the same.

Table 1. Education and Language Philosophy

| Education Philosophy | Language Philosophy |
|--|--|
| <p>Perennialism</p> <p><i>Focus:</i> Intellectual</p> <p><i>Material:</i> Classic and great books like Shakespeare's works.</p> <p><i>Teachers:</i> Well educated, knowledgeable, intellectual, and have good morals as a model.</p> | <p>Structuralism</p> <p>Language has cognitive functions, and it should be verified empirically.</p> |
| <p>Essentialism</p> <p><i>Focus:</i> Intellectual and Discipline</p> <p><i>Material:</i> great works of great people related to culture, history, and politics</p> <p><i>Teachers:</i> Well educated, knowledgeable, intellectual, and have good morals as a model.</p> | <p>Analytic</p> <p>Meaning can be gained through the process of interpretive. The signs do not exist without another sign acting.</p> |
| <p>Progressivism</p> <p><i>Focus:</i> Social interaction (collaboration) for gaining experience</p> <p><i>Materials:</i> Related with real-life and students' problems</p> <p><i>Teachers:</i> facilitator and guide to help the students in their problem-solving.</p> | <p>Pragmatism</p> <p>Meaning can only be achieved through interaction and dialog. Something has meaning if it is beneficial for human life.</p> |
| <p>Reconstructionism</p> <p><i>Focus:</i> centers for the reconstruction of society and the creation of a new social order.</p> | |

Material: global issues, like economic and political problems such as poverty, warfare, famine, and terrorism, as well as be equipped with the necessary skills to solve these problems and multicultural education

Teachers: create real social projects for students.

Existentialism

Focus: Individual uniqueness and construction.

Material: determined by individual needs and preferences.

Teachers: Open-minded and reflective

Postmodernism

Focus: occupy the students to discard the dominant or people in power obligation, develop their own identities, and convert society by liberating the marginalized groups from domination.

Materials: debatable and makes the students show their voices

Teachers: helping students to transform their knowledge to serve ideological and political interests in different ways.

Postmodernism

No fixed meaning, truth is subjectivity based on one's experience, the meaning is relative

Critical pedagogy

Focus: analyze social and educational conditions in schools and society in order to surface exploitative power relationships, and introduce reforms that will produce equality, fairness, and justice

Material: multidisciplinary and intercultural based on the students' own experiences.

Teachers: intercultural competence

Method

This study is a qualitative study with an inferential content analysis model. The objectives of the qualitative content analysis are to elaborate on the language education philosophical foundation of the content in 'Baby Shark' lyrics and video deductively. The content analysis procedure is carried out in stages (1) data making, (2) data coding, (3) data reduction, (4) inferential, and (5) analysis. In data making, a video of Baby Shark uploaded by PinkFong YouTube channel was downloaded and transcribed. Then, the coding was done to differentiate the unit of analysis. Unit of analysis in this qualitative content analysis is the themes for the lyrics (coded by T1, T2, T3, until T9.) and the scenes for the video (coded by S1, S2, S3, until S13.). After coding the data, data reduction was conducted to reduce irrelevant data. The inference is made by linking or comparing findings on song lyrics and videos with theories of language philosophy and education (Zuchdi & Afifah, 2019). After that, the results of inference are discussed and interpreted using relevant theories and researches.

Finding

The Baby Shark video, which lasts 1 minute 46 seconds, begins with PinkFong's identity as the publisher of this video. The PinkFong mascot was also seen, which is a young pink fox with a small yellow crown on its head. Before the song began, the mascot ran to the left side, and the screen changed to the video of the Baby Shark song. At the beginning of the song (S1), Baby Shark's writing appears in dark blue placed in the middle of the sea in light blue. The sky was clear with white clouds, which added to the impression that the day was bright. In the baby shark writing, there is also an air inhaler pipe commonly used by divers, as if the baby shark writing will use it to prepare for diving. Also seen the tip of the fox's tail on the water surface from left to right. In scene 2 (S2), the video shows the inside of the sea from a distance. A shadow of a big fish with a pink fox's tail swam from right to left. Besides, other small fishes began to emerge, both clear and visible from a distance.

Next, in scene 3 (S3), it appears that the big fish is swimming closer from right to left. It was clear that the big yellow fish was swimming and ride by a PinkFong fox who used its diving equipment. Fox seemed to sit sweetly and smiled happily at the back of the fish. In this scene, there is also still much other small fish swimming towards the right side of the screen. Continue to scene 4 (S4), and the fox appeared with its complete diving equipment. Together with two other fish, the fox seemed to wave-like, saying 'let us dance.' While enjoying the dance, a large black shadow suddenly appeared from a distance and made the fox and two other fish surprised and frightened. Then, the surprise came. In scene 5 (S5), there appears a boy with a red and white buoy on his waist and a shark hat on his head. The child moves his right hand by

bringing his thumb and index finger together. The movement is an indication of the small teeth of a yellow baby shark swimming to the left and right of the screen. While doing the movement, there was a song with a child's voice tone:

“Baby shark, doo ... doo ... doo ... doo ... doo ... doo.

Baby shark, doo ... doo ... doo ... doo ... doo ... doo.

Baby shark, doo ... doo ... doo ... doo ... doo ... doo.

Baby shark!” (T1)

Then the screen changes to yellow, marked by a pink shark, with a PinkFong fox on top, swimming from right to left. Then, scene 6 (S6) appears, showing a girl with a blue and white float on her waist and a shark hat too. The child shows movements like an adult female shark by opening and clasping his palms. The movement seems very elegant for a shark that hunts prey. The scene also features a pink shark with flushed lips and curly eyelashes, which appeared earlier, swimming elegantly. A melodious voice of a woman sings also is heard:

“Mommy, shark doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Mommy shark doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Mommy, shark doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Mommy shark!” (T2)

Next, the screen changes again from yellow to pink. The switch is marked by a blue male shark with fangs that are very sharp swimming from the left to the right screen. Of course, it still with the PinkFong fox on it. In scene 7 (S7), the boy reappears, but with more ferocious expressions. That expression represents the nature of the adult male shark, who is a real hunter. The hand movements shown in this scene are also different. Using all hands and arms represent the size of the mouth of an adult male shark when eating its prey. Even on the back screen, the blue daddy shark swims from right to left of the screen. The voice that was heard was the voice of an adult male singing:

“Daddy shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Daddy shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Daddy shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Daddy shark!” (T3)

In scene 8 (S8), the introduction of the family shark continues on grandma. The change of screen to purple is marked by a peach-colored shark swimming with PinkFong fox from right to left. Girls appear with facial expressions like grandmas who have lost many teeth. The movements of his hands are slick with the movements in scene 6. However, the fingers are hidden to give the impression of being blunt or without

teeth. With the Movement, the representation of a grandmother's figure is visible. The presence of a peach-colored shark with glasses swimming from left to right adds to the definite figure of the grandmother of the shark. A voice like an older adult who sounded trembling singing lyrics:

“Grandma shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Grandma shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Grandma shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Grandma shark!” (T4)

Next, the screen changes color to peach marked by swimming a green shark with a white mustache and eyebrows. Still, with the PinkFong fox on it, scene 9 (S9) begins. In this scene, the boy appears with facial expressions like grandpa without teeth. His hand movements are similar to those done in scene 7, but the fingers are hidden like in scene 8. With such movements, it is clearly seen that the boy is playing the character of the grandfather shark. The voice of an older adult can be heard singing:

“Grandpa shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Grandpa shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Grandpa shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Grandpa shark!” (T5)

The next scene (S10), with a green background, shows the two children with both hands' movement over their heads. The expression on the face of the child is sweet, but the boy's expression looks fierce. The movement represents the sharks that swim together, look for prey with fierce while singing:

“Let's go hunt, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Let's go hunt, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Let's go hunt, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Let's go hunt!” (T6)

At the end of the scene, the two children are just shocked and scared, when five sharks come to surround them, baby, mommy, daddy, grandma, and grandpa shark. The scene continues on scene 11 (S11) with a purple background. Seen in the scene, the two children ran towards the left side of the screen with hand movements like swimming. Their facial expressions seemed panicked and frightened. They are seen running away from chasing mommy, daddy, baby, in quick succession. The lyric that sounded at that time was:

“Run away, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Run away, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
Run away, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Run away!” (T7)

The scene continues on scene 12 (S12), where a boy steps out of a rock with large holes. Seaweed appeared on his head. The child performs a sweeping, wiping motion, as a surge of relief has been free from the pursuit of sharks. Likewise, a girl emerges next from a different hole with a crab concerning her shoulder. Doing the same movement with the boy, the look of relief appeared on the boy's face. During the scene, lyric sounds:

“Safe at last, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Safe at last, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Safe at last, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

Safe at last!” (T8)

In the last scene (S13), the two children emerge from the hole together. The movements they make are also the same, that is, one hand above the head, and the other hand waving a sign of separation. The position of the right- and left-hand changes alternately. At the end of the scene, the kids show two palms together on the head with the body squatted. It is the sign of video over. Behind the scenes of the two children, the family of the shark and the PinkFong fox appear sequentially, starting from the baby, fox, mommy, daddy, grandma, and grandpa. In addition to the Pinkfong fox, all of the sharks carry forks and wear napkins, like people who will eat. They seemed to smile happily accompanied by the lyrics:

“It’s the end, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

It’s the end, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

It’s the end, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.

It’s the end!” (T9)

Based on the description and lyrics of the song Baby Shark, the inference can be made through comparison with the theories of Educational philosophy and language. The results of the inference, in brief, can be seen in chart 1.

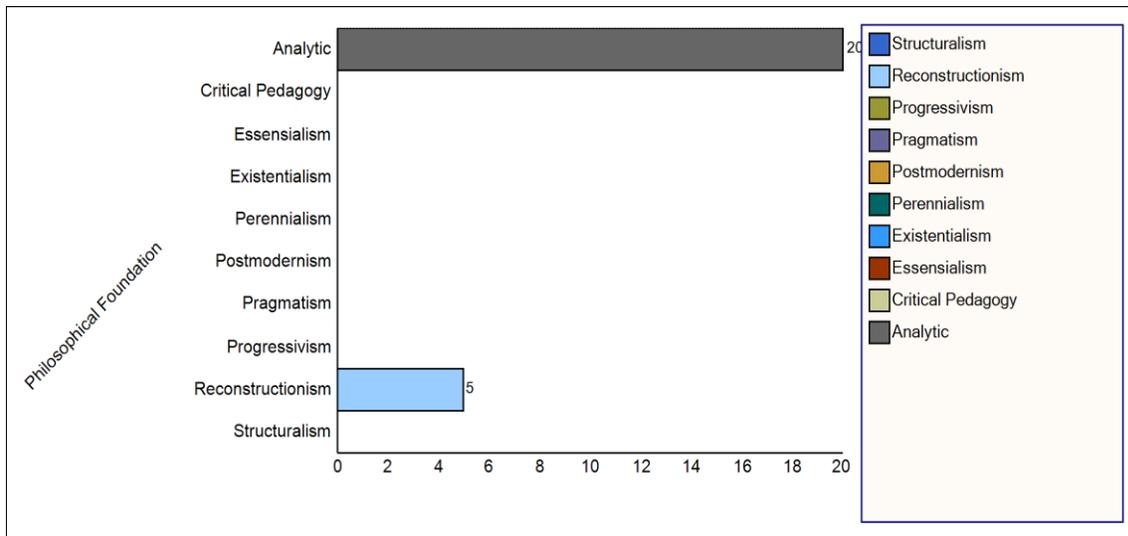


Chart 1. Inferential of Language Education Philosophical Foundation

From chart 1, it is clear that analytic is the philosophical foundation of Baby Shark lyrics and video. Besides, reconstructionism is also found in the lyrics and video of baby shark. It shows that the composer really considers the language and educational philosophy in designing this song as media of learning English. To make it clearer, the evidence of each philosophical foundation is presented in table 2.

Table 2. Inferential of Language Education Philosophical Foundation

| Philosophical Foundation | Inferential Result | Examples from the Data |
|---------------------------------|---|---|
| Perennialism | - | - |
| Essentialism | - | - |
| Progressivism | - | - |
| Reconstructionism | The song is about the representation of child-centered value in South Korea setting. There is a shift in fertility beliefs that makes South Korean Families | Scene 5 (S5): a boy with a red and white float on his waist and a shark hat on his head. The child moves his right hand by bringing his thumb and index finger together. The movement is an indication of the small teeth of a yellow baby shark swimming to the left and right of the screen. While doing the movement, there was a song with a child's voice tone: “Baby shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo. |

decide to be Baby shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 childless. Having Baby shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 one child is more Baby shark!” (T1)
 than enough; he/she
 does not need to
 have a
 sister/brother.

Korea is a In scene 7 (S7), screen switching is marked by the
 patrilineal country swimming of a blue male shark with very sharp fangs
 where the father is from the left to right hand of the screen. The boy
 the economic reappeared, but with a more ferocious expression.
 provider by That expression represents the nature of the adult
 working hard male shark, who is a real hunter. The hand
 movements shown in this scene are also different;
 that is, by using all hands and arms to represent the
 size of the mouth of an adult male shark when eating
 its prey. Even on the back screen, the blue daddy
 shark swims from right to left of the screen. The
 voice that was heard was the voice of an adult male
 singing:

“Daddy shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Daddy shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Daddy shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Daddy shark!” (T3)

South Korea is a In scene 8 (S8), the introduction of the family shark
 Confucian where continues on grandma. The change of screen to
 family becomes the purple is marked by swimming with a peach-colored
 most priority. The shark with pinkfong wolves from right to left. Girls
 secure connection appear with facial expressions like grandmas who
 of parents-children have lost many teeth. The movements of his hands
 continues after are slick with the movements in scene 6. The fingers

children marry and are hidden to give the impression of being blunt or still support their without teeth. With the Movement, the elderly parents. representation of a grandmother's figure is clearly visible. The presence of a peach-colored shark with glasses swimming from left to right adds to the definite figure of the grandmother of the shark. A voice like an older adult who sounded trembling singing lyrics:

“Grandma shark,
 doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Grandma shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Grandma shark, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Grandma shark!” (T4)

As a family-oriented country, shows the two children with both hands moving over the management of their heads. The expression on the face of the child is sweet, but the boy's expression looks fierce. The done among family movement represents the sharks that swim looking members. They for prey with fierce while singing: work together to build the company.

“Let’s go hunt, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Let’s go hunt, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Let’s go hunt, doo...doo...doo...doo...doo...doo.
 Let’s go hunt!” (T6)

| | | |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Existentialism | - | - |
| Postmodernism | - | - |
| Critical pedagogy | - | - |
| Structuralism | - | - |

shark is a representation of Korean people who have high enthusiasm and commitment to working to achieve financial security. It is in line with the findings of Arif & Triyono (2017), which states that Baby Shark is a song that depicts a culture of hard work of Korean people.

More specifically, the song describes the issue of Korean Confucian culture that is very family-oriented (Lee & Lee, 2014; Lee, 2008; Park, 2014; Jin, 2015; Lee, 1999; Chung, 2015; Choi, Kim, Drankus, & Kim, 2013; Kim, 1993). In the song, Baby is mentioned earlier than other family members (T1, S5). It seems that in a family in Korea, a child is a hope that becomes a priority (Yang & Rosenblatt, 2008). However, the Baby Shark song does not appear to be mentioned sister and brother, as found in other family songs (for example, Finger Family). It is a depiction of Korean beliefs that began to shift in the view of fertility. As economic needs are increasing (DiPrete et al., 2003; Yang, 2004), Korean couples prefer childless (Lee & Lee, 2014; Ciiang, 1993; Yang & Rosenblatt, 2008; Hu & Scoot, 2014). For them, if they cannot provide the best for their children, they prefer not to have children.

Korean women have a central role in taking care of children and households so that their position is closer to children (Eun, 2004; Jin, 2015). Several studies have found that the closeness of mother-child relationships is related to children's academic abilities (Chao, 2001; Kalhotra, 2013) and socio-emotional functioning (Kim & Choi, 2010; Choi, 2005; Park & Lee, 2005; Lee & Choi, 2003). Mommy is mention (T2) before Daddy (T3) shows that in the family, the role of the mother is vital. The figure of women in Korean society is also described as very feminine in the song. It is evident from the appearance and impressive movement of a woman's elegance (S6), whereas the father figure becomes central (Lee, 2008) and the pillar in the financial sector (Eun, 2004; Chao, 2011). For that reason, a father is a formidable and authoritative figure (S7).

The presence of grandparents in the song also shows Korean culture that is still responsible for the elderly (T4, S8 & T5, S9). The parents-children relationship is stable and continues until their children grow up and get married (Yang & Rosenblatt, 2008; YI, 1993). Therefore, the burden on the family is enormous to be fulfilled. So, hard work is increasingly becoming a necessity.

Another social issue is related to how business in Korea is the result of business cooperation between family members. Most companies in Korea are family-owned companies. Of course, with the Confucian principle, family support, even in company management, is crucial (Lee & Lee, 2014). The culture is reflected in the song as they hunt together, "Let's go hunt" (T6, S10).

This research is certainly limited in its aims and methods. To better understand the meaning in the lyrics and videos of this song, semiotic and critical discourse analysis can be conducted. Another approach

based on the philosophy of postmodernism can also be considered to see other meanings that may be contained in the song.

Conclusion

Lyrics and video of Baby Shark on the PinkFong YouTube channel are one of the learning media for English throughout the world. As a learning medium, the song certainly has a philosophical foundation. Language education can make the proper use of the practice. Based on the results of the inference, it was found that the philosophical foundation of language education, which became the guideline, is analytic reconstructionism. It is proven through the interpretation by linking the lyrics with other signs that appeared on the video. Besides, the social and cultural issues of the area also became the basis for its production. Social issues raised, such as child-centered values, childless ideology, patrilineal, and family-oriented.

Pedagogical Implication

Knowing these results, using this song as a learning medium needs wiser consideration. In contexts other than Korea, teacher needs to supplement the vocabulary learning through this song with explanation on the multicultural issue. It is still a fun yet meaningful media for teaching English for young learners. Teachers also can use the signs in the video to train their analytical ability by scaffolding them with several questions.

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Language Planning in *Al-Ghorbah*: A Case Study of a Saudi Family

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Abstract

Most research in family language planning concerns permanent immigrants. Fewer studies examine family language plans of the “*moghtarebeen*”, i.e., sojourners or temporary residents. The case study includes structured interviews with a specific Saudi sojourner family, exploring their language planning and contextualize personal choices within the larger body of literature. The research hopes to help to understand the uniqueness of sojourner family language planning to broaden understanding of people as individuals for language and educational policies. The study shows that parents' goal differs based on the parents' originality and regional identity. Those two factors, among other ones, influence the language choice of parents who are temporary residents in the United States. This case study gives insights for language teachers, parents, and policymakers.

Keywords: *language planning, moghtarebeen, language choice, language policy*

Introduction

Rearing children is always challenging. Rearing children includes a myriad of challenges. Different family structures face different challenges based on economics, race, religion, and other social constructs.

Family language planning is a challenge often ascribed, particularly to bilingual families. It is not hyperbole to say that language planning is one of the largest challenges faced by bilingual or multilingual families. Non-bilingual parents might erroneously believe language planning is a minor to non-concern in non-multilingual households. Honestly, “family language planning is part of the micro-fields of linguistic policy and planning” (Zhao, 2018, p.1), makes it sound like a minor issue; however that is not to say it is merely a concern of a niche population. The number of children raised in bilingual or multilingual environments is increasing. The resulting influx ensures that bilingual/multilingual language planning is a concern beyond multi-language homes. It is a concern of the larger community.

A familial understanding of how to plan a child’s language depends on cultural factors. These factors are interpreted by families, but not just by families. Outside familial structures, governments and institutions play a role in language development. Exterior control may seem obvious, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) went a step further and broke Language Planning into three specific controlled domains: Macro, Meso, and Micro; Macro referring to rule of state or government, Meso referring to maintenance, rehabilitation and preserving language, and Mirco referring to family, schools, and other direct influencers (as cited in Zhao, 2018). Breaking “what language do we teach” into Macro, Meso, and Micro reveals the decentralization of power from home in favor of aspects typically uncontrolled by families. “Bilingual parents have a choice whether to educate their children only in one of their languages, usually the majority language of the country in which they live, or whether to educate them bilingually” is far from an oversimplification, but it does ignore Macro, Meso, and most of the Micro domains (Pillar, 2002, p. 245; Pillar, 2006, p. 62).

Some bilingual families, like immigrants, may not have as much choice. The dominant language of the country in which they live may be imposed by Meso, government and authority. Some bilingual families, such as those living in countries with shifting Meso power based on political instability, may find themselves in their family homes forbidden from using what they consider their language. In an American context, this could be an English Only movement attempt to stop indigenous languages. More commonly, shifting Meso control could be the result of colonization or coup—a problem common enough that it led to The Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights. The Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights was signed by several non-governmental organizations to support linguistic rights concerned about endangered languages (Ishida, Yonetani, & Kosaka, 2006). Non-multilingual families may not consider these points often, although these are distinctions felt by families engaged in language planning—even if they lack the education to discuss linguistic labeling fluently.

Sadly, because of exterior cultural concerns—Macro, Meso, and Micro—it is possible not all parents lack the instruments for their child’s language variations. The most straightforward answer for parents—

overwhelmed by exterior factors—is to let governments dictate language planning. Too often, that means losing language(s). This is especially true in modern America where there is no official federal government language, but English is established as an overwhelming norm, and English Only Movements occasionally occur as part of regional or political cycles. This is not only an American concern. Ishida, Yonetani, and Kosaka (2006) noted international concerns from Asia to Europe. It is a transnational concern (Bolander, 2018). It is a concern of refugees (Marks & Lillie, 2006) migrating around the world. In many countries, it is easier to lose than preserve language. Allowing state ran schools, and governments, create and govern family language plans decentralizes the family’s role in how they interpret culture. A more difficult choice for parents is to understand language engaged “in all societal domains” (Ricento in Catedral & Djuraeva, 2018, p. 502). Parents need to understand their role within the Micro domain and understand they have on the influence within their own home and children they send into society. Knowing parents have control remains a far step from understanding how to exert control—especially in the face of overwhelming Macro and Meso pressures. Families need support to help close the gap and may need to be provided with information to facilitate understanding.

Research about family language policy often concerns immigrants and permanent residents. Lesser studied are the plans of sojourners—temporary residents. This paper attempts to cover that gap by investigating a sojourner family as a case study. The studied family believes in producing bilingually fluent children. Their stated goal is to help children learn parents’ L1 (Arabic) and local community norm L2 (English), which is not an easy task. Identity, culture and solidarity of L1 need to be maintained while having an active participation in L2. This study focuses exclusively on one family, and readers are cautioned to avoid overt generalizations and ground assertions. In this way, the study hopes to help future researchers, but also be beneficial for parents, teachers, and policymakers—sojourners and beyond.

Language Policy

There is a duality or multiplicity of things in the world, so is language. It has unique social resources, which can be used by people to make full use of its infinite resource value and create great collective wealth. However, it can also become a complicated language problem, which causes great harm and burden to society and needs people to cope with it seriously. In other words, effectively solving language problems will facilitate the rationalization of language resources. (Zhao, 2018).

Research shows children studied bilingual households and attend schools in the United States, “learn social English within 1 to 3 years” (Ovando et al, 2006, as cited in Kennedy & Romo, 2013). That is an overwhelmingly fast pace and positive statistic. The other side of the statistic, provided in “All colors and

hues': An Autoethnography of a Multiethnic Family's Strategies for Bilingualism and Multiculturalism" is more sobering, "...often losing their heritage language" (Kennedy & Romo, 2013; Peele, 2000; Rumbaut, Massey, & Bean, 2006; Rumbaut & Portes, 2001). The positive impact of bilingual students quickly becomes problematic when the advances may come at the cost of "heritage language" (L1). Kennedy and Romo focused heavily on encounters couched in Latino descended students moving between Spanish (L1) and English (L2). Part of their justifications mentioned in Kennedy and Romo, and other scholars, focusing on Latino Spanish to English movements, go on to anticipate multigenerational concerns and ramifications. Problems encountered are not necessarily specific to any primary and secondary language in bilingualism. The problems faced by bilingualism is not specifically correlated to languages but is a general problem. This is a transnational problem as focuses shift from "methodological nationalism" (Wimmer & Glick Schiller, 2002, as cited in Bolander, 2018) "towards ... engagement with the role of the nation-state for questions of language use, policy and ideology" (Bolander, 2018, p. 181) without necessarily balancing bilingual concerns. It is hard to find a balance between two languages.

Bilingualism seems subtractive, perhaps because of "...an unrealistic push for children to transition as quickly as possible to English [L2]" (Kennedy & Romo, 2013; Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Guerroero, 2004) or the structure of bilingual education programs—specifically in the United States (Shannon, 1995; Valenzuela, 1999; Garcia, 2011; Valdés, 2011). It is important to emphasize that this is not specifically a United States specific issue. Understanding Macro, Meso and Micro roles (Dopfer, Foster, & Potts, 2004; Pillar, 2006) demonstrates it is a near-universal problem and a possibility within any society. Duality has been explored in degradation and language usage in Brazilian telenovelas (Sexism and Derogation, 1999). Teshigawara and Kinsui (2011) explained internal Japanese media language usage issues. Viswamohan (2011) explained language usage and conflict with music and film speech in Bollywood films. Wang (2017) explained concerns for international students within Chinese universities. Kaveh (2018) explained policies and stories migrating Iranians and Persians. Bolander (2018) explained Shia Ismaili Muslims in a village in Northern Pakistan. This has been explored as a transnational concern across literature, especially articles exploring language and educational policies.

Any time one language is given preference over another, it triggers Micro domains of power over linguistics outside of the family structure. Any time one language is given legal precedence over another in Meso and Macro domains of power, then bilingualism becomes harder to achieve as a goal for family language learning. This quickly becomes a societal concern as well as a family concern (Ricento cited in Catedral & Djuraeva; 2018).

Schools themselves fit into the Micro domain of a local area stakeholder in any child's education. Although many educational systems are dictated by Meso and Macro concerns as well, following government mandates and guidelines. Educators need to consider their role in language teaching. (King, 2013; Kung, 2013; Ferguson, 2015; Miguel, 2019). Being aware of schools impact is why items like "A Correlation Study of Bilingual Programs to Educate English Language Learners and Their Results on the Fifth Grade TAKs Reading Assessment" (Duncan, 2014) and "Preparing Pre-Service Teachers to Educate Emerging Bilingual Students: A Textual Analysis of Teacher Education Curriculum in Elementary-Level Language Arts Methods Textbooks" (Mann, 2016) exist in modern American education analysis. However, these look at guidelines and textbooks is not the complete picture. It can seem to decentralize power from every teacher, placing needed emphasis on state guidelines and books. Teachers have a role and power.

The decentralization of power from home to surrounding governments and culture does not necessitate removing all control from the family unit. Although that can occur in situations where monolingualism becomes legal precedent. In most cases, bilingual parents have a choice. Parents can choose if they want their children taught only the dominant language. Parents can choose if they want to foster a new bilingualism generation and instill that as part of their family values (Pillar, 2002, p. 245; Pillar, 2006; Clyne, 2004, Burnett, 2008). Bilingual parents have more choice despite Macro concerns because they have access to both languages and can facilitate home study or additional tutoring—especially when socio-economics helps make these resources possible.

In many countries and situations, bilingual families face similar situations—notably minimal resources for preserving their language besides informal conditions, media access, and family connections. Resettled peoples often find themselves separated from their community when the resettling happens in small groups rather than mass relocations or camps. In small resettlements, it is easier for the dominant population to turn against the refugees, speak out in public, and even enact racist policies (Abt-Perkins, 1997; Flores, 2018).

Sojourners and Language Learning

Sojourners plan on returning. Sojourners are not exiles or refugees trapped in a new society; they intend and possess the means to return home. This is an important distinction because it impacts how family bonds and original culture must be maintained (Tannenbaum & Howie, 2002; Yu, 2010). Understandably, family bonds, and an emphasis on the original culture plays a significant role in maintaining L1 language.

Sojourner socioeconomic status also plays a role in their language learning and maintaining. Sojourners tend to have access to technology and travel—especially compared to other immigrant and exile

populations. While not all socioeconomics has positive impacts on language acquisition, they can, in many cases, provide additional resources. Outside of language acquisition, research suggests previous experiences with culture and communicative competence facilitate the successful adaptation of sojourners to the second culture, which translates to a better understanding and better job performance (Masgoret, 2006). This competence should translate to more positive feelings and, therefore, a reciprocal acceptance of the L2 language, which is considered to be a positive cycle. This positive cycle can be reasonably expected to trickle down to children and other language learners in the family.

Sojourners often fall into the category of “international students,” initially sponsored by either their home or host nations, who hope students will contribute to developing relations between countries as well as education (Craig, 2010, p. 126; Maguddayao & Medriano, 2019). It is an interesting relationship between nations and Macro structures, but it is not the only way sojourners enter a new country. They can also be temporary employees. Sojourners can also be in visiting, but temporary residence, for other economic, social, or political reasons. They are a diverse group. The important factor is that they plan to, and have the means, to return to their original country.

Bilingual Language Development Among ESL Students

Bilingualism often feels subtractive, as if they are losing opportunities in their L1 and culture making room for the L2. In fact, bilingualism can be additive. These households can support and encourage growth in both languages. An important goal in teaching is to transform the learning experience for students and to transform the students themselves (Mezirow, 1997). That is, teachers, strive to encourage and challenge students to engage deeply in the course material, to step outside their comfort zones and become receptive to novel ideas and multiple perspectives, and ultimately, to direct their own learning and seek further knowledge. Therefore, it is not surprising that many teachers have embraced and integrated experiential learning, whereby students acquire knowledge through new experiences and observations (Kolb, 1984), into their lesson plans. However, the most potent learning experiences cannot be planned; they occur serendipitously. (Jefferies & Nguyen, 2014, p. 182).

Bilingual parents can have the ability and resources to capitalize on these “powerful learning experiences...” that “...occur serendipitously.” Bilingual parents have an easier time negotiating the possibilities within both languages and opportunities presented. Although every bilingual parent or second language teacher knows that these advantages are neither automatic nor absolute. Successful language planning can help capitalize on strengths and prepare families to enjoy impromptu learning, occurrences and

outcomes that lead to better integration and create opportunities for socializing with the Others (Ibrahim, Schwartz1, Kahn-Horwitz, & Leikin, 2013).

This case study strived to answer specific questions:

1. If and what family language policies govern the home?
2. What are family attitudes toward ongoing language planning?
3. What motivations influence family language planning?
4. How do bilingual vs. monolingual dynamics influence family language planning?

Method

Instrument

Semi-structured interviews gathered information to extrapolate detailed data for later analysis and comparison to scholarly journals. Besides answers, interviews allowed introspection of participant perceptions, attitudes, and linguistic ideologies. Instead of one long interview, sessions were conducted over four days, in periods lasting between 50 to 85 minutes. Interviews were conducted within the interviewees' home. Both father and mother were interviewed jointly. Interviews with non-adult children took place with their father.

Interviews with father and children began in Arabic but switched to English with family willingness. They chose to talk in English on these topics. Interviews with the mother were conducted entirely in Arabic. The researcher shared the family's culture and spoke both L1 and L2 fluently—coupled with promised anonymity—that attempted to create a stress-free environment. The interviewer did not prompt or force responses in L1 or L2. Conversation flowed from L1 to L2, or stayed in L1, based on participant comfort.

Participants

Participants were one family who was living in the United States. The members of the family are Saudi sojourner family with four children. Children ranged from 10 to 1 ½-year-old: Joan a 10 year old girl, Israa, an 8-year-old girl, Ali, a 4-year-old boy, and Hana a 1 ½-year-old girl. The father and the mother were born and reared in Al Baha—a city in southern Saudi Arabia. The father self-described as bilingual and was a Ph.D. student majoring in applied linguistics during the conversations. The mother self-described as monolingual despite understanding English basics. She completed high school education.

The two older girls, Joan and Israa, were born in Saudi. At the time of the interview, the two oldest children were in US schools. The two younger children, Ali and Hana, were born within the United States but were not school age, and not active participants in the discussion. The family desired to participate and

openly shared attitudes, thoughts, and feelings. They spoke with frank diligence about family language planning. The family had been in the US for nearly four and a half years before the conversations.

The oldest daughters, Joan and Israa, took an active part in some interviews but were also discussed by their parents separately in other interviews. Joan, age 10, did not learn English before arriving to the US. Thus, her exposure to the target language was very limited. She was in an environment in American schools and immersed in English-only classes. Unlike Joan, Israa was 4 when she came to the US and exposed to (L2) a year before being enrolled in a preschool program designed for native learners.

Data Analysis

Family Language Policies Govern at Home

The father purposefully established a family language policy before moving to the United States, although, admittedly, it changed during execution. In the beginning, his family language plan focused on the oldest daughter's needs. He said, "Joan has a strong personality, but she needed support from me ahead of time in order to overcome any barriers when moving to the US." The initial plan did not work as expected. The family actively worked to improve it. The daughter's experience, when they arrived, was "...on edge most of the time trying to help her academically and mentally." Both parents agreed to expose children to L2 more so than L1 was essential to success. The girls had a solid foundation in L1. "School is the primary motive for promoting English language at home," the father expounded. The US school system privileged L2 as the gateway to all academic subjects: math, science, composition, and literature. The family knew L2 skills were needed to overcome academic and social issues. Understanding L2's importance, but wanting to preserve L1, the family purposefully kept L1 in the home. Supportive of L2, both parents used L1 as home communication. The bilingual father supported responses without explicit requirements when conversing with children at home. They could respond in either L1 or L2. The father continued the conversation in language used by the children.

An intentional strategy was exposure to L2—the predominant language of American television and mass media. Parents subscribed to a number of children's programs in L2; supplemented by Amazon Prime, Netflix, and Hulu streaming services. Despite the omnipresence of L2 media, L1 channels were available. Parents subscribed to L2 channels, but intentionally permitted children predominant access to L2 media. The mother reported that children would occasionally request L1 songs, which were found online; afterward, the mother returned to L2 channels. The father agreed to this intentional strategy helped children learn L2 faster.

The mother's contribution to the family language plan was a primary resource of L1. The mother identified herself as monolingual, despite some limited English, and spoke to children in L1. She emphasized

Arabic—specifically southern dialect Jannobi—to preserve culture. The mother orchestrated conference calls with relatives back in Saudi. Weekly calls on Skype and Tango allowed children to maintain contact with extended family, Saudi Arabia, and family in Jannobi Arabic. Reading aloud is an important part of language acquisition. The family read together. The father read in English. The mother read in Arabic every night and faithfully taught Quran passages.

Motivations Influence Family Language Planning

The goal was bilingualism. The family language plan was motivated by balance. L2 acquisition was necessary, but the family wanted to preserve L1 identity. They wanted their children to self-identify as Saudi even while in the United States. In fact, the father used “identity” 23 times during interviews. He assured that while supporting L2, he was concerned about continued growth and development in L1. Skype and Tango sessions contributed to L1 preservation. The father explicitly believed these calls were “... perfect method for increasing the exposure to L1’s language and culture.”

Parents were asked about other strategies used to preserve L1. The father answered that they attended weekly Saudi gatherings. These events allowed the children to hang out, code mix between L1 and L2, and play games. They also intentionally went to the Muslim Islamic Center (MIC) in Cordova, TN. Events and trips helped maintain linguistic, religious, and social identity. The mother read in Arabic nightly and faithfully taught Quran passages. As a linguist, the father understood and expressed, religion and language are inseparable from culture.

The family’s immigration status was a contributing factor in their bilingualism goal. Instead of being permanent residents, immigrants, or asylum seekers, the family were sojourners. Their temporary status was explicit. As sojourners, they planned to return to Saudi. This impacted the family language plan by adding extra value to L1 because it would become most useful upon their return home—although L2 would provide new advantages within Saudi Arabia and not be completely abandoned. Preservation of L1 would allow for future preservation of L2.

Dynamics of Bilingualism vs. Monolingualism

The interviewed family included both bilingual and monolingual parents. The father self-identified bilingual, which was a fair assessment since he was pursuing an advanced linguistics degree in L2. Despite understanding basics and limited vocabulary, the mother self-identified monolingual. The mother was more comfortable conducting interviews exclusively in L1. The father switched between L1 and L2. Duality impacted their family language plan.

Bilingualism helped the father shape plans to actively engage both L1 and L2. The father emphasized that the mother is "...the key for having a successful bilingual family." Language distribution between parents helped their children cultivate both L1 and L2. The mother reported that sometimes children would initiate an L2 conversation, wherein she could understand most of what they said, but she would not respond. Her refusal to use L2 with the children meant they had to switch to L1 and restate the conversation. This pluralization helped children become comfortable expressing the same ideas in both L1 and L2. The eldest children, Joan and Israa, were certain their mother's method encouraged them to use L1 with her but were less aware of how it shaped linguistic duality. The family embraced the mother's monolingualism as an advantage in language preservation necessary for the children to become fluently bilingual.

Attitudes Toward Ongoing Language Planning

Again, the father's circumstances, knowledge, education, and bilingualism influenced attitudes toward family language policy. That was true before they moved to the United States. It would remain a contributing factor as they returned to Saudi. He explained, "my children speak in the language they wish to speak to me without putting any pressure on one language over another." Sometimes his children alternated between L1 and L2. When he praised his children for being able to switch between L1 and L2, his children responded with an amused "stop bragging, Dad." The father set the example for bilingualism within the family.

The father was inspired by personal role models Henry Kissinger and Muhammed Nassiruddin Al-Albani. He tried to adapt their attitudes within his family. He mentioned Kissinger and Al-Albani became prominent within L2. The father used Kissinger and Al-Albani to explain why he felt bilingualism was important for his children. He was proud of his daughters gaining success in L2. These interviews happened within the United States, but the family understood bilingualism would only be possible with support for L2 after returning to Saudi Arabia. The family planned on enrolling the children in an International School to preserve L2 skills. Preserving academic skills, reading and writing, in L1 with tutoring in Saudi to ensure they were on grade level.

The mother supported the language plan. However, she wished they could afford private schools in the US as well. She hoped private schools could have supported Arabic language better than the local school system. Memphis, TN has an Islamic school offering Arabic and Islamic study courses. Both father and mother agreed, "this would have been so perfect for our children, but it was too expensive." The family planned to use private schools as a resource to support both L1 and L2 in Al Baha, Saudi Arabia. The mother stated, "we want to see our children succeed and well educated."

Eldest children, Joan and Israa, had a positive attitude toward balancing L1 and L2, although they did not fully express it in academic language. They were aware of their own L1 speaking and listening skills. They knew their strengths. Both did well with L2. Israa was not as fluent as her elder sister Joan in either, but was age proportional. Joan, age 10, explained, “I feel great when we go back home [Saudi Arabia] and see myself speaking Arabic with everyone, then come back to the US and speak English with everyone, too.” Joan understood coming to the US older than her three siblings gave her better control of L1. Israa added, “I use Arabic a lot with my grandparents on the phone or when we go shopping in Saudi Arabia.” Israa talked about being able to use L2 with peers. The daughters showed appreciation for their parents’ efforts.

When Joan started American school, her academic performance was meager. Both parents remained supportive. Both parents tutored concepts in L1 and L2 to boost Joan’s performance. In addition to personal support, they downloaded educational apps to help her learn L2 faster. Again, the smart TV and streaming English media were mentioned as a purposeful tools to teach L2. Parents took full advantage of the schools that have the English as Second Language (ESL) program, but that offered limited support in the predominantly L2 system.

The family policy toward Israa and younger siblings differed slightly from Joan. Israa was three when brought to the US. Israa code mixed during the conversation. Israa used L2 mostly. Because of her age, she was shy and quiet. The parents mentioned she opened up more when not being interviewed. Israa learned in America, in a dual L1 and L2 household, for a year before entering preschool. L1 and L2 were norms in her life, rather than a change as it had been for Joan. Israa’s experience was similar to younger siblings that had yet to begin school. Siblings lived different scenarios within the same family and L2 environment.

Discussion

“Those who are fluent in English and their parents’ native language were 8% more likely to hold higher educational aspiration” (Baker, 2011, p.393).

During the interviews, it was clear that the family language policy occurred consciously. Their goal was bilingual children: preserve L1 identity and find success within L2’s promised future. Interviewed parents innately understood school success depended on L2 skills, particularly reading. School testing emphasized the need for reading. Language ability, able to fully use language of the test, became important despite “...a profusion of language ability models of diverse natures” (Oller, 1979 as cited in Gu, 2014, p.

112). Reading aloud as a family was an important part of L2 acquisition; father reading in L2 and mother in L1, as well as the presence of L2 media. Socio-linguistic researchers can delve into models and management, complete with variables and linearity (Gu, 2014), but the interviewed family understood the importance of having lived the experience. The family's plan was influenced by the father's education. He studied applied linguistics and understood the value of multilingualism. Although, ultimately, their success could be replicated without his background in linguistics—and is often in bilingual homes.

Interviewed parents maintained bilingual goals by managing and applying the strategies mentioned in the case study. Additionally, annual family trips to Saudi Arabia contributed to dual-language identities. This is an advantage not enjoyed by all sojourning or immigrating families. Maintaining family bonds is demonstrated by Tannenbaum and Howie (2002), "...family relations play a significant role in language maintenance in immigrant children (as cited in Yu, 2010, p. 420). Besides family relations, socioeconomic levels play a role in maintaining bilingualism. The interviewed family could afford iPads, TVs, trips, and some luxuries, but not afford private education available in Memphis, TN. Similarly, socioeconomics plays a role in nearly all bilingual homes, although not all socioeconomics have positive impacts.

Sojourners are different from immigrants. Impermanence plays a role as well. Sojourners plan to return to L1. This could be different for immigrants that cannot or will not return their original culture and language. The interviewed family built their family language plan with status in mind. Sojourners could picture L2 as a temporary state—only needed when abroad and not the main focus when returning home.

The family interviewed, like many sojourners, have realized the importance of English (L2) globally. Back home, in their community, knowing English as an L2 raises the prestige and status of individuals and the family. The importance of international language in science, technology, and business means speaking and understanding English gives individuals and family practitioners an added edge. Job opportunities open up parallel to their grasp on English. Since Saudi has opened its borders to tourists from Europe and America, it has encouraged citizens to be more than adequate in English language learning. The current Saudi vision moving toward 2030 also favors additional language learning and exposure as a growing cultural component. Macro acceptance translates to opportunities within Saudi to continue learning and practicing the L2. Currently, in Saudi Arabia, maintaining dual languages are acceptable, and even preferred, which helps ensure the sojourning bilingualism is a workable plan when they return home. Besides basic language acquisition, their reliance on American media also allows their family a cultural understanding as well. Baker (2011) had an inwardly focused research study—trapped with the culture of L2—and the modest increases demonstrated, "...8% more likely to hold higher educational aspiration"(p. 393) does not adequately reflect returning to an L1 accepting and privileging L2, so the sojourning family can hope to see greater returns.

Pedagogical Implications

The parents' approach of preserving their L1, i.e., Arabic and exploring their children to the target language, i.e., English, was through the use of phone applications and computer programs. Thus, the use of technology such as Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in EFL/ESL classrooms has become an essential component. The fact that Internet has become an essential tool for effective teaching, educators should consider putting this tool in good use in their classrooms and introduce such educational apps to their students in order to improve the quality of teaching language, especially in bilingual classrooms.

Another critical implication this research suggests is creating a common group role among administrators of schools, teachers and parents where they can cooperate to achieve the ultimate objectives. This will create a bond between both homes and schools. The language practices that are being held at home would be in line with theories and practices that are being taught in schools. Thus, having both learners and parents involved in building rules and making decisions would help to narrow the gap among the three above-mentioned components and make the involvement worthwhile.

Conclusion

The interviewed family included a linguist, but most immigrants and sojourners need not understand Bakhtin's "chronotype" as "...way to conceptualize how social and linguistic phenomena—including language attitudes...inseparable from images of time, space, and personhood" (Agha cited in Catedral & Djuraeva, 2018, p. 503). With respect to theorists, most families do not need to engage linguistic concerns at that level. However, families trying to create bilingualism do need to understand what that means: academically, but more importantly, within their family culture.

This study, focusing on one individual family's responses and situation, should help remind theorists, practitioners, and researchers to focus on individuals and not the masses in Family Language Planning. Understanding how to create a family language plan is not merely a concern of immigrants and sojourners visiting the United States. Lagos and Espinoza (2013) discussed how Language Planning applied to Mapuche and Spanish language users within Chile. Family Language Planning needs to be explained to families trying to preserve more than one language in society's too often seeming monolingual regardless of settlement status. Language Planning is a tool they need. Accounting for dual language societies, it quickly becomes apparent why bilingual/multilingual language planning is a growing concern.

It is a concern beyond family structures with implications for communities and governments. Since local and federal governments play a role in language development, they need to also be aware of their

position in Maco, Meso, and Micro domains. Beyond their own power, governments need to be aware that family planning is done by/for/about people and not nameless statistics. This study purposefully focuses on one family, a typical experience with typical aspects to start a larger conversation starter parents, teachers, and policymakers—sojourners and beyond. In the end, understanding language and educational policy is important, but Family Language Planning must be focused on the individual family.

Beyond This Study

Future research could return, years later, after the family moved back to Saudi Arabia and reevaluate their commitment to bilingualism and L2. The family admitted during the interview to modifying plans upon arrival in the United States, but how would they modify plans when returned to Al Baha? Follow up would also be able to explore Ali, 4 years old, and Hana, 1 ½ year old, linguistic competence in L1 and L2, and how their education differed from Joan and Israa. Children’s experiences within the same family can differ. Researchers could also replicate this interview with more Saudi sojourners and other multilingual family dynamics. Follow up, replication, and expansion are all important parts of understanding experiences beyond theories and statistics. However, the goal of this case study was to explore a particular family and allow them a voice in how their family language plan came about, modified, and operated in practice.

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Common Silent Consonant Letters Pronounced Incorrectly by Freshmen of English Education Program

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Abstract

Pronunciation teaching does not demand learners to be native-like. They are expected to pronounce proper words to communicate clearly and prevent misunderstanding. To know learners' progress in their way to learn a foreign language, error analysis is required. This study focuses on errors made by students in terms of pronouncing silent consonant letters. These silent letters are often ignored by EFL teachers to teach in the classroom. Silent letters are ambiguous; therefore, materials related to silent letters should be integrated in language learning. This research uses descriptive quantitative method. To collect the data, this study oral test as a tool to investigate errors made by students. Learners are instructed to pronounce 17 words containing different silent consonant letters. There are 62 Freshman as population in this study. Samples are taken by using Slovin's formula with 5% margin error; therefore, total number of samples is 54 Freshman. The data are collected through recording learners' voices. Then, the researchers identify efforts and calculate them by using percentage technique. The result shows that mostly students are illiterate about silent consonant letters. From 17 words, only two words in the test is pronounced correctly more than 50% freshman; other 12 words are pronounced incorrectly more than 50% Freshman. The three top ranks of silent consonant letters which are pronounced incorrectly are /w/ in "write", /z/ in "rendezvous", and /ch/ in "yacht". Pronunciation has to be integrated in EFL. It should get attention like other language components and skills.

Keywords: *errors, mistakes, silent letters, pronunciation*

Introduction

Communication can be the cause of misunderstanding. People often deny the importance of communication role, whereas ineffective communication can cause problems for the relationship of two or more people. Speaker are sometimes fail to deliver a message because of inappropriate pronunciation (Jolanta Szpyra, 2015). When listeners cannot catch the message of what speakers say, it means that ineffective communication occurs. Pronouncing words incorrectly confuses listeners(John Eisenson, 1964), therefore pronunciation plays vital role in language learning.

In the history of teaching pronunciation, Kelly argues that pronunciation is like Cinderella in the area of foreign language teaching (Gerald, 1969). He illustrates the teaching of pronunciation to the tale of

Cinderella in which her stepsisters hide her from public. It is a satire for teachers who mostly neglect pronunciation in their teaching. The main goal of teaching pronunciation in language learning does not mean to make students speak like native speakers' accent. It aims to teach the students to pronounce the words correctly so that they can deliver the meaning properly.

Kelly states that there are many problems can be created by learners who always pronounce a series of phoneme incorrectly. One of them is the understanding of meaning (Gerald, 2002). Incorrect pronunciation may lead to misunderstanding or non-understanding. Kaur distinguishes between them. Misunderstanding happens when listeners assume that they know what speaker means, but the way he/she pronounces the words irritate them. Non-understanding happens when listeners have no any idea about what the speaker says (Kaur. J, 2009). Both of them are not expected to happen in communication because the goal of communication is building understanding to both speakers and listeners.

Communicative competences demands clear pronunciation. Understandable pronunciation contributes to successful oral communication. Ones who have good pronunciation are able to improve their language skills better than who do not. Although the fact that the importance of pronunciation in language learning is already apparent, the teacher still ignores it in language learning. Gilakjani and Sabouri found some factors affecting teachers neglect pronunciation rather than other language components. They are resources, lack of time, materials, motivation, and facilities (Sabouri, 2016). Some factors above should not be obstacles since nowadays products of technology offer a bunch of teaching materials like what provided in *Youtube*.

EFL classrooms mostly deny pronunciation. Mostly language teachers are good at English grammar rather than pronunciation (Celce-Murcia, 2010). Teachers must transfer only what they know to their students; therefore it is not a surprise to see the fact that learners also are more competent in grammar and lexis than pronunciation as well. Over the years, the presence of communicative language teaching or communicative approach in language teaching brings new spirit for pronunciation teaching. Communicative approach emphasizes that a language is learnt to communicate. In oral communication, teachers cannot deny the crucial role of pronunciation.

Indonesian learners encounter barriers in pronouncing English since the pronunciation is totally different from Indonesia pronunciation. For instance, Indonesians pronounce word "Kite" /k/ with no aspiration as Indonesians pronounce the word "Kita" in which /k/ is not aspirated. Letter "i" in English and Indonesia also has different sounds. Different from Indonesia, some English letters pronounced also inconsistently. For example, letter "i" sometimes sounds /I/ as in "ring", and sometimes sounds /ai/ as in

“kite”. The inconsistency of English drives Indonesian learners difficult to pronounce English word correctly.

Indonesia also has a lot of local languages. Each language has their unique character of pronunciation. For instance, Bataknese and Mandarnese tend to sound /e/ rather than /ə/. Buginese tend to add sound /g/ after words ended by /n/. For Indonesian, their mother tongue is mostly local language. Their second language is national language, Indonesia. Then, they learn several foreign languages at school, such as English. Learners’ difficulties in pronouncing English words are inseparable from the influence of mother tongue.

In addition, Ambalegin and Holu found factors influencing mispronunciation phenomena. They are native language interference, the educational background, the environmental background, and the distinctions of sound system between Indonesia and English (Ambalegin, 2019). One of the differences of sound system is silent consonant letter. In Indonesia, each letter in words is pronounced. Different from Indonesia, there are several letters in English which is not pronounced when they are in words. For examples, we have to silent sound /k/ in word “Know”. This becomes problematic since it does not occur in every sound /k/. there is no permanent formula to pronounce the silent consonant letters in English. One way to master the way to pronounce the words containing silent consonant letters is through habituation.

Some previous researchers have discussed some issue in relation to error pronunciation in English. Shak, Lee, and Stephen found that low oral proficiency Malaysian students mispronounce several sounds. The common mispronounced sounds were vowels (pure short vowels, pure long vowels and diphthongs), consonants (plosives, fricatives and affricates), silent letters, and the ‘-ed’ form (Shak, Lee, & Stephen, 2016). Alqunayeer found that there were 68% respondent pronounce “g” before nasals incorrectly. He also found that the reasons why the respondent mostly pronounced “g” incorrectly. It occurred because non-standard spelling, reading difficulties, letters which follow “g”, loan words, and orthography (Alqunayeer, 2016).

The research conducted by Shak et al showed that silent letters was one of common mispronounced problems faced by low proficient students in Malaysia. The research does not mention specifically what silent letters are commonly error-pronounced, while this research did it. The research conducted by Alqunayeer only concerned to one consonant sound. Different from previous research, this paper aims to investigate English education students’ ability to pronounce silent consonant letters and find the common silent consonant letters which are pronounced incorrectly by students.

Error Analysis

During the learning process, all learners cannot avoid making mistakes and committing errors. Errors and mistakes are two different things. In *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, Richard, J.C. et al explains that mistakes made by the students in speaking or writing are caused by fatigue, lack of attention, carelessness, and several other factors of performance. A mistake mostly happens when someone is not fully concentrating. When one's concentration begins to recover, they will be able to correct their own mistakes. In other side, an error is a judgment given by native speakers to learners because of their repeated faults in linguistic usage. It shows an incomplete learning from the learners. In other words, an error is consistent mistakes. It happens since learners do not know what the correct one is; therefore learners who commit errors cannot correct themselves even they are in a good concentration (Richard, 1992). It is necessary to know the distinction between them to judge what language learners encounter.

The classification of errors assists teachers to diagnose barriers faced by language learners. Corder categorizes errors into four kinds, namely omission, addition, misformation, and misordering (Corder, 1973). Firstly, omission is identified by unavailability of some necessary component. An item should appear, but not. For example: the word "question" is pronounced /'kwes_n/. Sound [tʃ] is absence. It has to be pronounced /'kwestʃən/. Secondly, addition is identified by adding some not required or incorrect component. Some unnecessary components are present in utterance. For example: the word "money" is pronounced /;mʌnei/. Sound [e] should not appear. It has to be pronounced /'mʌni/. Thirdly, misformation is characterized by the use of wrong form of morpheme. There is an incorrect component. For instance: the word "Death" is pronounced /det/. Sound [t] should be [θ]; therefore it have to be pronounced /deθ/. The last, misordering is characterized by placing a component in wrong order. For instance: the word "ask" is pronounced /a:ks/. Sound /k/ comes earlier than sound /s/. It has to be changed. Sound /s/ is followed by sound /k/; therefore the correct pronunciation is /a:sk/.

An error plays essential role in the study of language learning (Ian Done D. Ramos, 2015). It becomes useful information or sources for persons in charge to follow it up. Error is a tool that learners and teachers use to a development. It presents level of language learner in learning target language. Error analysis is a branch of applied linguistics. It focuses on errors produced by learners as the result of language transfer in learning a new language. It compares errors made in target language with the rules of the target language itself. In other words, It investigates consistent faults made by second or foreign language learners. Error analysis allows teachers to find out the sources of errors. From the findings, teachers can take pedagogical anticipations (An, 2014). Complaints experienced by teachers while teaching only become complaints if not

followed by error analysis and giving feedback to the errors. Error analysis is very effective to improve quality of learning.

Corder in Sompong mentions that errors have advantages. The first, errors inform teachers how far the progress of learners including what they have mastered and what have not. The second, errors provide evidences for researchers about how they acquire and learn a language, and what strategies and procedures learners apply in discovering a language. The third, errors are learners' necessity because they become learning materials for students. The last, making error is a strategy applied by children in acquiring their native language and by those who learn a second or foreign language (Sompong, 2014). Those advantages become strong foundation to conduct error analysis in developing language learning.

Richard classifies two sources of errors, namely interlingual errors and Intralingual and developmental errors (An, 2014). Interlingual errors (mother-tongue influence) occur because of negative transfer from the learners' mother tongue. Interlingual errors may happen in various levels, such as transfer elements of phonology, grammar, morphology, and lexica-semantics of mother tongue into target language. For example: in phonological level, there are several sounds which do not exist in Turkish, so that Turkish learners often mispronounce English words containing sound /θ/ and /ð/. When they want to pronounce "think", they pronounce sound /t/ for "tie" rather than /θ/; therefore the word "think" sounds /tiŋk/. It is similar when they want to pronounce "mother". They tend to pronounce sound /d/ rather than sound /ð/; therefore they "mother" as /'mʌdθr/, not /'mʌðθr/. Their mother tongue influences target language learning (Zhao, 2017), including the way they pronounce the words. Unfortunately, it is not a positive transfer, but negative transfer.

Interlingual and developmental errors are results of complex features in target language. It is made by second language learners because of incomplete learning of the target language rather than language transfer. Ellis states that several errors appear in general, indicating efforts of language learner to make the task of learning and trying to make the target language simpler in its usage (Rod, 1997). In other words, intralingual and developmental errors occur when language learners simplify and generalize target language in its usage. For instance: When language learners generalize that every time they pronounce letter "u", they pronounce sound /ʌ/ as in "cut" /kʌt/ and "shut" /ʃʌt/. As a result, they pronounce "put" as /pʌt/ instead of /pʊt/. It is not negative transfer from their native language. It is pure affected by learners' attempt to use target language with their limitation.

Effective teaching of pronunciation is influenced by several factors. They are the effect of age; the number and kind of prior pronunciation instruction, exposure to the target language, aptitude, attitude, and motivation, and the role of the learners' first language on the phonological acquisition of a second language

(Celce-Murcia, 2010). First, age influences learners' ability to learn pronunciation. Many claims say that adult is unable to gain perfect or target-like pronunciation in a second or foreign language. Interlingual errors potentially occur to adults. The younger second language learners, the easier they learn pronunciation of a new language. Second, the type of prior instruction control learners' pronunciation ability in EFL settings. Teacher may do positive transfer from learners' mother tongue. Third, learners' exposure to the target language deciding their success in mastering second language. Input is relevant to output. If learners learn correct pronunciation, they will produce correct pronunciation. Forth, aptitude, attitude and motivation affect success in learning. The last, similarity and diversity of native language and target language contribute to the learners' ease and difficulties in learning.

Learners' errors are really useful for many parties such as teachers, syllabus designer, and test developers. Errors have positive pedagogical implications. Once teachers ignore error analysis, they cannot design and implement a good learning since errors also reflect students' achievement. Collaboration between researchers and teachers in error analysis assist learners to free from the problems they face. This research conducts error analysis of pronunciation of silent consonant letters.

Silent Consonant Letters

Consonant is each speech sounds which are produced by blocking breath flow. There are 25 distinct consonant phonemes in NAE. Few of the consonants are not sounded when they are in words. They have no sound, however they are spelled (Richard Norquist, 2020). These consonants are called silent consonant letters. These letters do not have paten patterns; therefore it is ambiguous for learners. For example: the word "know"; when it is pronounced, letter 'k' is not sounded. It is pronounced /nəʊ/. Nevertheless, when word "know" is spelled, letter 'k' is exist. Carney classifies types of silent letters into three. They are auxiliary letter, inert letter, and empty letter(Carney, 2012).

Auxiliary letters are additional letters which assist to create complex graphic unit. It is required to maintain unit distinct from other units. The existence of auxiliary letters is to show the difference between two words which have similar pronunciation yet have different spelling. For instance: the word "hour" and "our". Both of the words have similar pronunciation namely /aʊə/, but they have different spelling. The word "hour" consists of silent consonant letter "h" which emphasizes the distinction from the word "our" event those words have similar pronunciation.

Inert letters are types of letters in which the letters are pronounced and spelled in the certain forms, but not pronounced in other forms because they have no a phonetic counterpart. For example: Letter 'g' is consistent in all spelling of word "sign", and makes the agreement sound /g/in word "signatory" which is

pronounced /;signƏtƏri/ and “signature” which is pronounced /’signƏtʃƏ/. In contrast, in words “sign” which is pronounced /saIn/ and “signing” which is pronounced /’saInIn/, there is no phonetic counterpart. In this case, letter ‘g’ is considered ‘inert’ or not active.

Empty letters are well-known as dummy letters. These letters do not have real distinctive function like auxiliary letters. They also have no a hidden distinctive function like inert letters. The silent consonant letters can be classified through consonant clusters. They appear in onset and coda of a syllable. Here is the example of empty letters in onset: letter ‘h’ in “honest” and “ghost”. Here is the example of empty letters in coda: letter h in “rhythm”.

The following table lists the silent consonant letters. The italic letters in the second column are pronounced silently.

Table 1. List of Silent Consonant Letters (SCL)

| Silent Consonant Letters | Examples | Transcriptions |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| b | <i>Climb</i> | /klaɪm/ |
| c | <i>Discipline</i> | /’dɪsɪplɪn/ |
| ch | <i>Yacht</i> | /jɔt/ |
| d | <i>Wednesday</i> | /’wenzdeɪ/ |
| g | <i>Assignment</i> | /ə’saɪnmənt/ |
| gh | <i>Neighbor</i> | /’neɪbər/ |
| h | <i>Honorable</i> | /’ɒnərəbəl/ |
| k | <i>Knock</i> | /nɒk/ |
| l | <i>Should</i> | /ʃʊd/ |
| m | <i>Mnemonic</i> | /nɪ’mɒnɪk/ |
| n | <i>Autumn</i> | /’ɔ:təm/ |
| p | <i>Psychiatry</i> | /saɪ’kaɪətri/ |
| s | <i>Island</i> | /’aɪlənd/ |
| t | <i>Listen</i> | /’lɪsən/ |
| th | <i>Months</i> | /mʌns/ |
| w | <i>Answer</i> | /’ɑ:nsə/ |
| z | <i>Rendezvous</i> | /’rɒndəvu/ |

Source: (Liskinasih, 2012)

Methods

This research uses descriptive quantitative method. The population of this research is Freshman of State Islamic College of Majene, West Sulawesi. Total number of population is 62 Freshman which spread in two classes, namely TBI.1 and TBI.2. To draw representative samples, the samples are taken by using Slovin's formula with margin errors only 5%; so the total number of sample is 54 Freshman. This research is conducted in the early of odd semester of academic year 2019/2020, when the freshmen are newly at college. Data collection is taken from an oral test in which the Freshman are asked to pronounce seventeen words containing silent consonant letters. Every word contains different silent consonant letters, *namely b, c, ch, d, g, gh, h, k, l, m, n, p, s, t, th, w, and z.*

Students are only allowed to read the words once. They have no second chance to repeat what they read. The researchers record Freshman's voices to analyze. The researchers identify Freshman's errors by listening the recording, scoring the correct and incorrect pronunciations, and calculating the number of errors. The data are analyzed by using percentage technique. Each word containing silent consonant letters is calculated its frequency and its percentage. After that, from seventeen words, the researchers categorize the common errors of silent consonant letter pronunciation based on the largest number of incorrect pronunciation.

Results and Discussion

The data which presented in this section are taken from results of learners' pronunciation in the recording. Each learner pronounces seventeen English words. Those words contain different silent consonant letters. The pronunciation test covers all kinds of silent consonant letters which presented by Liskinasih in her paper. It aims to investigate learners' ability in pronouncing the words containing them, and to investigate which silent consonant letters is mostly pronounced incorrectly by the learners. The learners' pronunciation errors are identified by analyzing sounds that should not be pronounced in those words. The frequency and percentage of learners' pronunciation errors are presented in the following table to ease readers understand the data.

Table 2. Calculation of the test results

| NO | SCL | English words | Frequency | | Total | Percentage | | Total |
|----|----------|---------------|-----------|-----------|-------|------------|-----------|-------|
| | | | Correct | Incorrect | | Correct | Incorrect | |
| 1 | <i>b</i> | Thumb | 6 | 48 | 54 | 11.11 | 88.89 | 100 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|-----------|------------|----|----|----|-------|-------|-----|
| 2 | <i>c</i> | Muscle | 9 | 45 | 54 | 16.67 | 83.33 | 100 |
| 3 | <i>ch</i> | Yacht | 5 | 49 | 54 | 9.259 | 90.74 | 100 |
| 4 | <i>d</i> | Handbook | 14 | 40 | 54 | 25.93 | 74.07 | 100 |
| 5 | <i>g</i> | Campaign | 19 | 35 | 54 | 35.19 | 64.81 | 100 |
| 6 | <i>gh</i> | Tight | 7 | 47 | 54 | 12.96 | 87.04 | 100 |
| 7 | <i>h</i> | Heiress | 6 | 48 | 54 | 11.11 | 88.89 | 100 |
| 8 | <i>k</i> | Knuckle | 29 | 25 | 54 | 53.7 | 46.3 | 100 |
| 9 | <i>l</i> | Chalk | 27 | 27 | 54 | 50 | 50 | 100 |
| 10 | <i>m</i> | Mnemonic | 16 | 38 | 54 | 29.63 | 70.37 | 100 |
| 11 | <i>n</i> | Damn | 26 | 28 | 54 | 48.15 | 51.85 | 100 |
| 12 | <i>p</i> | Pneumonia | 15 | 39 | 54 | 27.78 | 72.22 | 100 |
| 13 | <i>s</i> | Aisle | 34 | 20 | 54 | 62.96 | 37.04 | 100 |
| 14 | <i>t</i> | Castle | 14 | 40 | 54 | 25.93 | 74.07 | 100 |
| 15 | <i>th</i> | Months | 7 | 47 | 54 | 12.96 | 87.04 | 100 |
| 16 | <i>w</i> | Write | 4 | 50 | 54 | 7.407 | 92.59 | 100 |
| 17 | <i>z</i> | Rendezvous | 5 | 49 | 54 | 9.259 | 90.74 | 100 |

Table shows learners' ability in pronouncing English words containing silent consonant letters. From 54 samples, there 88, 89% samples who make errors in pronouncing the word "thumb". They pronounce sound /b/ which should be silent. There are 83.33% samples who pronounce the silent /c/ in "muscle"; there are 90.74% samples who pronounce the silent /ch/ in "yacht"; there are 74.07% samples who pronounce the silent /d/ in "handbook"; there are 64.81% samples who pronounce the silent /g/ in "campaign"; there are 64.81% samples who pronounce the silent /g/ in "campaign"; there are 88.89% samples who pronounce the silent /h/ in "heiress"; there are 43.06% samples who pronounce the silent /k/ in "knuckle"; there are 50% samples who pronounce the silent /l/ in "chalk"; there are 70.37% samples who pronounce the silent /m/ in "mnemonic"; there are 51.85% samples who pronounce the silent /n/ in "damn"; there are 72.22% samples who pronounce the silent /p/ in "pneumonia"; there are 37.04% samples who pronounce the silent /s/ in "aisle"; there are 74.04% samples who pronounce the silent /t/ in "castle"; there are 87.04% samples who pronounce the silent /th/ in "months"; there are 92.59% samples who pronounce the silent /w/ in "write"; there are 90.74% samples who pronounce the silent /z/ in "rendezvous".

From 14 English words provided in English, most of those words are frequently used vocabulary in daily life, like word "write". Nevertheless, mostly learners cannot pronounce it correctly. From 14 silent

consonant letters which contained in 14 different English words, only two silent letters which are pronounced correctly more than 50% samples, namely sound /k/ in knuckle and sound /s/ in “aisle”. The remaining silent letters are mostly pronounced incorrectly by more than 50% samples. Some silent letters, even, reach 90% samples who pronounce them incorrectly. They are /w/ in “write”, /z/ in “rendezvous”, and /ch/ in “yacht”. The three of them became the top rank of silent letters that the students cannot pronounce correctly. Those silent consonant letters must be a concern for the teachers.

Every word that learners pronounce in the test reflects list of sounds in their memory. They pronounce the words as what they have been listen to so far. Teachers play crucial roles in the classroom to be role models. Learners tend to imitate what teachers pronounce in the classroom. Learners’ error pronunciation indicates how teachers demonstrate error pronunciation in English classroom and students duplicate those errors. Pronunciation learning is often considered unimportant by some teachers. It is in line with what Celce Murcia said that mostly English teachers master grammar than pronunciation (Celce-Murcia, 2010). As a consequence, the learners also become unskilled in pronouncing English words correctly.

The results above are reflections of the harsh reality of learning English. Pronunciation should be taught in tandem with other English components and skills. Their importance levels are same. It should not be left behind, since it is a part of speaking skill. Integrated learning in EFL classroom is necessary to overcome the number of pronunciation errors made by learners who have studied English for years. The thing that becomes one of the evaluation materials is the provision of correct input to students so that they are able to produce correct pronunciation. In speaking class, teachers must provide time for pronunciation drilling with notes that learning resources used for pronunciation must be authentic so that students imitate the correct sounds. It does not make any sense if the teachers do pronunciation drilling, but they give wrong examples.

Pronunciation cannot be denied. It plays important part in employability. Unclear pronunciation also affect social life (Shak et al., 2016). As learners in college level, they have to prepare themselves to encounter the workforce. Some job applicants do not pass interview session because of the wrong pronunciation. They are not able to convince interviewers with their oral competence. The ways someone speak show their identities, and imply their association to particular communities (Seidlhofer, 2001). This becomes considerations for the job interviewers. It is not expected that alumni of English education program will be fail in interview session just because the way they pronounce English words irritate interviewers. Clear pronunciation is a real demand for English education program, since they will continue teaching in future classrooms.

Conclusion

Regarding the findings and discussion above, it can be concluded that silent consonant letters are not familiar for freshman in State Islamic College of Majene. There are only few words containing silent consonant letters that can pronounce correctly by many freshmen. In addition, most of English words provided in the test are pronounced incorrectly by many freshmen. The top three rank of silent consonant letters which are difficult for learners are /w/, /z/, and /ch/. These three silent letters should become teachers' concern in designing curriculum. Pronunciation errors in college level are worrying. It indicates immature teaching of pronunciation in the level of elementary and secondary schools; so that new students at college level still commit errors in terms of pronouncing silent consonant letters. Correct input for students influences correct output. The result describes output of what students have learnt. It implies the failure of pronunciation teaching at schools. Teachers should not ignore pronunciation in EFL classes. It should not be left behind. Its importance is similar to the importance other language skills. English pronunciation lecturers at college have to work hard to overcome this problem. It is highly recommended that English teachers have to improve their pronunciation before they teach the learners, since mostly learners only imitate the way their teachers pronounce the words. In addition, Lecturers who will handle pronunciation and speaking classes should work together to overcome learners' problems in pronunciation.

Pedagogical Implication

The study of learners' errors in pronunciation is beneficial for teachers and learners itself. Examining learners' output in pronunciation gives learners chance to evaluate themselves. Errors become reflection for learners. They can identify their weakness and strength in pronunciation; so that they are able improve their ability.

Error analysis in pronunciation also brings advantages to the teachers. Errors become input for them to reformulate learning and develop materials for remedial teaching. Learners' errors in pronouncing silent consonant letters allow teachers to think and design strategies to decrease learners' errors. Error analysis of pronunciation allows teachers to diagnose psychological reasons why errors occur. As curriculum developer, a teacher gains beneficial data from error analysis in terms of common errors of silent consonant letter pronunciation. The data can be used to basis for decision making on follow-up plans.

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The Effect of Using the ‘Six Thinking Hats’ and Fishbone Strategies for Developing Saudi EFL Learners' Writing Competence

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the effect of using the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies on the development of fourth year English language and Literature students' writing in the English language and Literature Department at Al- Immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University during the second semester in 2017/2018. The sample of the study consisted of 50 fourth year English language and Literature male students which was selected purposefully and assigned randomly into two groups; an experimental group of 28 students and a control group of 22 students. To achieve the purposes of the study, three topics were chosen from the Effective Academic Writing textbook. The instrument of the study was designed according to the characteristics of the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies. Validity and reliability of the instrument were ensured. To guarantee the equivalence of the two groups, the researcher administrated a writing ability pre-test, and then the experimental group was taught using the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies, whereas the control group was taught according to the conventional method. Descriptive statistics, One Way ANOVA and Scheffe for Multiple comparisons were used to analyze the results of the study. The findings of the study indicated that there were statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in

favor of the experimental group taught according to the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies. Also, it indicated that there were statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ on the posttest between the students in the high and intermediate levels in comparison with the students in the low level and in favor of the students in the high and intermediate levels, which means that using the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies were more efficient for the students in the high and intermediate level.

Keywords: *Six Thinking Hats, fishbone EFL Students, Writing Skill, Applied Linguistics, Psychology*

Theoretical Background

'Six Thinking Hats':

The 'six thinking hats' is a strategy formulated by Edward De Bono (1995) which helps students, as well as teachers, to expand their thinking horizons in relation to a topic by putting on a variety of 'thinking hats'. The 'six thinking hats' are as follows:

- 1) White hat thinking concerns the available as well as required information.
- 2) Black hat thinking considers the challenges that a topic raises.
- 3) Yellow hat thinking focuses on advantages and principles.
- 4) Red hat thinking examines the emotional effect of a topic.
- 5) Green hat thinking demands thinking 'outside the box' concerning a topic.
- 6) Blue hat thinking concerns self-reflexivity.

In this paper, the 'six thinking hats' is used by the researcher to help promote the students' writing skills. He distributes the thinking roles in the problem-solving processes.

Fishbone: An analysis tool that provides a way to look at effects and causes that contribute to those effects – in a process called a cause-and – effect and also known as Ishikawa diagram. Also it is a strategy designed by Ishikawa to help students brainstorm and think of possible questions also it helps students to find the relationship between cause and effect in their writing creatively. In this study, there is a chart designed by the researcher to help students to explore aspects or effects of a complex topic.

Conventional Method: It refers to the method of instruction that is usually used in the classroom, and that is recommended in the teacher guide.

Student Level: It refers to students' level of achievement in writing skill. The achievement levels are graded as follows:

- a. High (above 80%)
- b. Intermediate (70-80%)

c. Low (below 70%)

Fourth Year Students: The students who are registered in the fourth year and registered in the writing course which is taught in the Department of English language and Literature, at Al-Immam Ibn Saud Islamic University.

Many researchers consider writing as the most difficult skill that teachers face while teaching a foreign language, Al-Saadi & Samuel (2013). In this sense, Nunnan (1991) suggested that teachers should divide the writing process into parts and should present its parts in a certain order to suit students' needs. Brown (1987) argued that teachers should help their students to use and practice various relevant writing tasks to make writing process easier and to motivate students' writings. On the other hand, students are to follow different processes and strategies to produce good writings such as; arranging ideas, selecting appropriate words and lexicons, forming words into phrases and clauses and forming meaningful sentences.

The mastery of writing skill is essential need for all EFL learners in order to write what they produce and receive; written, spoken, listened, heard and read. Zhang & Vukelch (1998) stated that writing is a comprehensive ability including; grammar, vocabularies, conception, rhetoric, cohesion and coherent.

Teaching a foreign language is merely to enable learners to speak like native speakers, rather to enable them to express themselves appropriately in social context (Alrefae & Al-Ghamdi, 2019).

Using different language strategies for learning writing skill would lead to various different results of L2 learning (Nhem, 2019). The problem of EFL learners is that they write without being able of connecting what they write together. Most of the learners' problem is the difficulty of sequencing their ideas that they write in terms of discourse markers or the punctuation marks. This problem might be attributed to the over emphasis on grammar correction, lexical correction, spelling correction, the use of writing mechanics and using the traditional strategies of teaching writing.

As an English instructor at a university, the researcher noticed that most teachers of English language complain of the low level of their students in writing skill also the students themselves feel uncomfortable while writing. The researcher feels that the problem of writing might be attributed to the teaching strategies, therefore, the researcher thought that the core stone for developing writing is through using and producing different strategies of teaching writing. So, the researcher intends to study the effect of six thinking hats and fishbone strategies in teaching writing.

Brown (2001) states that, qualitative changes characterized the domain of second language pedagogy, in particular the paradigm shift from the product approach to the communicative one. In the communicative approach, writing is a conscious activity, which demands cognitive effort to stand meaningful.

The development of the educational system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and the new challenges of science and technology in the 21st century, necessitates the enhancement of Saudi students' thinking skills so that they can contribute to the consolidation of the position of Saudi Arabian economy as a globally competitive power Alrashidi & Phan (2015).

Edward De Bono (1999) proposes the 'Six Thinking Hats' as a method of instruction which allows for different styles of thinking, thereby fostering reflective practices. The 'Six Thinking Hats' stimulates the students to develop critical thinking skills, in particular 'thinking about one's own thinking' (metacognition).

Statement of the problem

The foundational claim of this paper is that, the difficulties that EFL students experience in writing good topics in grammatically and compositionally correct English are often a result of the inadequacy of the existing methods of instruction in writing courses. The claim is grounded in the researcher's long experience of teaching in the domain of EFL, and so is an expression of his concern for assisting the students to develop and improve their writing skills. The paper, therefore, is a call not just for revising the existing methods of instruction for writing courses but also for considering alternatives, in particular the 'six thinking hats' and fishbone strategies.

Purpose and questions of the study

The paper aims at demonstrating the extent to which the 'six thinking hats' and fishbone strategies are effective in developing the writing skills of the EFL fourth-year students, in the Department of English Language and Literature, Al-Imam Muhammad bin Saud Islamic University, KSA. Set in semester II (2017–18), the paper probes into the following directions of inquiry:

1. Is there an effect of using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies on the developing of EFL fourth year students' writing skill in the English Language and Literature Department at Al-immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Saudi Arabia?
2. Is there an effect of using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies on the developing of EFL fourth year students' writing skill in the English Language and Literature Department at Al-immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Saudi Arabia due to their level (low, intermediate and high) ?

Significance of the study

First of all, this research paper comes in the dimension of the quality education that the Ministry of Education has cultivated as core to education in the KSA. It concerns the promotion of students' critical thinking skills and powers of expression in oral and written forms. Secondly, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no research conducted in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia concerning the use of the 'six thinking hats' and the fishbone strategies in the teaching of EFL courses, in particular writing. Besides, the research provides teachers with innovative methods of instruction in EFL. More importantly, the research contributes to student empowerment, fostering independent thinking and self-expression. It helps students air their views, vocalize their understanding, and address their problems, Ministry of Education, (2001).

Limitations of the study

This research is limited to the fourth-year students who are registered in the writing course which is taught in the English language and Literature Dept, at Al-Immam Ibn Saud Islamic University, during the second semester of the academic year 2017/2018.

Review of related literature

Altauai (2011) investigated the usefulness of implementing the 'six thinking hats' on the achievement of 5th elementary class pupils in the Arabic language and grammar in Diba schools. The study sample is comprised of 125 pupils, divided into two groups: experimental group and control one, with 36 pupils in each. The two groups went through the achievement test, and the findings reported the better results of the experimental group. Hence, the researcher underlines the need for the application of the 'six thinking hats' across all the classes and courses.

Al-Dmor (2010) investigated the effect of using fishbone mapping diagram on tenth grade students in Al-Karak directorate of education during the second semester 2010/2011. The sample of the study consisted of (50) students. Results indicated that students who were taught using fishbone diagram achieved better than those who were taught using conventional strategy.

Mofadi's (2010) study was aimed at identifying the extent to which Science Instruction (in particular Multiple Intelligences and 'six thinking hats') might have an effect on Seventh Graders' Scientific Concepts and Thinking Skills Acquisition. The study sample contains 127 Jordanian students, males and females, selected by means of random sampling. Achievement tests were set, and (K-R20) was used in order to ensure the validity and reliability of the test. The study findings indicated marked differences the graders'

acquisition of scientific concepts as a result of applying multiple intelligences and 'six thinking hats' as teaching strategies.

Smadi (2010) investigated the effect of an instructional program based on fishbone mapping and six hats strategies on developing Ajloun University College EFL students' writing. The population of the study consisted of all female English majors at Ajloun University college in the academic year 2009/2010. The sample, which was chosen intentionally, consisted of (89) students enrolled in writing in the first semester in the academic year 2009/2010. The students were in three sections; two for the experimental group and the third section was for the control group. The researcher designed an instructional writing program based on the fishbone mapping and six hats strategies, also she administrated a writing ability pre-test before commencing the experiment and posttest at the end of the experiment. The findings of the study revealed statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental groups taught according to the instructional writing program.

Al-Ali (2009) administered a study with the aim of scrutinizing the impact of investigating the effect of teaching CoRT Program No.4 "creativity" on students' creative and critical thinking in the writing skill. The sample of the study consisted of thirty-six students from Ein AL-Basha Center for gifted students who were randomly divided into two equal groups (experimental and control). A pretest measuring fluency, flexibility and originality was administered for both groups. The results of the study showed that the mean of the experimental group was significantly higher than the mean of the control group on fluency, flexibility and originality which indicates that CoRT Program No.4 entitled "creativity" developed the gifted learners' creative abilities in writing English short stories.

Kwayotha & Tantriratna (2008) conducted a study aimed at investigating the effect of using six thinking hats method and mind mapping in developing the reading, thinking, and writing skills .The sample of the study consisted of nine Students of Ban-mon School, Bantan District during the second semester of 2008. The instrument for data collection including 24 learning management plans and lessons, the students' performance assessment, the End Cycle Test, the teachers teaching observation form, the students learning behavioral observation form, and interview form. The research findings found that: For the skill in reading, thinking, and writing of students were higher than the specified criterion as 70/70. For writing skill, according to the students work piece analysis of creative writing, they could be able to use thinking performance in writing using Language in communication as relevant to thinking.

Fodah & Abdo (2005) conducted a study investigating the effect of using De bone's thinking hats, in teaching science on developing the skills of creative thinking on fifth graders. The sample of the study consisted of (146) students of fifth graders in a school in Egypt. The sample was divided into two groups

(experimental which was taught using De bone's thinking hats and control which was taught by using the conventional method). The researchers used a measure of creative thinking tendency, and test of creative thinking skills which was created by the researcher. The result of the study indicated that there were significant differences in the mean of the two groups for the favor of the experimental group, which shows the effect of the six thinking hats in developing the skills of creative thinking.

Koray (2005) investigated the perceptions of the students about the implementation of two of the creative thinking techniques; six thinking hats and attribute listing in Science course. The sample of the study consisted of 115 students of the 6th, 7th and 8th graders in primary schools in Ankara. The researcher developed a structured interview form about both of the techniques contained 15 Likert type items (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree). Views and opinions of 3 experts were asked for the face validity of the test. The results of the study revealed that the primary school students (6th, 7th and 8th grade) and pre-service Science teachers had positive opinions about each of the techniques.

Osman (1997) investigated the effectiveness of fishbone strategy used in improving students' capabilities in achievement. The sample of the study consisted of (22) students. The results showed that there was an effect of using the teaching strategy in favor of the fishbone strategy.

Through reviewing the related studies, the researcher emphasized the importance and the efficacy of the writing skills in teaching EFL. As well as, it is essential to vary the teaching methods for teaching written skill. In this regard, the researcher noticed the importance of using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies for teaching written skills in teaching English as a foreign language in KSA.

Design and Methodology

Population of the study

The population of the study consisted of all EFL male fourth year students during the second semester 2017-2018 in the department of English language and Literature, at Al-Immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University who form 60 students.

Sample of the study

The sample of the study consisted of three male sections who are studying writing course during the second semester 2017/2018 who form 50 students.

The instructional Material

Three texts of writing skills were chosen from the English writing textbook; Effective Academic Writing by Liss and Davis (2012) assigned for the fourth year English language students in the Department of English language and literature at Al-Immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. The textbook

consists of six units, each unit contains four parts and a summary. The units of the textbook are; the researched essay, comparison – contrast essays, cause and effect, argumentative essays, classification essays and the reaction essays. This textbook is designed to meet the educational needs and interest of the fourth year English language students in the Department of English language and literature at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The syllabus provides regular, carefully – staged practice in writing, where the emphasis is on practice and production of language. Each writing section develops a particular real-life writing skill that students will be familiar with in their own language. The writing task is set out at the beginning of the section, and the students follow a carefully – planned sequence of exercises which start with a model text and take them through to producing their own.

Research instrument

A pretest was designed by the researcher to ensure the equivalence of the two groups. Also the same writing test will be used as a posttest to assess students' achievement in writing skills at the end of the experiment.

Test validity

To ensure the validity of the test, it was given to a jury of TEFL specialists, professors, teachers and supervisors of English language. The jury were asked to validate the test items and their relevance to the characteristics of each thinking hat as well as their suitability to writing skills and also the clarity of the test questions. The jury comments and suggestions were studied carefully and the modifications were made.

Test reliability

To establish test reliability, (test - retest method) was used. The test was conducted on a pilot sample. This sample was excluded from the sample of the study. Two weeks later the same test was implemented again. (Reliability coefficient of the two scores of the test were computed using Person correlation coefficient.

The Procedures of the study

1. The researcher made all the arrangements with the students to conduct this study.
2. One section was assigned randomly and selected to be the experimental group which was used as a control group which was taught using the conventional method.
3. The researcher explained to the students of the experimental group the procedures of using the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies.
4. The instrument of the study was conducted on a pilot sample.

5. A writing test was given to the three groups to check on students' equivalency.
6. The researcher selected the lessons that he used; those were from the English textbook which is accredited for the writing course.
7. The researcher wrote topics where students wrote about using the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies.
8. The researcher stated the lesson plans for the lessons.
9. The researcher stated a writing rubric in order to correct the writing topics using, this rubric consisted of three criteria:
 - A. Content and comprehensibility, this criterion emphasized the realization of the writing task, using supporting details and evidence, the relevancy of the content to the writing topic.
 - B. Organization, this criterion was concerned with the extent to which the ideas are clear; the paragraphs are coherent and well-organized.
 - C. Grammar and spelling which were dealt with language accuracy such as (subject – verb agreement and word usage) and the mechanics of writing such as (punctuation, capitalization and spelling).
10. The suggested passages were submitted to a jury of specialists in methodology and applied linguistics. They were asked to judge the appropriateness of the questions to check, whether they represent the characteristics of the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies and whether they are within the students' levels.
12. After gaining the approval of the jury, the researcher conducted the study using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies as the experimental group and the conventional method as the control group.

In teaching the experimental group using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies, the researcher did the following:

1. The researcher introduced and taught the concept of De Bono's 'Six Thinking Hats' and the fishbone strategies.
2. The researcher conducted a class discussion about the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies.
3. The researcher divided students into three groups.
4. Students will discuss all the passages in groups.
5. The researcher collected the papers of the selected topics then he corrected them using writing correction rubric.
6. A post - test in writing passages was given to the control groups after the end of the study.
7. After applying the study, collecting data, the data was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS).

Statistical analyses

T-test, Descriptive statistics and One Way ANOVA were used.

Results and Discussion

Before carrying out the statistical analysis to answer the question of the study, the researcher ensured the equivalence of the two groups (control and experimental) to examine if the development in the students' writing ability will come as a result of using the six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies or not. The researcher carried out a pre-test for both control and experimental groups and calculated the means and standard deviation for their scores in this test which was conducted at the beginning of the second semester of the academic year 2017/2018. Table 1 shows the results of t-test for Independent Samples on the Pre-test.

Table No. (1)
The results of t-test for Independent Samples on the Pre -test

| Group | No. of Sts. | Means | StD. | df. | T | Sig. |
|-----------------------|----------------|-------|--------|-----|------|-------|
| Control group | 22 | 45.32 | 9.121 | 48 | 0.36 | 0.564 |
| Experimental group | 28 | 54.46 | 12.322 | | | |

The results in table (1) show that the difference in the mean scores of the groups of the study (control and experimental) in the pretest was (9.14), also the t-value was (0.36) which was not statistically significant at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This means that both groups are equal according to the teaching method; Conventional and six thinking hats. Then after the researchers made sure of the equivalence of the two groups, she answered the questions of the study as the following results.

- 1. Results Related to the First Question of the study: Is there an effect of using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies on the developing of EFL fourth year students' writing skill in the English Language and Literature Department at Al-immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Saudi Arabia?**

The researcher calculated the mean scores and standard deviation of the experimental and control groups in the post test and she used t-test for independent samples to find out whether or not these differences were statistically significant. The t-test results are shown below in table (2)

Table No.2

The results of t-test for independent samples on the post -test

| Group | No. of Sts. | df | | t | Sig. |
|--------------------|-------------|-------|-------|----|------|
| | | Means | StD. | | |
| control group | 22 | 55.9 | 8.543 | 48 | 3.7 |
| | | | | | 0.00 |
| Experimental Group | 28 | 79.0 | 8.201 | | |
| | | | | | |

As shown in Table (2), t-value was 3.72 which is statistically significant at the level of the significance ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This means that there were statistically differences between the mean scores of the students in the experimental group and the control group. As shown in this table the mean score of the experimental group is (79.03) and the standard deviation is (8.201), while the mean score of the control group is (55.93) and the standard deviation is (8.543) which means that the difference was in favor of the experimental group. This indicates that there is an effect for using six thinking hats and the fishbone methods on the development of EFL fourth year students' writing skill in the English language and Literature Dept, at Al-Immam Ibn Saud Islamic University

2- Results Related to the Second Question : Is there an effect of using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies on the developing of EFL fourth year students' writing skill in the English Language and Literature Department at Al-Immam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Saudi Arabia due to their level (low, intermediate and high)?

To answer this question, the researcher referred to the scores of the experimental group on the pretest and classified the students into three groups according to their levels (high, intermediate and low). The researchers classified the students as the following (below 70% is low achievement, from 70%--80% is an intermediate achievement and above 80% is a high achievement).

The researcher found out the mean scores and standard deviation of the experimental group on the post test according to their levels in writing skills (high, intermediate and low). Table (3) shows that:

Table No.3

Means and standard deviation of the experimental group on the post-test according to their level of achievement.

| Groups | No. of Sts | Means | StD. | Minimum | Maximum |
|------------|------------|-------|-------|---------|---------|
| High level | 10 | 80.20 | 2.711 | 80.00 | 91.00 |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------|----|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Intermediate level | 11 | 81.44 | 5.232 | 70.00 | 90.00 |
| Low level | 7 | 68.77 | 3.031 | 67.00 | 88.00 |
| Total | 28 | 74.30 | 8.323 | 64.00 | 90.00 |

Table (3) shows that there are statistical differences in the mean scores of the experimental group on the post test according to the level variable in writing activities (high, intermediate and low). Mean score was (80.20) and standard deviation was (2.771) for the high level, while mean score was (81.44) and standard deviation was (5.232) for the Intermediate level and mean score was (68.77) and standard deviation was (3.031) for the low level

To find whether or not these differences are significant, an analysis of ONE-WAY ANOVA was carried out. The results of the analysis are shown in table (4).

Table No. 4
ANOVA results for the experimental group on the post –test according to the level variable in writing skill.

| Source of Variance | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|--------------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | 1121.001 | 3 | 45.001 | 20.33 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 732.781 | 24 | 30.433 | 2 | |
| Total | 1853.287 | 27 | | | |

Table (4) shows that there were statistical significant differences between the students of the experimental group on the post-test due to the level of students in writing skill (high, intermediate and low) where (F =20.332), which is statistically significant at the level of significance ($\alpha \leq 0.05$). This indicates that using six thinking hats and

fishbone methods contribute, in developing writing skills of fourth year English language students according to their previous level (high, intermediate and low). To find out to whom these differences refer, Scheffe for Multiple Comparisons was used. The results of the analysis are shown in Table (5).

Table No.5
Scheffe (for Multiple
Comparisons)

| Groups | Mean scores | The means differences among the groups | | |
|--------------------|-------------|--|--------------------|-----------|
| | | High level | Intermediate level | Low level |
| High level | 80.20 | --- | 6.67 | 19.94* |
| Intermediate Level | 81.44 | -6.43- | -- | 11.30* |
| Low level | 68.77 | -17.78* | -11.20* | -- |

*The mean difference is significant at the ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)

As shown in table (5), the results indicate that there were statistically significant differences on the post test between the students in the (high and intermediate levels) in comparison with the students in the low level, and in favor of the students in the high and intermediate level), whereas, the results did not indicate statistically significant differences between the students of the (high and intermediate levels), which means that using the six thinking hats and the fishbone methods helped in developing writing skills and more efficiently, for the students in the (high and intermediate levels) comparing with the students in the low level.

Discussion of the results

The results of this study revealed that there were statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) between students achievement in writing skill as a result of

using the method of six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies compared with the conventional method.

The results of this study showed significant development in students writing skill in English language as measured by the post –test scores in writing skill test which was constructed by the researcher. On the other hand, no development in students writing skills was marked in the results of the students in the control group that was taught using the conventional method. The mean score of the experimental group was (74.30), whereas that of the control group was (64.00). That is, this positive difference in the mean scores of the experimental group was due to the effect of teaching students using six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies. In fact, the researcher noticed that students of the experimental group were motivated and they had positive attitudes toward this strategy (six thinking hats) because it was a new method in teaching writing and they haven't ever used this method in a writing skill task as an instructional tool. This method helped student to be creative, imaginative, think thoughtfully before speaking or writing, and also it enhanced their ability to solve problems. This result is in line with the research results of Kwayotha & Tantriratna (2008), which indicate that, according to the creative writing skill, the students could be able to use thinking performance in writing using Language in communication as relevant to thinking. Also this study was in line with the results of Koray (2005), which revealed that the students as well as the pre-service science teachers had positive opinions about using six thinking hats. The same results are consistent with that obtained by Fodah & Abdo (2005), which shows that there was a good effect of the six thinking hats and the fishbone methods in developing the skills of creative thinking.

One possible reason for this could be that students who were good in English language were affected positively by this methods (six thinking hats and the fishbone) and enhanced their writing skill. Also group work, cooperation and oral discussion encouraged students to be more motivated, whereas the students in the low level might have lacked the ability to generate good ideas or build up their vocabulary items and other writing skills such as, spelling and grammar.

Conclusion

In summary, the findings of this study revealed that six thinking hats and the fishbone strategies were effective in teaching writing to EFL students and these findings are consistent with the findings of studies of Kwayotha, & Tantriratna (2008), Zhang and Vukelch (1998), who supported the idea of using six thinking hats and fishbone strategies in developing writing skills. Also, the results of the study are in harmony with studies done by Fodah & Abdo (2005), Koray (2005), approved the importance of six thinking hats in developing scientific concepts and creative thinking.

Finally, it can be concluded from the results of the study that using the six thinking hats and fishbone strategies is very helpful for the teachers as well as for the students themselves. For example, it helps the teacher to make the writing process more effective and easier, because the teacher is an effective facilitator, also grading students' writings is objective. Also, these strategies are helpful for the students as they organize their ideas and see what they are thinking before writing, and students revise drafts with less teacher intervention. Cooperation and oral discussion encourage students to be more involved and work seriously to complete the writing task. And in general, this method enhances the collaborative group work between students. In conclusion, the findings of this study provide clear evidence for the effectiveness of six thinking hats and fishbone strategies in developing the quality and the quantity of students' writing.

Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

In light of the findings of this study, the researcher believes that the following recommendations and pedagogical recommendations are helpful for the educators, teachers and researchers:

1. Further researches are recommended to investigate the effect of using six thinking hats and fishbone strategies on other skills of English language (reading and speaking).
2. Teachers should not limit their writing skills instruction to only one method but they have to apply new and different methods and strategies, such as six thinking hats and fishbone strategies.

3. Organizing seminars and workshops to train Saudi EFL teachers on implementing the six thinking hats and fishbone strategies in teaching English language.

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Substituting English with a Local Language: Examining Parents' belief toward Chavacano as Language of Instruction

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Abstract

This research was conceptualized to determine the belief of the 400 parents from the different ethnic groupings (*Chavacano, Bisaya, Ilonggo* and *Tausug*) towards *Chavacano* as medium of instruction. This cross-sectional study utilized an adapted survey-questionnaire (with reliability – Cronbach's alpha = 0.94) as data gathering approach. The study disclosed that the respondents are exhibiting 'slightly positive' belief towards *Chavacano* as the language of instruction in the early education of their children. In addition, it was found that there is a significant difference on the beliefs of the parents when grouped according to their ethnicity. However, no significant difference was established on the beliefs of the respondents when grouped according to educational attainment. Discussions are provided herein.

Keywords: *Parents, Beliefs, Medium of Instruction, Ethnicity, Educational Attainment*

Introduction

The success of the delivery of quality education is greatly dependent on language which serves as the vehicle for the transmission of knowledge and realization of learning as contended by Alieto (2018a). Moreover, language is perceived to be potential instrument as far the act of educating children is accounted (Alieto, Devanadera & Buslon, 2019) and considered to be a very potent tool in communication (Devanadera & Alieto, 2019b). This means that teaching and learning largely relies on the language chosen as medium of instruction. It can be claimed, along this line, that it would be nigh impossible to education to thrive without the use of language. Thus, selecting what language to be used in school is no easy concern. As it is critical concern (Ejeh, 2004 in Perez & Alieto, 2018) decisions related to it must be done in consideration of many

factors and understanding of many dimensions. This is greatly true in the contexts of multilingual, multiethnic and multicultural countries.

In the year 1953, the UNESCO (1953) emphasized the importance of using children's first language (used interchangeably with L1 and mother tongue [MT] in this study). The organization claimed that studies have found and determined that education, specially of young children, realized not in the L1 is not ideal. In fact, children learning concepts in a language they are yet to master are subjected to a two-fold challenge – the difficulty of learning the concept and the difficulty of learning the language of instruction. Therefore, students instructed in their L1 are spared from the anxiety and trouble of learning another language to make sense of the lessons introduced in class. However, students taught in a second language (L2) are expected to learn educational concepts alongside learning another language – two acts of learning that needs to be simultaneously performed which is too difficult if not improbable to do Jhingran (2005 in Alieto, 2018a). Thus, there are learners finding difficulty in understanding concepts and ideas presented in the class because of the medium chosen in the delivery said concepts. This is claimed by Lee and Jung (2004) as language-associated difficulties. Moreover, Mackenzie (2009) reported that students taught not in L1 have produced inferior quality of educational outcomes. In addition, Kioko, Ndung'u, Njoroge, and Mutiga, (2014, p.2) claimed an educational system packaged in a medium of instruction not known to the learners is a form of '*torture*' and violates principles of teaching.

Empirical data and observations abound supporting education taking place in the L1 of children. Jhingran (2005 in Alieto, 2018a) observed that children educated not in their L1 are facing difficulty in terms of comprehension. The same author noted that these students were simply doing rote learning. Students were found to have difficulty even identifying letters of the alphabet and were noted to be of very limited vocabulary. Moreover, Cummins (2000 cited in Alieto, 2018a) maintained that the founding of L1 is essential for the learning of other languages. This means that education of young children realized in their MT is a means of gaining proficiency in a second language, not a means away from it as others baselessly perceived. The contention that a well-founded L1 leads to a smooth learning of L2 is supported by Mackenzie (2009) and Orwenjo (2012) who maintained that L2 is learned with ease if the L1 proficiency is well founded.

However, the Philippine Educational System for so long a time has favored the use of English over children's mother tongue as medium of instruction in the early years of education. In fact, Mother Tongues are not allotted essential spaces in the curriculum and were not welcomed in schools until the passage of the bill known as the Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013 into a law – the Republic Act 10533 – which promotes the utilization of local languages (mother tongues specifically) in early years of education (Alieto, Devanadera & Buslon, 2019).

The reshaping of the language-in-education landscape of the country has brought great changes. From kindergarten to grade 3, mother tongue shall serve as the medium of instruction. However, the multicultural characteristic of the country makes it difficult if not impossible to faithfully adhere to the principle of educating children with the language they proficiently speak. Thus, the Department of Education adopted the so-called *Lingua Franca Model*. In this model, the students coming from different linguistic backgrounds shall be taught using a nominated *lingua franca*. As illustration is the city of Zamboanga in the Philippines. The place is salad bowl of cultures. The people inhabiting the place are coming from different ethnic groupings although the majority still are the *Chavacanos*. Because schools in the city are attended by multiethnic students, it is a great challenge to have students' education in their L1. The quick fix made was to elect the *Chavacano* language as the language of instruction. It was noted that when the public-school system implemented the use of mother tongue parents transferred their children in private schools. This suggests parents prefer that their children be taught in English. The same practice was observed by Moschkovich (2002) done by parents in South Africa who wanted and demanded that their children be educated and taught in English and not in the MT. Against this, there is a need to determine the beliefs of parents as regards the use of *Chavacano* as medium of instruction. Upon survey of literature, most of the investigations conducted on the language shift that has happened in the country were directed, mainly, to teachers, pre-service teachers and learners. However, none or at the very least limited studies were directed towards parents. It is argued that parents are essential stakeholders to consider in the continuous refined of the language policy. Moreover, this present study intends to provide empirical data relative to parents' belief towards the use of a local language to educate their children that is not their own.

Therefore, this study purposed to determine the beliefs of parents towards the nominated mother tongue, the *Chavacano*, as Language of Instruction (LoI) [used interchangeably with medium of instruction (MoI)]. In addition, the study intended to determine if there is a significant difference on the belief towards *Chavacano* as MoI across ethnicities and educational attainments.

Review of related literature

Belief as a construct

Belief is cognitive in state, and is identified as one component of attitude according to the mentalists' perspective. In addition, as belief can trigger affective reaction and so can affective reaction be triggered by beliefs. Beliefs can either be descriptive or prescriptive. If it is descriptive, it is the kind of belief that relates to the perception about the world, example is the belief that success in educating people is to an extent dependent on the language to be used as instruction. Conversely, the prescriptive belief refers to those that contain imperative remarks like *ought* and *should*, example is the belief that young children should be taught in their own language for them to learn well (McKenzie, 2010).

In addition, opinion can be defined as a belief that is expressed or verbalised; hence, opinions can be considered as unconcealed beliefs. The characteristic being overt of opinions is one great distinction they have over beliefs. In addition, belief is different from attitude in the sense that contains beliefs or cognitions have no affective reaction unlike attitude which has (Baker, 1992).

Beliefs toward local language as LoI

Studies have accounted various beliefs toward the use of local languages (MotherTongues) in education. Orwenjo (2012) related that indigenous languages are believed to be linguistically limited, and could not deliver the teaching of modern concepts which the English language can. The same research found that MT teaching is believed to interfere with the learning of a second language. Mackenzie (2009) discussed that a view exists relating to proficiency in the target language (in most cases, English) resulting in long emersion to it. Leung (1998, in Eijeh, 2000) stated that local languages are perceived to be less in value because it is English that is sought in the job market.

Graham (2010) found that people oppose Mother Tongue Education because MT is spoken and learned at home; therefore, there is no need for it to be learned in school. Moreover, in the same study, it was found that people believe that teaching in MT is a form of regression and not advancement in education

Interestingly, Benson (2004) claimed that hesitance in the use of mother tongue in education roots from the hundreds of years of colonial thinking, cheapening indigenous languages and overrating colonial languages.

True enough, Graham (2010) presented the existence of a view that learning English is necessary because advancement in education is dependent on certain of proficiency on the English language. The so-called dependence is due to the fact that examinations are set in the English language. Moreover, employment requires certain extent of academic and employment competence in English. Therefore, learning and work cannot be divorced from the said language. Tupas (2015) described a much alike belief that English is the only language sought in this present globalized world. This implies that to be able to compete and succeed in the world of work the most important and the only language that matters is English. A similar perspective is found in the study of Burton (2013) in the context of the MTB-MLE implementation in the Philippines. English remains to be the desired language for parents and teachers. Thus, these stakeholders remain apprehensive about the implementation of the Mother Tongue-based Education with regard to its negative impact in the learning of the English language. The same belief is held by the student teachers surveyed by Ejie (2004) in Nigeria. The study found that the respondents are exhibiting negative attitude towards teaching in mother tongue. Such attitude toward the use of indigenous languages in primary education is mainly linked to misconceptions that mother tongue use in education adversely affect learning English, and that mother tongue in early years of schooling lays a weak educational foundation.

The economic value associated with English has placed the language on top of other languages and made learning it a priority at the expense of local languages (Hornberger & Vaish, 2009 cited in Burton, 2013). It is common knowledge that most language researches are directed towards English because of the incontestable importance of the language. Accounting this, Mackenzie (2009) maintained that even the shift of recent researches towards the use of L1 in the classroom remains to be greatly linked to attaining proficiency in English. This perspective simply highlights the prominence

afforded to English; thus, the preference for English comes not as a surprise. In fact, authors like Tanpoco, Rillo and Alieto (2019, p. 23) claimed that English has become the ‘*comfortable tongue*’ of the Filipinos.

These beliefs are considered myths (Orwenjo, 2012), which have caused people to shun their very own mother tongue (Ejeh, 2004). In addition, Tupas (2015) explained that these beliefs, ideas and attitudes are ideological challenges influencing the actions against the MTB-MLE implementation. Therefore, the need to determine the beliefs of parents toward the recent language shift is a must.

The Mother Tongue Education in the Philippines

Research Problems

This present study aims to determine the beliefs of parents toward *Chavacano*. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What is the belief of the respondents toward *Chavacano* as LoI?
2. Is there a significant difference in the beliefs of the respondents toward *Chavacano* as medium of instruction when data are grouped according to ethnicity and educational attainment?

H_o – There is no significant difference on the beliefs of the respondents towards *Chavacano* as MoI when data are grouped according to ethnicity and educational attainment.

Methodology

Research design

This investigation, which intended to derive empirical data to determine parents’ beliefs towards *Chavacano* and identify whether or not a significant difference on the beliefs of the respondents could be drawn across ethnicity and educational attainment, employs a descriptive-quantitative research design to realize mentioned ends. Johnson (2000 in Somblingo & Alieto, 2019) discussed that descriptive researches are of the goal of describing trends and phenomenons with the use simple statistics (Abdon et al., 2019). In addition, as regards the length of time utilized in the athering of data, this current investigation is determined to be cross-sectional because data collection was performed

within a relatively short period and done in ‘one shot’ (Setia, 2016 in Perez & Alieto, 2018a). Furthermore, data was gathered using a questionnaire which was claimed to be an effective approach as regards cost and time according to Dillman, Smith and Christian (2009 in Alieto, 2018). Addedly, the study is also noted to be non-experimental as no treatment, intervention nor establishment of a control group was done (Torres & Alieto, 2019a).

Participants of the study

This current investigation enlisted a total of 400 respondents. Sixty one percent of the respondents are females. The reason behind is that females were more willing to participate than males. Most males approached by the researchers declined to participate for one reason or another. In addition, the age range of the participants is 20-71 with mean age of 39.13 (Standard Deviation [SD] – 9.96). The high standard deviation suggests that the respondents were dispersedly distributed across the age range. Moreover, the selection of the respondents was realized through the employment of purposive sampling technique. Bernard (2002) discussed that purposive sampling is a nonrandom technique that does not need underlying theories or a set number of participants in which the researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience. Further, for the selection of respondents, inclusion and exclusion criteria were set to determine whether a student qualifies or otherwise. In this research the following inclusion and exclusion criteria were established: the inclusion criteria are: (1) the respondents must be parents with a child enrolled in Grades 1-3 class, and (2) the participants must be able to read and understand English. On the other hand, if a parent does not belong to any of the identified ethnic group (*Bisaya, Chavacano, Ilonggo or Tausug*), he/she could not be part of study.

Research tool

To measure the beliefs of the respondents towards the *Chavacano* as a medium of instruction, a quantitative approach was employed utilizing an adapted research tool which according to Ubalde and Rosales (2018 cited in Ricohermoso, Abequibel & Alieto, 2019) is a classic technique utilized in quantitative investigations (e.g. Torres & Alieto, 2019a; Torres & Alieto, 2019b; Buslon & Alieto, 2019). The original instrument was

named *Cognition Towards Mother Tongue Questionnaire* developed by Alieto (2018b). The adapted questionnaire was declared to have a reliability of Cronbach's Alpha = 0.94 which is characterized as 'excellent'. Originally, the research instrument was developed and used to determine the belief of pre-service teachers towards the use Mother Tongue in early education. With that, essential changes were made to render the tool appropriate for the respondents of the study. Moreover, it was renamed as Beliefs towards *Chavacano* as Medium of Instruction Questionnaire (BCMOIQ) composed of 22 items with six-point likert scale. Moreover, the questions were arranged alternately - whereas odd numbers were negative statements and even numbers were positive statements. The researchers omitted two questions relating to the respondents' willingness to teach in the MT and MT as a subject which is answerable with yes and no.

Pilot testing and reliability of the instrument

Conducting a pilot testing helps the researchers identify design flaws, refine data collection and analysis plans; gain experience with and train the research team; and assess recruitment processes (Beebe, 2007); thus, the adapted questionnaire was pilot tested to a total of 200 respondents not forming part of the final sample. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were considered in the selection of the participants of the pilot study. On the average, as recorded, the participants were able to answer the questionnaire within 20 minutes. In addition, the participants in the pilot tests were asked also questions that relate to the clarity of the statements and the directions. Minor concerns were expressed that point to the type of font size and font style used. The given suggestions were noted and considered in the final development of the questionnaire. In addition, the data from the pilot study were coded and analyzed for reliability using Cronbach's alpha. The analysis of the data found that the instrument's reliability is Cronbach's alpha = 0.870 which is noted as 'good' (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Procedure

After the development of the final form of the questionnaire, reproduction followed suit. Through the identified schools, letters were sent to parents informing about the present study and requesting their participation. Parents who consent to participate were provided with the questionnaire. The researchers personally administer the research

tools. Data collection lasted for about one week. All valid questionnaires were tabulated on Microsoft excel 2010 and computed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Method of analysis

Coding procedure

The responses of the respondents on the questionnaire were coded to qualify for analysis. The instrument contains positive and negative statements. For positive statements the coding is as follows: 1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for disagree slightly, 4 for agree slightly, 5 for agree and 6 for strongly agree. On the other hand, a reverse coding was used for the negative statements. To provide interpretation to the computed mean score, Table 1 is provided.

Table 1

Respondent's Belief Scale

| Range | Descriptor for Positive Statements | Descriptor for Negative Statements | Interpretation |
|-------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 5.15 – 6.00 | Strongly Agree | Strongly Disagree | Very Positive |
| 4.32 – 5.14 | Agree | Disagree | Positive |
| 3.49 – 4.31 | Agree Slightly | Disagree Slightly | Slightly Positive |
| 2.66 – 3.48 | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Slightly Negative |
| 1.83 – 2.65 | Disagree | Agree | Negative |
| 1.0 – 1.82 | Strongly Disagree | Strongly Agree | Very Negative |

In addition, the ethnic groupings were coded as follows: 1 for *Bisaya*, 2 for *Chavacano*, 3 for *Ilonggo* and 4 for *Tausug*. Moreover, for the educational attainment, the coding is as follows: 1 for Elementary (E), 2 for High School (H), 3 for College (C), and 4 for Postgraduate (P).

Statistical tools

To determine the beliefs of the respondents toward *Chavacano* as MoI, descriptive statistics (e.g. mean [M], standard deviation [SD]) were employed. On the other hand, for the determination of difference on the belief toward *Chavacano* as MoI across ethnic groupings and educational attainment, one-way analysis of variance (also known as one-way ANOVA) was employed.

Results and Discussions

Beliefs of Respondents towards MoI

In order to determine the respondents' belief towards MoI, the data were collated and descriptively analyzed. Table 2 provides the analysis and interpretation.

Table 2

Beliefs of Respondents towards MoI

| Variable | M | SD | Inter. |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------------------|
| Beliefs towards Chavacano as MoI | 4.124 | 0.767 | Slightly Positive |

Scale: 6.0-5.15 = very positive; 5.14-4.32 = positive; 4.31-3.49 = slightly positive 3.48-2.66 = slightly negative ;2.65- 1.83 = negative; and 1.82 -1.0 = very negative

It can be inferred from Table 2 that the respondents have a slightly positive belief towards *Chavacano* as a MoI as provided by the data (M = 4.124, SD = 0.767). This suggests that the respondents are yet to develop full positive acceptance towards *Chavacano* as MoI. This implies that parents across different ethnic groupings remain divided. Two speculations are provided as explanation for this result. One is that parents remain to be of the belief that the best language their children need to learn is English because it is the language best associated with educational success and work opportunity which was noted by Orwenjo (2012 in Perez & Alieto, 2018) to a common perspective among parents. As parents dream a better life for their children, they wanted them to have the kind that would provide them the best advantage. Sadly, parents are of a misconception that education realized in English, not in local language, is the best for their sons and daughters. On a similar vein, Tupas (2015 cited in Perez & Alieto, 2018)

explained that the belief that English is most sought after and the only language merchandisable in the world still prevail. This explains the preference of stakeholders to have their children educated in English. Another seen reason for this is the belief that local languages, such as *Chavacano*, are perceived to be linguistically limited Orwenjo (2012 in Perez & Alieto, 2018). This means that local languages are deemed as insufficient and could not be relied upon in the delivery of education. Meaning, local languages are considered incapable of delivering educational concepts. This creates doubt and reservations regarding the use of *Chavacano* as medium of instruction which is alluded to explain the result.

Significant difference of the Beliefs across Ethnicity

To determine the answer in question number 2: Is there a significant difference in the beliefs of the respondents toward *Chavacano* as MoI when data are grouped according to ethnicity, one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed. The analysis of the data is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Significant difference on the beliefs towards Chavacano as MoI across ethnic groupings

| Variables | | M | S.D. | Sig. | Inter. |
|--|---|------|------|-------|-------------|
| Beliefs towards Chavacano as MoI | B | 3.79 | 0.68 | 0.00* | Significant |
| | C | 4.15 | 0.70 | | |
| | I | 4.44 | 0.70 | | |
| | T | 4.12 | 0.85 | | |

Legend: Bisaya (B); Chavacano (C); Ilonggo (I); and Tausug (T)

**significant value=0.01*

The data presented in Table 3 disclosed that there is a significant difference in the respondents' belief towards *Chavacano* as evident in the result of *p-value*= 0.000 which is lesser than the *alpha value* 0.01. This means that the belief towards *Chavacano* as MoI significantly differs across cultural groupings. This further suggests that ethnicity is a factor influencing belief. This further implies that dissenting beliefs exist between and among ethnic groupings as regards the nomination of *Chavacano* as the language to be

used in schools to educate children coming from different ethnicities. To further probe the difference between and among groups, Post Hoc analysis using Tukey test was utilized to analyze the data set.

Post Hoc analysis on the different Beliefs of Parent across Ethnicities

To provide detailed analysis on the significant difference on the beliefs towards *Chavacano* across ethnicities, table 4 shows the result of the analysis of the data using Tukey test.

Table 4

Post Hoc analysis on the different beliefs of parents towards Chavacano as LoI across ethnicities

| Educational Attainment (I) | Educational Attainment (J) | Mean Difference | Sig | Inter. |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| B | C | -.355 | .004 | Significant |
| | I | .643 | .700 | Not Significant |
| C | I | .355 | .030 | Significant |
| | T | .032 | .029 | Significant |
| I | T | .321 | .512 | Not Significant |
| T | B | .322 | .311 | Not Significant |

Legend: Bisaya (B); Chavacano (C); Ilonggo (I); and Tausug (T)

From the results disclosed in table 4, it is found that there is a significant difference on the beliefs towards *Chavacano* as MoI between *Chavacano* and *Bisaya* (p-value [0.004] < alpha = 0.05; Mean Difference [MD] = -.0355), *Chavacano* and *Ilonggo* (p-value [0.030] < alpha = 0.05; MD = 0.355), *Chavacano* and *Tausug* (p-value [0.029] < alpha = 0.05; MD = 0.032) with *Chavacano* respondents consistently having better positive belief as provided by the mean difference. It may logically be inferred and believed that since, cultural heritage, indigenous language and identity are closely related, people would likely be favourable and possess positive beliefs towards the selection of their mother tongue as the medium of instruction as in the case of this result. The

Chavacano language is the language spoken by the Chabacano speakers (also *Chavacano*). Thus, as ‘owners’ of the language they are expected to favor the use of their own language in education. This relates to the claim of Waiko (1997) that language choice in education may cause division among groups. The group whose language is chosen is empowered while those not picked are rendered powerless (Mohanty, 1990). Therefore, choosing a language to serve as medium of instruction in a multilingual society is a make or break case; thus, it must be done carefully.

Significant difference of the Beliefs in terms of Educational Attainment

To answer research question number 3: Is there a significant difference on the beliefs of the parents toward *Chavacano* as MoI when data are grouped according to educational attainment, one-way ANOVA was utilized as statistical treatment. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Beliefs on Chavacano as MoI of the respondents across educational attainment

| Variables | | M | SD | Sig. | Inter. |
|----------------------------------|---|------|-----|------|-----------------|
| Beliefs towards Chavacano as LoI | E | 4.18 | .78 | .501 | Not Significant |
| | H | 4.03 | .73 | | |
| | C | 4.13 | .74 | | |
| | P | 4.16 | .82 | | |

Legend: Elementary (E), High School (H), College (C), Postgraduate (P)

The data (p-value [0.501] > alpha = 0.05) suggest that there is no significant difference on the beliefs of the respondents toward *Chavacano* as MoI. Further analysis of the data provides that respondents having elementary as educational status reported the ‘most positive belief’ (as suggested by the mean score) toward *Chavacano* as MoI. However, the difference noted between and among groups is not statistically significant. This means that the factor educational attainment is not an influencing variable on the investigated construct. It is supposed that the language shift, from English to *Chavacano*, is perceived by respondents, regardless of educational attainment, to be a change that needs to be afforded with chance; thus, anticipated with both an extent of positivity and

concerns. Moreover, it is speculated that the respondents across educational levels have not been introduced to conceptual discussions that favors the use of MT in early education. This underpins the importance of providing educational campaign to parents that promotes the use of MT. It is noted that the parents as essential stakeholders were disregarded or underserved as regards the dissemination of the rationale for the present language policy. It appears that the discussions relative to the use of MT have been limited to the academic spheres (mainly to teachers, educational administrators, curriculum planners among others) and have not been extended to parents – a negligence that could severely affect the successful implementation of the policy.

Conclusions and Recommendations

From the findings of the study, the following are reasonable conclusions to make:

1. Beliefs of parents towards *Chavacano* as MoI is not influenced by their educational attainment. Therefore, educational attainment is not a factor influencing difference on beliefs. It is supposed that the reason for the result is that parents across educational attainment were not exposed to discussion of educational ideas that provides the rationale on the use of MT. This is taken to support the claim in this study that parents are indeed neglected stakeholders as regards the implementation of the policy.

2. Parents as stakeholders are exhibiting limited positivity as regards the use of *Chavacano*, the lingua franca of the site in which the study was contextualized and the nominated MT. For the language policy to succeed, parents provide full support and assistance to the realization of the policy. However, as informed by studies and theories that beliefs are strong psychological constructs that influence actions and behaviors of people, it is speculated that full support from this sector could hardly be expected. This is a concern

that needs to be addressed the soonest possible time. The policy, being new and still at its critical period of implementation, requires the assistance and support from as many stakeholders as possible.

3. Ethnicity influences the beliefs of the parents toward *Chavacano* as MoI. The ethnic group whose language is chosen to be the language of education exhibit positive belief because it is a form of empowerment. On the other hand, those groups whose languages are not selected are disempowered. This idea relates to the concept of ethnic loyalty of

Ndhlovu (2010). Therefore, essential consideration should be given to ascertain that students' learn their own MT. This means that schools must allow Mother Tongues to take essential spaces in the curriculum and not only a MT. The practice of nominating the lingua franca to teach students from various linguistic backgrounds is in adherence to the 'one size fits all' paradigm which would not be beneficial as regards early education of children of different linguistic profiles. Although it is acknowledged that the financial implication led some educational systems to adopt the Lingua Franca model of mother tongue teaching, it could not be overemphasized that it would do more harm than good in the long run and proved to be more expensive – as learners were compromised because greater consideration was afforded to money.

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Effectiveness of Integrative Learning Model to Develop Student's Language Receptive Skills

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Abstract

Receptive language skills include listening and reading skill which is carried out partially even both have strong correlation. The aim of this study is to examine the integrative Learning Model in developing receptive language skills of Education of Indonesian Language student. Previously, receptive skills are taught separately as a sole language skill and the orientation of the teaching is emphasized on the learning achievement in general. The current study answers the gaps by which receptive skills are taught using multimodal teaching materials and integrated instructional design has been set to include receptive skills in various aspects. The effectiveness test was carried out using a quasi-experimental method for students who were taking receptive skills courses. The data of this study are pre-test and post-test of listening and reading. The data are analysed quantitatively by t-test using SPSS. The result shows a significant difference of the student score between before and after integrative learning ($0.000 < 0.05$) for listening and reading skills. It can be concluded that the integrative learning model was effective in increasing the receptive language skills of Indonesian Language Education student.

Keywords: *integrative learning, receptive language skills, listening, reading*

Introduction

Learning is a process of student interaction with educators and certain sources or teaching materials in the educational environment to achieve educational goals (Basuki, dkk. 2017). Instructional materials are essential and contribute a significant role in teaching and in learning of various subjects (Bulusan, 2019). According to Bulusan (2019) instructional materials promote teachers' efficiency and improves tudents' performance, and make learning more interesting, practical, realistic and appealing. Specifically, Bulusan (2019) emphasise that teaching materials enable teachers and students to participate actively and effectively in lesson sessions, providing room for acquisition of skills and knowledge and self-confidence.

No exception, teaching materials are prominent in learning the receptive skills of the first language. Pascual (2019) gives emphasis on potential of teaching materials and Bulusan (2019) promote the reading strategies in response to the teaching of receptive skills. Learning receptive language skills aims to develop student competence in capturing the meaning of various types of texts that are heard and read. The level of understanding of various types of texts can be distinguished based on the level of skills that must be achieved by students include (a) literal understanding skills, (b) interpretative skills, and (c) evaluation skills (Connell, 2009). Skills in understanding the literal meaning include skills in understanding basic meanings and understanding the meaning of context. Interpretative understanding includes the skill of capturing the meaning of anticipation, formulating conclusions, and making generalizations. Evaluation skills include the ability to distinguish between facts and opinions, select material that supports topics, use excessive words, and make emotional decisions in response to what is read (Cummings, 1999).

Pascual (2019) admits that reading strategies focus more on metacognitive, one's knowledge about his thinking processes and products, active monitoring, and regulation of cognitive processing activities. Basically, metacognition has four components, namely: 1) the knowledge of person's awareness or perceptions about the factors (i.e. person, task, strategy) influencing cognitive activities; 2) the experiences of individual's mental or emotional responses pertaining to any cognitive activity; 3) the

goals/tasks referring to the purpose or objective of any cognitive undertaking; and 4) the actions/strategies of activities carried out by learners to fulfil their purpose. If applied in reading, according to Pascual (2019) metacognitive strategies are those activities that make students aware of their thinking as they do reading tasks.

Listening and reading skills are categorized into receptive language skills because both listeners and readers try to understand the language used by the speaker or writer to capture the meaning or message. In this case, the listener and the reader do not simply accept the message conveyed by the speaker or writer. They strive to truly understand the verbal and nonverbal symbols used by speakers and writers to gain an in-depth understanding of the content or message (Tomlinson, 2011:2).

Although the cognitive processes carried out by the listeners and readers are the same, the learning of the two language skills is carried out separately (partially). In general, listening skills learning is specifically carried out to develop listening skill. Likewise, with reading skills learning, specifically implemented to develop reading skills. There are also those who perform integrative listening skill; however, they integrate listening skill with speaking skill instead of reading skill (Halliday & Hasan, 1985).

This research was conducted to test the effectiveness of the integrative learning model of receptive language skills to develop listening and reading skills of Indonesian Language Study Program students (Harsiati, 2018). The model has been developed at the previous research stage, so this research is a continuation of previous research that has resulted in an integrative learning model. Affectivity test of the integrative learning model is necessary so the hypothetic model can be developed and implemented in the learning process.

This research is important to overcome the limitation of the receptive language skills model for Education of Indonesian Language student. This is consistent with the learning outcome that should be met by Education of Indonesian Language student which include mastering theoretical concept of receptive Indonesian language skill, proficient in Indonesian Language both verbal and writing in daily/general, academic, and work. Relevant, effective, and efficient learning model is necessary to satisfy the learning outcome. However, the existing model is still fragmented, thus it is not efficient and cannot contribute to each other.

Learning receptive Indonesian language skills is a new course. Listening and reading skills are two language aspects that exist for so long. However, those two skills will be merge into one new course of receptive language skill as a trial to find the effective and efficient model (Nurhadi, 2002; Yamin, 2011)).

Drawing the results in context, this study answers the gaps in two reasons. First, the integrative learning model can facilitate students and lecturers in developing listening and reading skills effectively and efficiently. Through this integrative learning model, learning is more effective, efficient, and meaningful for students. Second, receptive skills receive teaching approaches that are teachings techniques focus on the sole language skills where listening and reading are not emphasized to improve the achievement on receptive skills. In addition, the orientation of the teaching is focused mere on the learning achievement of the end of materials. The current study provides evidences that receptive skills are taught using multimodal teaching materials and integrated instructional design has been set to include receptive skills in various aspects. In other words, gaps on research of receptive skills in bahasa Indonesia have been answered through the implementation of integrated teaching materials to focus on receptive skills improvement this resent study has promoted.

Literature Review

Learning Objectives for Receptive Language Skills

The curriculum of higher education has been refined adjusting the demand of Indonesian National Qualification Framework (KKNI/Perpres Number 8 of 2012) and National Higher Education Standards (Minister of Research, Technology and Higher Education Regulation Number 44 of 2015; Regulation of the Minister of Research, Technology and Education High Number 5, 0 Year 2019). Referring to KKNI, Minister of Research, Technology, and Higher Education Regulations, as well as the formulation of learning outcomes from the deliberations of the Indonesian Language Study Program Association, the profile and learning outcomes of each study program are formulated.

Based on the learning outcomes, the standard competencies of graduates of undergraduate programs in the aspects of knowledge include, "mastering the basic concepts of language and literature, language and literature skills, language and literature learning, language and literature research, as well as research in language and literature

education. "; while one of the competency standards for graduates of specific skills aspects is, "able to speak and write Indonesian literature, verbally and in writing in everyday/public, academic, and occupational contexts; and able to use one of the regional languages " .

Based on the achievement of these specific skills, the formulation of the receptive language skills course in the Indonesian Language Education study program is to master the basic concepts of listening and reading skills, and be able to apply them in listening and reading for various purposes, both in formal and informal situations. The formulation of the subject achievement implies that the learning outcomes that must be mastered by students include the knowledge and skills of listening and reading.

Knowledge that must be mastered by students includes the basic concepts of listening and reading, the level of listening and reading skills, and the factors that determine the success of listening and reading. Listening skills are aspects of the skills of using language to capture, understand, study, evaluate, and create the content of information or messages conveyed by speakers using spoken language. Not much different from listening skills, reading skills are aspects of the skills of using language to capture, understand, examine, evaluate, and create the content of information or messages conveyed by writers using written language. In addition, the formulation of the course achievements also implies the scope of the content or learning materials for receptive language skills, which includes knowledge and aspects of listening and reading skills.

Teaching Materials for Receptive Language Skills

Teaching material is the content or learning material used by educators or students to facilitate learning (Nurhadi, 2002; Subroto, Jazadi &Mahyuni, 2019). The teaching material can be in the form of facts, concepts, principles, laws, procedures, and practices that can be poured into video, DVD, e-mail, You Tube, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, worksheets or photocopies of notes. Teaching materials can also be in the form of newspapers, food packages, photos, direct speech by native speakers of a language, teacher's speech or explanation, written assignments, group discussions directly between students (Tomlinson, 2011:2). The same thing also stated by the Directorate of Middle School (2006:4) that teaching materials are instructional materials in the form of

knowledge (facts, concepts, principles, procedures), skills, and attitudes that students must learn in order to develop certain competencies which have been set.

According to Subroto, Jazadi & Mayhyuni (2019), teaching materials included types of material facts are names of objects, historical events, symbols, place names, names of people, animals as the main concept. In the concept material, there is the understanding, definition, special features, components or parts of an object. Included in the principle material are the propositions, formulas, adage, postulates, theorems, or relationships between concepts that describe relationships, for example if, then ..., formulas etc. The material type of procedure is teaching material relating to the steps in a systematic or sequential manner in carrying out a task. For example, steps to operate microscopic equipment, how to care for orchids, how to make drinks, and so on. Finally, teaching materials have been set and government has set standards for publication or production of textbooks and the criteria for good textbooks. However, studies still identify multiple issues in Indonesian textbooks. Recent studies on textbook analysis in Indonesia have mainly focused on analysis of textbooks in relation to teaching activities (Subroto, Jazadi & Mahyuni, 2019).

Material skills is a practice to do something. In listening learning, listening skill material is in the form of practical activities directly listens to verbal utterances for various purposes. Likewise, the material for learning speaking skills is in the form of speaking practices for various purposes in various contexts (Tomlinson, 2011). Listening and speaking learning material can be obtained from various learning sources. Learning resources that can be utilized to develop listening and reading teaching materials include written text, audio, visual, audiovisual, digital, kinaesthetic (multimodal text). Other modes (other than print) can be in the form of text visualization and / or other sensory responses; dramatization; reflection of understanding by making other forms of text: oral, written, audio, visual, audio visual, kinaesthetic (DitjenDikdasmen, 2018).

Receptive Language Skills Learning Strategies

There are several views about language learning. Some are of the view that language learning is a process that occurs sequentially, starting from learning to master spoken language (listening and speaking) followed by learning written language (reading and writing). Based on this view, language learning always starts with the activity of

providing and presenting texts that are designed orally to be listened to students in the hope that they can be understood and then students imitate them to learn speaking skills. On the other hand, there is a view that listening is learned together (one level) by learning other language skills, namely speaking, reading, and writing. According to the second view that the four language skills interact with each other. Therefore, the four language skills must be taught together (Rivers in Gazali, 2010:168-169).

Besides these two opinions, the third opinion states that listening is the main source and linguistic input that activates the language learning process (understanding approach and natural approach). According to this view, in learning, students must be able to understand and process spoken language first before developing speaking skills. This process is called the creative construction process (Littlewood, 1984).

The difference between the two learning models lies in the cognitive process experienced by students as well as the activities carried out by educators. In the creative construction model, educators tend to act as facilitators who act to facilitate students to construct their understanding and speaking skills by providing contexts that allow students to gain knowledge and experience first-hand language activities. This can be seen from the learning syntax, which starts from (1) providing input in the form of direct experience of language activities (exposures), (2) internal processing by students, (3) preparation of the language system by students, and spontaneous outflow of utterances. The difference with the skill learning model lies in the role of the educator, namely in this model students must provide and arrange language input to be learned by students, the context of language use is limited in class. In terms of learning procedures there are also differences, which can be seen from the syntax of learning, which starts from (1) providing language input from educators, (2) language activities in the classroom, (3) creating a language system in students, and (4) spontaneous release of utterances.

The activity is also supported by the activity of generating students' schemata to utilize the knowledge they must understand new knowledge that must be understood in the text that is listened to or read. That knowledge is called as a schemata. This is in accordance with Piaget's opinion (in Nurbaya, 2016). According to Piaget, a schemata is a person's cognitive structure in the form of perceptions, ideas and actions that are used as a basis for understanding new knowledge.

The formation of the scheme requires the support of the ability to carry out assimilation and accommodation. The assimilation ability is needed by someone to capture new knowledge to be processed into the existing cognitive system. After being assimilated, a new schemata is formed so that it can be used to understand the next new knowledge (Rymes, 2008).

Methods

This study aims to test the effectiveness of integrative learning models to develop receptive language skills of Indonesian Language Education study program students. The product is in the form of models that have been tested for effectiveness have been developed in previous research activities. Products that have been developed need to be tested for effectiveness in developing students' listening and reading skills (Eriyanti, 2011). In accordance with the stated research objectives, the effectiveness test of integrative learning models is carried out using the Quasi Experiment method for Indonesian Language Study Program students. The subjects of this study were 22 semester 1 students who were taking receptive language skills courses.

This research data in the form of listening and reading skills scores achieved by students before the learning of receptive language skills and score achieved after carrying out learning of receptive language skills with an integrative learning model. The data was obtained through oral and written test techniques.

The data collected is corrected and assessed so that the achievement scores of listening and reading skills are obtained. Furthermore, the listening skills scores obtained before learning are compared with the scores obtained after the implementation of learning to find out the differences. Likewise, the reading skills scores are achieved by students before and after the application of integrative learning models.

Results and Discussion

Learning receptive language skills includes listening and reading skills. Both types of skills have the same characteristics, although there are some differences. In common, both are receptive skills. The difference lies in the type of text understood. Listening skills are skills in understanding oral texts, while reading is a skill in understanding written texts.

Based on these similarities, an integrative learning model was developed. The integrative learning model has learning procedures 1) general orientation, 2) stimulation, 3) text reception, 4) development of oral and written reception skills, 5) knowledge construction, and 6) reinforcement and assessment.

In the general orientation phase, learning is focused on the formation of schemata of students towards what will be learned. Schemata generation of students can be done by forming initial knowledge, activating initial knowledge, and focusing students' attention on what will be listened to or read. The schemata generation of students is intended to help students connect the knowledge to be learned with the knowledge they have to form a link.

If the schemata have been built, presented stimulation in the form of oral text in the form of audio, audio visual, written text, visuals (graphs, charts) called multimodal in various contexts. The forms of the text are presented alternately according to the level of difficulty of the text. At this time, students are facilitated to recognize the purpose of reading or listening, making predictions of the contents of the text, and making various questions themselves about the contents of the text or understanding questions about the contents of the text that has been provided.

The text reception stage is the intensive reading (multimodal) of the text presented. When reading, students focus attention and ability to answer questions about the contents of the text to obtain literal, inferential, and critical understanding of the content of the text. Students are facilitated to identify and capture the meaning / content of the text, visualize the contents of the text, identify and interpret vocabulary, terms that are considered difficult, examine the contents of the text, make conclusions on the main contents of the text, and make a concept map of the contents of the text, and assess the contents text (multimodal). This activity can be done in an integrated oral receptive (listening) and written (reading) skill.

At the stage of developing receptive skills, the activities undertaken are facilitating students to develop their verbal or written reception skills in the form of creative activities. The form of activities carried out can include making a summary of the contents of the text, reviewing the text, modifying the text, changing the form of text to another form of text, and presenting the text.

Knowledge construction activities about the text include an understanding of the structure and language of various forms of text, as well as the level of understanding of the text. The form of activities carried out includes studying the text that has been listened to and or read. Learners are facilitated to study the structure and language of the text. Next, it can facilitate to understand the levels of understanding of the text.

At the stage of strengthening and evaluating activities focused on reaffirming what students have learned and assessment of the process and student learning outcomes. At this stage a follow-up was also carried out, namely delivering structured assignment activities as reinforcement material.

The Effectiveness of the Integrative Learning Model of Receptive Language Skills to Improve Listening Skills

The effectiveness test of the Integrated Receptive Language Skills Learning Model has been carried out on 22 subjects who learn receptive language skills. Before the treatment of the subject, first a pre-test is held to map the initial ability possessed by students. After the pre-test is carried out, the treatment is carried out in the form of learning activities by applying the Integrative Learning Model for Receptive Language Skills.

After the implementation of learning, an assessment of multimodal text understanding is carried out. The assessment was conducted to measure the achievement of listening skills of Indonesian Language Education study program students using multimodal texts.

Independent Samples Test

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|---------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| Nilai | Equal variances assumed | 5.342 | .026 | -11.208 | 42 | .000 | -18.636 | 1.663 | -21.992 | -15.281 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -11.208 | 32.008 | .000 | -18.636 | 1.663 | -22.023 | -15.250 |

```
COMPUTE t_table=idf.t(0.95,43).
EXECUTE.
```

table, it is known that $t\text{-count } 11.208 > t\text{-table } 1.78$, which means the average pre-test value is

lower than the average post-test value. Because the value of t is negative, that is, the average

pre-test value is lower than the post-test average value. Thus it can be concluded that the Integrative Learning Model of Receptive Language Skills is effective in increasing the listening skills of students of Indonesian Language Study programs.

The Effectiveness of the Integrative Learning Model of Receptive Language Skills to Improve Reading Skills

The effectiveness test of the Integrative Learning Model Receptive Language Skills is conducted on 22 subjects who are learning receptive language skills. Before the treatment of the subject, a pre-test is held to map the stock or the initial ability possessed by students. After the pre-test, the treatment was carried out in the form of learning activities by applying the Integrative Learning Model for Receptive Language Skills.

After the implementation of learning, an understanding of multimodal written text is assessed. The assessment was conducted to measure the achievement of listening skills of Indonesian Language Education study program students using multimodal texts.

The results of data analysis show that the significance value is $0,000 < 0,05$, meaning that H_1 was accepted. That means there are differences in the reading skills scores achieved by students before the application of integrative learning and after the implementation of integrative learning. Judging from the comparison of the acquisition of t arithmetic and t table, it is known that $t\text{-count } 11.003 > t\text{-table } 1.72$, which means the average pre-test value is lower than the average post-test value. Because the value of t is negative, that is, the average pre-test value is lower than the post-test average value. Thus, it can be concluded that the Integrative Learning Model of Receptive Language Skills is effective in increasing the reading skills of students of Indonesian Language Study programs.

The results of this study indicate that the Integrative Learning Model of Receptive Language Skills is effective for improving students' receptive language skills, namely listening and reading skills. This was evidenced from the results of the analysis of the

achievement of listening and reading skills scores achieved by students after learning with integrative models was higher than before learning with integrative models.

The results of the study are in accordance with the characteristics of integrated learning, which is holistic so students can understand things from several sides. The experience makes their learning process meaningful because it suits the real-life context. The task of educators is to help facilitate and provide student assistance to learn new knowledge that must be mastered (Piaget in Prastowo, 2014; Vygotsky in Slavin, 1997).

The results of this study are also relevant to the results of Maming's research for reading comprehension skills. The results of the study indicate an increase in student ability after applying integrated learning (Litera, Volume 18, Number 2, July 2019).

Integrated learning enables authentic student understanding, in accordance with reality in daily life. This is in accordance with the view of constructivism (Vygotsky in Trianto, 2007) that through integrated learning, students can gain knowledge from direct experience. Learners can develop their ability to construct knowledge based on experiences they have gained in the real world.

Conclusion

This study developed an integrative learning model to improve the receptive language skills of Indonesian Language Study Program students. Receptive skills studied include listening and reading skills. The results of this study concluded that the integrative learning model effectively improved listening and reading skills of Indonesian Language Study Program students.

In accordance with the results of this study, it is recommended to the lecturers of Receptive Language Skills courses to apply integrative learning models in the implementation of learning. It can provide direct experience to students so that learning is more meaningful. In addition with integrative learning can save learning time the results of this study can also be used by authors of teaching materials as a basis for consideration and reference for developing integrative teaching materials for learning receptive language skills. For further researchers, it can carry out research on integrative learning media to complement the results of this study.

Pedagogical Implication

Integrative Learning Model has been developed to improve receptive skills for college students for the course of bahasa Indonesia focusing on listening and reading skills. The effectiveness of the model has been proven and evidences significantly show that listening and reading skills are the receptive skills in bahasa Indonesia that are adaptable to the model. This implies that teaching native language using this Integrative Model contributes significant achievement and pedagogically recommended for college level.

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The Effect of ‘Out-of-Class’ Activity on Students’ Lexical Competence and Enthusiasm in Learning EFL at Ampenan Primary School

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Abstract

The present study is aimed at identifying the role of activities performed by students after a classroom session on the student’s ability in English vocabulary and on their inner motivation to learn English. Numerous forms of out-of-class activities are used as a theoretical concept and mixed method is used as methodological framework. The study was conducted at Ampenan primary school where English was talked as an additional subject learned from year four to year six. Thirty students participating in English Club Class were drawn as pre-experimental samples with one group pretest-posttest design. The use of this design was to determine the accurate effect of intervention or the out-of-class program on students’ lexical competence and enthusiasm of a given sample, therefore, there was not a controlled group as a comparison. In pre-test, multiple choice vocabulary test was administered before implementing out-of-class programs. In post-test a similar multiple choice test and a learning enthusiasm inventory were used. Differences between pre-test and post-test results were measured using Spearman Ordered Computation. The analysis shows weak lexical competence prior to out-of-class programs implementation. Meanwhile, the implementation of learning enthusiasm

inventory results and interviews with students report that there are two factors were indicated influencing the success of the activities. First, it came from students' own learning. Second, it came from the problem solving tasks conducted into the activities. The interactive and familiar words used during the activities indicated that students easily caught the idea of a teacher's instructions in the activities. By incorporating the activities with the technology and other sources of teaching and learning, students confirmed that they were more motivated and encouraged in learning in the classroom and outside the classroom or school. Moreover, students also revealed if enthusiasm helped them more focused on the process of vocabulary acquisition.

Keywords: *Out-of-Class Activity, Students' Lexical Competence, Enthusiasm.*

Introduction

The success of teaching and learning process, especially in teaching EFL/ESL is significantly determined by two things, what occurs from the classroom and what occurs outside the classroom. This is revealed by Richards (2015) in saying that the limits of the 'affordance' of the language learning in the classroom are indirectly given the other chances for the students to access greater sources outside the classroom such as the internet, technology, media, and the use of English face to face, and also social networks. Waite and Rea (2007, p. 52) liken these phenomena interchangeable with the tendency of the adults' memorable moments to the events from their childhood, which particularly include the references of the outdoor activity. This is the same as when the pupils learn the language, as Sundqvist (2011) argues that when young people have skills in English, it is clearly affected by the activity they engage in English outside the classroom. Further substantial statements can be seen from the summary of the research agenda speech by Reinders (in Reinders and Benson, 2017, p. 561-678).

"The majority of language learners do not necessary go through a formal course of formal structured to the pathway to acquire whatever language they want to acquire, for the reason they want to acquire and up to the level that they want to acquire. A lot of people learn languages for fun, to go on holidays, to watch tv, understand the song lyrics, and play computer games. As learners, even if we are taking a course, most of the thinking,

the processing, the practicing, and the using of the language take place outside the classroom. Most of our identity as a user of a new language is shaped to our experiences outside the classroom”

With the development of the technology and the access of the internet easily in time, these phenomena particularly change the way people learn when the learning only relies on the school curriculum. The students can access many sources they want to learn or even what they like. However, Reinders (2017) notes that the presence of the learning beyond the classroom does not replace the curriculum, on the other hand as the extension of the learning in the classroom. This means that the paramount thing can be underlined here is without positive inputs from the teacher and the students, the learning outcomes might be ineffective. As Ellies (1997, p. 25) claims that the acquisition of the L2 learners are basically dealing with the input-based instruction (i.e. no matter where it is derived). When the school requires L2 achievement, not only the teacher but in particular the student will obviously find their own strategies to make the language learning successful and easy (Weda, et al., 2018, p. 160). As one example, consider of EFL/ESL goal which requires the L2 learners in communicative competence, the level of the lexical competence of each learner determines the success of the language learning. In this case, the insufficiency of the vocabulary knowledge is constantly as an obstacle to learning (Mubeen, et al., 2014; Alqahtani, 2015).

Vocabulary is an essential aspect of learning. Students’ comprehension of the subject matters (i.e. listening, reading, speaking, and writing) is commonly considered by how many words they master (Nation, 2005). Richards in his discussion with Cambridge ELT’s Press in 2012 says that ‘...for the intermediate students, they need to master around 3 to 4 thousand words.’ This means, to make a good condition of learning, EFL children have to master lexical knowledge approximately 500 words a year (Cameron, 2005, p. 75).

Many issues relate to the students’ lacks vocabulary. Alqahtani (2015, p. 21) indicates that some of the problems concern to how the teachers manage the best practice and strategy in teaching vocabulary. Guo (2011, p. 246) says that the context of learning determines the success of the teaching and learning process. These phenomena can be seen from the existence of the use of conventional ways in teaching vocabulary at the

public schools which indirectly determines and influences students' productivity in the class. The poverty facilities of the teachers might be the main cause of these inequality outcomes in learning EFL (Pachler and Redondo, 2007; Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2017). In this matter, the teacher's role has a crucial part of language learning.

Out of class learning gives the student benefits how to think critically and solve the problem. Ferdous (2013, p. 4) in his study says that the development of students' interest in learning should be out of the box, it is not only focused on the classroom activities which block those learners' potential to think out of the box, but also to use the language properly related to their experiences and daily lives. Pupils who taught explicitly inside the classroom would not be able to expand their abilities outside the classroom. They are perhaps easier to catch out the process in the classroom, but have many difficulties in its implementation to the real world. On the contrary, students who do the activity outside the classroom consciously will easily understand the learning material. Additionally, the students become more enthusiastic in the teaching and learning both inside and outside the classroom.

Regular class and out-of-class activity are two different systems in the teaching and learning process. Longer than the prevalent of teaching hour makes pupils free to explore their knowledge out of the regular study, or even catch the activity fast. The mixture of the materials to what current technology spoiled the younger generation (i.e. television, youtube, music, social media, digital games, etc.) obviously makes learning become more impressing. The variety of the activities such as creating different types of the activity's topics based on the students' experiences can serve more confidence as well (Lai, et al., 2014, p. 28). The students feel more joyful and practical if they improve their vocabulary by learning new words in a real-life setting. On the other hand, through this activity, pupils also become more aware to bring their second language environment as in their first language environment.

There are two benefits pupils can enhance from the implementation of out-of-class activity, their social skills and self-confidence (Sheerman, et al., 2005, p. 7). Nevertheless, Guo (2011, p. 253) says from the out-of-class activity, students can also enrich their awareness of their English in their local context. He adds up that students can also add to the degree of their autonomy learning. One program which supports the learning English outside the classroom is to incorporate it into the course which involves an assignment or

homework or fieldwork project on its process (Baker, 2004, p. 84). Furthermore, in this research, my focus is to examine whether out-of-class activity affects students' lexical competence and whether out-of-class activity encourages students' enthusiasm in learning EFL at Ampenan Primary School.

Research Questions

Based on the background, two research questions for the study are formulated as follows:

1. Is the out-of-class activity effective to improve students' English lexical competence ?
2. How do students of Ampenan Primary School perceive the out-of-class activity ?

Research Objectives

The research objectives are in the following:

1. To find out the effect of the out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence.
2. To investigate students' perceptions about the out-of-class activity.

Research Scopes

This study is focused on the effect of out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence, enthusiasm and students' perceptions about the activity. The activity involves students of grade four of the English Club at Ampenan Primary School in the second semester.

Review of Literature

Types Out-of-Class Learning

Holec (in Nunan, 2003, p. 193) defines the out-of-class activity is 'the ability to take charge of one's own learning.' Learners have to take charge of their own learning when directed to linguistic activities. People (i.e. young and adult learners) can have any types of activity with the English outside the classroom wall (Sundqvist, 2011, p. 107). Richards (2015) in his webinar at Cambridge University Press said the activity relates to the opportunity for each student to gain some other references of learning from online sources. The social media, listening to songs, watching movies, clips, and so forth have

been indicated as the common ways of the learners' outside activities (Sargsyan and Kurghinyan, 2016, p. 29). On the other hand, the activities such as fieldwork and outdoor visits, outdoor adventure education, and school grounds/ community project can also be implemented as the types of outdoor learning/ activities (Rickinson, et al., 2004; Waite and Rea, 2007; Waite and Sue, 2011; Paris and Doyle, 2012).

There are many terms that can be used when talking about learning beyond the classroom. In discussing the scope of the field, Benson (2011, p. 9-12) distinguishes the term of learning beyond the classroom inclusively. These terms are divided into four dimensions; location, formality, pedagogy, and locus of control. The brief description is in the following:

Table 1. Dimension of Learning Beyond the Classroom

| Dimension | Description | Terms |
|------------------|---|--|
| Location | Where and when the learning takes place. | Out-of-class, after class, extra-curricular, self-access, out-of-school, distance. |
| Formality | The degree to which learning is linked to educational qualifications or structured by educational institutions. | Informal, non-formal, naturalistic. |
| Pedagogy | The degree to which teaching is involved. | Non-instructed, self-instructed. |
| Locus of control | How decisions are distributed between the learner and others. | Autonomous, independent, self-regulated. |

From the terms model of the learning beyond the classroom above, Reinders and Benson (2017) emphasize that to decrease the complexities of each dimension, the location is essential to be a core of the activity. Then, it is followed by identifying whether the learning is informal, non-formal, naturalistic, self-instructed, non-instructed, autonomous, independent, and self-regulated. Reinders and Benson also specify the dimensions of learning beyond the classroom as same as Lai, Zhu, and Gong (2014) that the dimension should be considered into four factors such as *variety of the activities* and *meaning focused, mediation* (i.e. resources used; materials, authentic texts, technologies, etc.), *sociality* (i.e. the social relationships and networks in the learning process), *modality* (i.e. language study or language use; reading, listening, spoken, or written interaction), and *linguistic* (i.e. language skills and levels of language competence). Moreover, the additional dimensions can be characterized when it faces to the learning process. First, learning can be intentional or incidental (i.e. attention focused with language learning as a product). Second, the learning can be implied explicit (i.e. adds to learners' conscious knowledge) or implicit (i.e. adds to the skills below the level of conscious awareness). Third, the learning can be implied to inductive (i.e. inferencing general rules from specific instances) or deductive (applying general rules to specific instances). Furthermore, the focus model of learning beyond the classroom is essentially taking part of the dynamic and interactive manner between the teachers and students in the teaching and learning. The progress of every individual learner is taking important role in their learning development (Reinders and Benson, 2017).

Learner Autonomy

Holec (1981) began the notion of learner *autonomy* or *self-instruction* or *independence* as the need of people's ability to take charge of their own learning. The learner is likened to have a capacity to learn without active encouragement from a social process or teacher (Thanasoulas, 2000, p. 1). In this sense, the autonomous learners can freely apply their knowledge and skill outside the context of learning (Little, 1991). Yet, it is not just the opportunity for learning, but also students' attitude and society (Hyland, 2008, p. 197). Learners who are able to play this kind of active role in their own learning, whether at home, with parents, or social life will be more aware to develop their self-access learning, such as planning, implementation, and evaluation. For the attitude,

learners probably more motivated themselves to look up other sources related to the subject matter, or to use the appropriate words of the target language as same as their mother tongue likely in real life setting. Little (1991, p. 15) argues that a child cognitive development is more desirable driven by active problem solving. According to Smith (2008, p. 395), the autonomy indeed has given the ownership interest of the widening access to the education and promoting the lifelong learning. Children become more independent when teacher creates the learning or involves the learner to actively participate, or relates the materials based on the problem solving tasks.

Students' Learning and Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm refers to a key determinant for students' performance (Alfa and Karim, 2016). In regards with out-of-class activity, enthusiasm takes part both to the teaching and learning process, particularly when teachers want to create an effective learning (Brett and Lisa, 2014, p. 22).

Effective learning is often measured by what teaching strategies teachers used. A successful teacher usually reflects to the learner outcomes, a good learner as well. These two phenomena are characterized by two dimensions, teacher enthusiasm and student learning. *Teacher's enthusiasm* refers to the teacher's behaviour in delivering learning. What students' achieve from what teachers have delivered, called *student learning* (Keller, et. al., 2013).

Teachers' enthusiasm

According to Keller et al (2013, p. 247-249) there are three types of enthusiasm behaviours to create active learning; teacher's expressiveness, praise, and the types questions teachers use in the classroom. From the three indicators of the types of behaviours, teacher's expressive positively influence students' enthusiasm in the course. Sanders (1985, p. 41) also points out that the integration of non-verbal behaviours in the teaching may reinforce and support the verbal behaviours. Thus, the teacher in this case should be aware and trained in order to help the students to display the academic growth (Hartung, 2014, p. 18). The teacher should understand that a positive attitude and feeling can indirectly affect their students' emotional contagion. According to Sanders (1985, p. 42-43), there are seven dimensions that can be used to support enthusiastic teaching; *eye*

contact, facial expressions, gestures, body movements, word selection, vocal delivery, and energy level. Those seven of enthusiastic teaching dimensions are explained as follows:

- a. Eye contact. Eye contact is an attending behaviour. It is not staring. The teacher looks directly at the learners and not over their head, or ceiling, floor or any other objects. This action purposes to focus the attention on himself/herself, and the content of the delivery.
- b. Facial expressions. Facial expressions include smiles, frown, winces, grimaces, squinting, or wrinkling one's forehead or nose. The purpose of these facial expressions is to focus learners' attention, and to reinforce the verbal messages and communicate meaning.
- c. Gestures. Gestures include hands movement, arms, or head that together releases the verbal messages. This expression purposes to express the idea or emotion, and controlling the participation (i.e. signalling, pointing, shaping, describing, and so forth). The teacher's task is to interpret the gestures into meaning, at the same to inspire the learners.
- d. Body movements. It refers to the general body motion and both instructional motion and personal motion. For the instructional motion, audio-visual materials, turning a page in a book, writing on the whiteboard, or in flipchart, are used. For the personal manner, it relates to the movements that are intended doing the learning process, such as adjusting one's person clothing.
- e. Word selection. Generally, word selection includes action words, descriptive phrases, adjectives, positive stated combinations, great variety, clarity of expression, and use of metaphor and simile. This is meant to contribute greatly to an enthusiastic delivery of a particular content.
- f. Vocal delivery. Vocal delivery refers to pitch, pace, cadence, volume, articulations, and tone of the verbal presentation. These actions are aimed to contribute both the understanding of the content and maintaining the attention, stimulating interest, and encouraging participation.
- g. Energy level. Energy level refers to the overall level of mobility variations in voice, and degree of animation or amount of dynamism. Dynamism speakers delivered presentations from memory, with extensive use of gesturing, eye contact, vocal

inflection, and animation. Overall, this study is not only to contribute the attention, but also a retention.

Students' learning

Teacher's enthusiasm and student's learning are two inseparable part of students' achievement. They are reciprocal. When becomes achievable, the influence of enthusiasm is directed into two folds; first, teacher's non-verbal part has given a positive effect upon students' attention, whereas, the enthusiastic teacher sets as a role model in encouraging enjoyment and engagement, particularly for students' motivation and academic emotion. From the teacher's enthusiasm, students can adopt the teacher's attitude (i.e. enjoyment and enthusiastic). Students can focus more on what a particular subject demonstrates, in other words, students foster to motivate and learn when confronting with a new subject matter of the study (Keller, et al., 2013, p. 248).

The Process of English Out-of-Class Activitiy

Considering some risks of younger learners to explore the out of class learning. English teacher has created out-of-class activity related to the current situation and condition. The activity is conducted outside the classroom (i.e. out of students' permanent classroom and on the school ground). The activity underlies to one-way learning where the student has prepared their own learning before release the activity. For detail explanation about the activity, the guidelines can be seen as follows:

- a. Teacher gives the information about what topic students will follow up for the next day (e.g. visiting the school's library). This activity is purposed to motivate students to search certain words of 'library'.
- b. Teacher indirectly guides the learners to prepare themselves regarding with the subject of the activity. Here teacher stimulates the learners about some steps of the activity (e.g. game, presentation, and reward).
- c. To minimize the chaos during the activity, the teacher divides the class into five groups discussions where each includes five members and one leader.
- d. On the day of the course, the teacher gives one paper to each of the group leaders. Each member should participate by collecting at least two words related with the theme and write down on a paper given.

- e. After collecting the data, the teacher gives another cut of paper of each member and ask them to write words related to what they have gotten.
- f. For the presentation, a group who volunteers come forward to the presentation will be given a reward after the activity. Meanwhile, every representative from each group should present their results as well.
- g. During the presentation, every representative and the other students should repeat the words explained by their friend. The repetition would probably practice their pronunciation.
- h. Teacher develops the activity by exploring teaching the words in a simple form sentence (e.g. *I have two books, there is a globe, it is a brown table*, etc.). To test the students' memory of words, teacher can explore the teaching and learning by stimulating the learners' memory by asking some questions related to what have been illustrated.
- i. The other learners have to note what other groups have found in their own vocabulary list. The list of vocabulary paper will be given by the teacher.

In the activity, students beside have to do every activity, they should be able to present their results in front of their friends. This activity leads students to be more active, brave, self-confident, and appreciated each other. On the other hand, students perhaps more enthusiastic to find any sources for the next activities.

The Hypotheses

There are two hypotheses raised in this research:

H_a = There is an effect of out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence in learning EFL at Ampenan Primary School.

H_o = There is no effect of out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence in learning EFL at Ampenan Primary School.

Methodology

Research Design

The study was integrated into the mixed methods approach. According to Creswell (2009, p. 5), mixed methods is an approach which employs both quantitative

and qualitative methods. Considering the timing, weighing, and mixing, in the present study, *sequential explanatory* design was used. The model of the study consists of two phases, where at the first phase, quantitative data collection and analysis are applied. In the second, it is followed by qualitative data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2012). In the quantitative methods, in pre-experiment one group *pretest-posttest design*, the treatment was held twice a week with different topics and venues. The data were collected by applying the multiple choice test. Its purposes to obtain whether the out-of-class activity affects students' lexical competence before and after the treatments. Vice versa, for the qualitative method, the likert scale questionnaire and open-ended interview questions were used. The intention of this implementation to attain students' perspective about how the out-of-class activity affected themselves in learning and using the new words outside the classroom. Creswell (in Creswell et al., 2003) describes that in the final of data collection, the study will be embedding the secondary data (qualitative) to the primary data (quantitative) in single study. The secondary database result has the role to support the primary data.

Population and Sample

The population of this study were all of the English Club Class at Ampenan Primary School from year four to year six. Considering the available time, for the quantitative sample, this research was used *disproportionate stratified random sampling techniques*. This technique was aimed to know a particular effect of the study in smaller groups or strata (i.e. age and gender). The participants were taken from ECC students of grade four a, b, and c which consisted of 30 students including 7 male students and 23 female students aged 9 to 11 years old in the same proficiency levels. For a sample of qualitative data in the second phase, this research was used *purposive sampling techniques*, where from the previous sample, the participants were determined regarding to each student final score, from lower to higher.

Data Collection Method and Research Instrument

The data were obtained in two phases. In the first phase, the quantitative data collecting was implemented. The data were collected by implementing a multiple choice test. The test of multiple choice was 20 items. It was implemented for measuring the

lexical competence in the learning of the out-of-class activity. Then, the result of the analysis was categorized into the lowest and the highest scores.

Meanwhile, for qualitative data, the data were collected by implementing the questionnaire and open-ended interview questions. It had partly adapted from Ferdous (2013). The questionnaire was used a closed-ended question consisting of 5 items. It was used four points likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. It was conducted to investigate students' perceptions of their enthusiasm toward the out-of-class activity. Then, the open-ended interview questions were applied to the students based on students' scores. The questions consisted of 5 items and it made by the teacher to each the participant. The results of the interview were collected into noted taking. It was used to gain the additional information dealing with the out-of-class activity. Furthermore, the final analysis of this study ultimately represented the correlation of out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence and their enthusiasm.

Data Analysis Techniques

1. For the pre-test and post-test, the pre-test was implemented before the treatment and the post-test after the treatment. The pretest-posttest instrument for measuring the lexical competence was 20 items. The final score was computed from the total of correct score divided by the total of number items and multiplied by 100%. On the other hand, for students' perceptions, in this research, the modification of likert scale questionnaire in point 1 – 4 was used. The four points likert scale questionnaire were strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree.
2. For the validation of the multiple choice, the test was based on students' text book. It had also consulted to the supervisors and conclusively the test could be used for the testing. Furthermore, in that of the compatibility of the materials made by the expert and the study, it could be said that the tests given were reliable.
3. With regard to the variable of this study where the number of independent variable is one and the dependent variables are two, Creswell (2009, p. 228) describes that the distribution scores include to non-parametric statistical test by implementing *Spearman Ordered Computation*.
4. The data of multiple choice which had been submitted were proceed and computed by using *Microsof Excel 2007* and SPSS 16.

5. After the sum calculation of the r_s , then it was compared with the ρ table. If the $r_s > \rho$ table based on $\sum N$ with sig. 5%, H_a is accepted. If the $r_s < \rho$ table based on $\sum N$ with sig. 5%, H_o is accepted.
6. For students' perceptions, the questionnaire items were tabulated using tallies based on the choices. The results of the tabulation were presented in percentage and explained descriptively.
7. For interview analysis, it sorted from students' responses to the open-ended interview questions which selectively chosen on purpose based on the final scores, from lower and the higher.
8. In the final analysis, the results of the questionnaire and the interviews were used to support the statistical result that had been done.

Results and Discussion

Based on the hypotheses and the objectives of the study, the statistical results and the questionnaire are described and explained as follows:

The Results of Spearman Rank Ordered Computation

To measure students' lexical competence (i.e. vocabulary), the multiple choice test was used. The scores of pre-post tests were computed through rank Spearman coefficient into a form of numerical degree of correlation. Further, detailed explanations are presented as follows.

Table 2. The Score of Pre-Post Test of Lexical Competence

| No. | Name of Students | Pre-test (X) | Post-test (Y) |
|-----|------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| 1 | CE | 55 | 60 |
| 2 | VMA | 55 | 85 |
| 3 | AYR | 75 | 95 |
| 4 | BNA | 70 | 90 |
| 5 | MMA | 85 | 90 |

| | | | |
|----|--------|----|-----|
| 6 | BKMSM | 80 | 100 |
| 7 | KAPN | 80 | 80 |
| 8 | DAF | 65 | 70 |
| 9 | AAIOKW | 65 | 85 |
| 10 | NAT | 80 | 90 |
| 11 | GAK | 65 | 75 |
| 12 | JYR | 50 | 60 |
| 13 | DFN | 45 | 70 |
| 14 | FKH | 60 | 70 |
| 15 | AALN | 65 | 70 |
| 16 | SKH | 75 | 75 |
| 17 | IDC | 45 | 80 |
| 18 | RAJY | 80 | 90 |
| 19 | KAS | 80 | 95 |
| 20 | NKDP | 85 | 95 |
| 21 | QA | 75 | 70 |
| 22 | MA | 85 | 90 |
| 23 | MHF | 70 | 70 |
| 24 | DGS | 65 | 80 |
| 25 | IPGNP | 85 | 75 |
| 26 | DH | 60 | 75 |
| 27 | KP | 90 | 75 |
| 28 | BSA | 30 | 65 |
| 29 | FASB | 45 | 80 |
| 30 | NAS | 90 | 90 |

Table 2 shows that after the treatment, the score of pre-post tests were significantly raised. The highest score in pre-test was 90 and the lowest score was 30. While, the highest score in post-test was 100 and the lowest score was 60.

Table 3. The Spearman Coefficient Correlation of Lexical Competence

| N | Rs | Rho (5%) |
|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| 30 | .578 | .362 |

After input the data in the rank Spearman coefficient, the result of the correlation between pre-test and post-test computation was 0.578. In this case, the comparison could be concluded that the r_s with $N = 30$ and the significant 5% is higher than rho table ($0.578 > 0.362$). This means that the null hypothesis (H_0) which revealed that there is no effect of out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence in learning EFL at Ampenan Primary School was rejected and the alternate hypothesis (H_a) which revealed that there is an effect of out-of-class activity on students' lexical competence in learning EFL at Ampenan Primary School was accepted.

The Results of Questionnaire Tabulation

In the discussion of the close ended question, the results were described from the highest percentage of students' agreed responses of their enthusiasm toward the out-of-class program. Further detailed explanations are presented as follows.

The Results of Close Ended Questionnaire

The obtained data from students' perceptions of their enthusiasm in the implementation of the out-of-class activity showed that the majority of the respondents strongly agreed. Students perceived that the out-of-class activity made them understand better teacher's instructions (i.e. 15% (SA), 11% (A)). Almost all of the students agreed that the out-of-class activity encouraged them in learning English inside the classroom (i.e. 17% (A), 8% (SA)). Additionally, students implied that the out-of-class activity helped them get to know the new English words (i.e. 16% (A), 12% (SA)). On the other hand, the students' also perceived that the out-of-class activity encouraged them in learning English outside the school (i.e. 15% (A), 12% (SA)). Briefly, the responses of students' perceptions of the enthusiasm are presented as follows.

Table 4. The Result of Students' Perceptions of Out-of-Class Activity

| Enthusiasm | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|--------------------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| helps me get to know the new English words. | - | 2 | 16 | 12 |
| encourages me in learning English inside the classroom. | 3 | 2 | 17 | 8 |
| encourages me in learning English outside the school. | 1 | 2 | 15 | 12 |
| makes me more confident in speaking English. | 2 | 1 | 14 | 13 |
| makes me more understand teacher's instructions. | - | 4 | 11 | 15 |

The Results of Open Ended Interview Questions

To support the above investigation, as regards with students' behaviours of the program, from the interview sections, the results showed that the out-of-class activity gave such significant effects to students' learning autonomy. Most of the interviews mentioned that they particularly learned English independently and some the interviews indicated that they preferred to learn English alone, in a small group, pairs, even both in the classroom with the teacher and outside the school with their family members (i.e. parents, aunt, and siblings). They also pinpointed that the internet and social media were very useful in their own English learning (i.e. Facebook, instagram, YouTube, and video game). Incidentally, listening to the English song, reading comics, novels, and short stories were also indicated as the other tools they used to improve their English proficiency. One example from the interviewee reported, 'I prefer learning English alone on instagram and YouTube.' Another example of interviewee said that when she talks to her sister who joins the English course, she said she can improve her learning experience better: 'I usually speak English in pair with my sister who joins the English course at EF English First. She helps me practicing my English at home.' On the other hand, a few of

the participants also confirmed that they didn't use any internet and social media in the learning outside the school, they spent their time to learn English outside the classroom/school by reading their English academic books and looking up the dictionary. The interviewee reported that 'I usually learn English with my mom and dad. During the out-of-class activity, I reread my English text book again at home.' Another interviewee said that '...when I have difficult words about the topic of the activities, I find out the words into my dictionary.'

Various other factors also influenced the participants' out-of-class learning. Two important things were the location and locus of control. This is stated by Reinders and Benson (2011) that the location is an essential part in decreasing the complexities of the learning. The locus of control has also an important part for controlling the learning process (Lai, Zhu, and Guo, 2014, p. 24). In this study, we found that the majority of the participants believed that their learning was controlled by their own learning, teacher and family. Most of the participants said that the out-of-class activity encouraged their enthusiasm and improve their lexical competence. The interviewees commented as follows:

'I think the out-of-class activities raise my enthusiasm in learning English. I have never done these kind of activities in English club class before. These activities are so joyful.'

(NKDP)

'The activities are interesting because the words used by the teacher are easy to articulate and understand.'

(NAT)

'Yes, because I have gotten new English words.'

(DAF)

On the other hand, it can also be seen from students' expectations of the interviewing with their learning environments (i.e. school and the teacher). The interviewees commented as follows:

'I expect the school to provide the "English Day" longer than the present English club class. And the teacher must held many activities.'

(NKDP)

'School can give us further education such as provide a travelling program abroad or invite the foreigners or native speakers to our school.'

'The teacher should give more activities in English.'

(MHF)

'School provides new activities to English Club Class to make it more advanced.'

'The teacher should add new activities frequently.'

(AAIOKW)

'I wish the school provides another English teacher.'

'The teacher should make various activities.'

(AYR)

'For the school, I expect more visitors/ volunteers coming to school. For the teacher, I hope more outing activities, especially to keep in touch with the native speakers.'

(NAT)

Discussion

As shown in the previous sub chapter, the results of the pre-post tests indicated that there was a positive and significant effect on students' lexical competence and learning enthusiasm toward the implementation of the program. The comparison of post tests results indicated a significant difference in one group pre-post tests of female and male students aged 9 to 11 years old of Ampenan Primary School. The implementation of the varieties of the activities in the out-of-class program can be indicated as the quality of its learning. This finding is in line with the previous studies in Rickinson et al (2004, p. 4) findings that primary students perform better in social and educational projects when they are engaged into active and enjoyable learning. This is also emphasized by Doyle and

Parrish (2012, p. 201) in saying that ‘if something is not enjoyable, students are less likely to choose to do it.’ This finding suggests that the better quality of the activities potentially raise the students’ motivation and enhancing their ability (i.e. vocabulary) in language learning.

Lexical competence and enthusiasm are two essential components in language learning. As regards to the results of the questionnaire and the interviews, the findings pointed out that there were several factors influencing the success of the out-of-class activity. Some students said that the interactive and familiar words used during the activities indicated that students easily caught the idea of teacher’s instruction. This means that the level of words used by the teacher and the relevance activities of students’ life have a very important role of their enthusiasm during the activities. This is the same as Guo (2011) that ‘the concious of students’ attention of the English usage in the real world can increase students’ language ability, in particular, to improve their vocabulary knowledge.’ Considerably, this also can be seen from students’ perceptions that during the out-of-class activity, students more enthusiastic joining the activities in that they got new English words that they have never had in the classroom.

However, some students also revealed that they were nervous and less confident when they tried to speak up their ideas during the activities process. Nevertheless, indeed they were more motivated and enthusiastic in the process of the activities in that every topic in the out-of-class activity was interesting, challenging, active and enjoyable. Moreover, students insisted that from varieties of the activities in the implementation of the program raised their encouragement in learning English inside and outside the classroom. Changes in the technology in particular mobile-assisted language learning and a shift attention to the learners as an active agent in his/her own learning will deepen the understanding between learning beyond the classroom and learning from the classroom (Benson and Reinders, 2011). Thereby, the diversity of the teaching experiential materials and techniques have played an important factor on students’ learning experiences.

The way teacher teaches the students can be considered to be a crucial role in the out-of-class applications. As in the previous discussion by Keller et al (2013) said that the success of teaching and learning process are reflected from the enthusiastic teaching. This is also explained in Waite and Rea (2007, p. 61) that “children and the teacher could be refreshed by serendipitous events and by approaching the learning outside the

classroom as a chance to use more experiential teaching techniques.” Thus, in this case, what students need presently is they will become more motivated and focused on the subject matter if the environment to do so (i.e. teacher and school). As Richards (2015) implicates that serving these kind of activities as additional input to the classroom-based teaching acknowledge to a good teaching. He also emphasizes that preparing the learners for learning both inside and outside the classroom as an important aspect for teacher education today. By connecting and supporting the teaching and learning with the current technology or creating challenging activities, developing the social networks (i.e. inviting the native speakers or English speaking country speakers) perhaps make the students more enthusiastic and direct their attention in experiencing and learning new things in case to enlarge their English vocabulary knowledge.

Conclusion

According to the description of the data that mentioned in the previous chapter, it can be concluded that there is positive and negative effect of the out-of-class activity on students’ lexical competence and their enthusiasm in learning English. If the students do not have the interest of the English out-of-class activity they will have difficulty to absorb the lesson during the activities. Thus, the student will get lower scores whereas for students who have high interest in the English out-of-class activity will get good scores. This means the more students learn and more attentive students follow up the instructions on the activities, the better English they will acquire.

Investigation of students’ perceptions showed that the majority of respondents implicated that their enthusiasm determines the success of the out-of-class activity. It was found that the students have a better understanding the teacher’s instructions. It was also found that from the enthusiasm in the out-of-class activity, students more encouraged in learning English inside and outside the classroom. In addition, students insisted that their enthusiasm helped them more focused on the process of acquiring the new English words. Meanwhile, interview with students reported that there are two factors influence the success of the program. First, it comes from students’ one own learning. Most of the students responded that they preferred to learn English alone, in small group, pairs, even both in the classroom with the teacher and outside the classroom with their family members. They also pointed out that the internet, social media (i.e. Facebook, instagram,

Youtube, and video game) and other sources (i.e. listening to songs, reading comics, novels, and short stories) were useful in their own learning. Second, it comes from the problem solving tasks which conducted into the program. Most of the students confirmed that they spent their time to reread their academic books, and looking up the dictionary.

Finally, this present study suggests some pedagogical implications. One of the implication is that both students' lexical competence and enthusiasm had tremendously given mutual feedback in students' cognitive and their emotional contagion (i.e. enthusiasm). The more innovative the strategies and the methods used by the teacher, the more students enjoyed, focused, and motivated themselves in managing their own learning. By creating various activities outside the classroom relevant to students' daily lives and connecting the projects school or homework with the current technology (i.e. internet and social media), it will improve students' self-awareness in learning English outside the classroom or school and eventually contribute the students' vocabulary. Further research is expected to consider the subject of research more miscellaneous in term of intervening variables (i.e. students who have other English courses and students who have no other English courses). The future research will also lead to research emphasizing the instrumental tests, especially for measuring the lexical competence to student's articulation and how students can relate the words into practice.

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Appendix I

Multiple Choice Test

Choose a, b, c, or d for the correct answer!

(Pilihlah a, b, c, atau d untuk jawaban yang benar)

1. A : What is this?

B : This is



- a. a table.
- b. an cair.
- c. a chair.
- d. a book.

2. door-open-the-please!

The good sentence is...

- a. The door open please!
- b. Open please the door!
- c. Open the door, please!
- d. Please the door open!

3. She is a librarian.

The underline word means...

- a. Pustakawan.
- b. Kepala Sekolah.
- c. Murid.
- d. Guru.

4. John : Excusme, I want to meminjam a story book.

Mr. D : Wait a moment. Let me

check it first. Well you can find in the rak buku.

John : Thank you, sir.

Mr. D : You're welcome.

The underlines words in English are and

- a. give and book store.
- b. return and cupboard.
- c. buy and save.
- d. borrow and bookshelf.

5. A : Ana, let's go to the library.

Let's find some _____ .

B : Alright..!

- a. Book.
- b. Friends.
- c. Science books.
- d. Story books.



6.



How many sweets do you have?

- a. Seven sweets.
- b. Five sweets.

- c. Seven sweet.
- d. Five cakes.

7. A : How much is this?
 B : It is five hundred rupiahs.
 The number of the money is..... .
- a. Rp 2.400,-
 - b. Rp 2.500,-
 - c. Rp 500,-
 - d. Rp 250,-

8. Julia takes away her order.
 The words take away in Indonesia is
- a. Mengambil.
 - b. Membawa pulang.

- a. water.
- b. dry
- c. throw.
- d. pour.



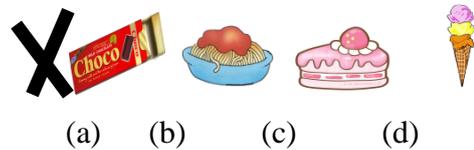
12. There are four flower.
 The correct noun is..... .
- a. a flower.
 - b. flowers.
 - c. an flower.
 - d. a, b, c are incorrect.

13. I _____ 30 polybags.
- a. have.
 - b. has.
 - c. is.
 - d. am.

- c. Mencuri.
- d. Membuang.

9. Two plus _____ equals ten.
- a. seven.
 - b. nine.
 - c. ten.
 - d. eight.

10. I don't want a chocolate.



11. Can you _____ the plant, please?

14. A : What is it?

B : It is .



- a. a worm.
- b. a snake.
- c. a bird.
- d. a lipan.

15. Arrange the pictures corretly.



- (1) (2) (4) (3) (5)

- a. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.
- b. 1, 2, 4, 5, 3.
- c. 2, 1, 3, 4, 5.

d. 2, 3, 1, 4, 5.

16. Hiroko is

- a. Hara's brother.
- b. Hara's mother.
- c. Hara's sister.
- d. Hara's father.

17. Mention Mr.Hara's family.

There are..., ..., ..., and

- a. brother, mother, and father.
- b. mother, father, sister, and brother.
- c. sister, brother, and mother.
- d. brother and father.

18. Hara has ____ brother.

- a. one.
- b. two.
- c. three.
- d. four.

19. l - y - F - a - m - i

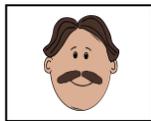
- a. Bycle
- b. Family
- c. Aunt
- d. Uncle

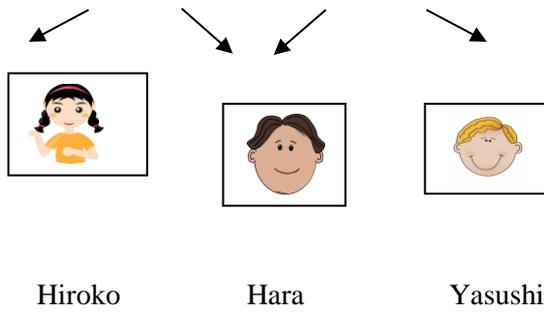
20. My mother's father is my.....

- a. granny.
- b. uncle.
- c. grandpa.
- d. niece

Questions number 16-18

Hara's family





Appendix II

Pre-Post Tests, Questionnaire, and Interview

| PRE-TEST AT SDN 1 AMPENAN | |
|---------------------------|--|
| Date | 30 April 2019 |
| Time | 16:30 – 17.00 p.m. |
| Venue | English Club Classroom |
| Teacher | Karina & Aida |
| Description | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher gave the instrument to all of the students. - Teacher gave instructions to the students how to answer the instrument. - Students did the test. |
| Problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some students came late. - Some students were back home earlier. |
| | |

| POST-TEST, QUESTIONNAIRE, AND INTERVIEW AT SDN 1 AMPENAN | |
|--|--|
| Date | 16 May 2019 |
| Time | 11:30 a.m. – 13.00 p.m. |
| Venue | English Club Classroom |
| Teacher | Karina |
| Description | - Teacher gave the instruments to all of the students. - Teacher gave instructions to the students how to answer the instruments. - Students did the test and answer the questionnaire. - Students did the interview. |
| Problems | - Some students came late. - Some students were sick. |
|  | |

Appendix III

Out-of-Class Activities

Activity I

| | |
|-------------|--|
| Date | 2 May 2019 |
| Time | 80 minutes |
| Topic | Visiting Library School |
| Venue | Library School |
| Program | Out-of-Class Activity |
| Teacher | Karina |
| Volunteer | Novia |
| Description | - Teacher divided the students into five groups. |

| | |
|--|--|
| | - Teacher gave the name tag to each leader of the group. |
| | - Teacher and students did warm-up. |
| | - Teacher gave the instructions to the students to find out things in the library and wrote them into a paper. |
| | - Student together with their group and teacher went down to the library and made the observation. |
| | - Students came to the class and discuss the things (words) they got to the group. |
| | - Each representative of the group came forward to present their group result. |
| | - Every student noted the words of other groups in their vocabulary list. |
| | - Teacher and students together checked the words and corrected it. |



Activity II

| | |
|-------------|--|
| Date | 9 May 2019 |
| Time | 80 minutes |
| Topic | Meet up with Mr. Haraguchi Takeshi from Japan! |
| Venue | Playground & Schoolground |
| Program | Out-of-Class Activity |
| Teacher | Karina |
| Volunteer | Hara & Novia |
| Description | - Teacher divided the students into five groups. |
| | - Teacher gave the name tag to each leader of the group. |
| | - Teacher and students did warm-up. |
| | - Teacher gave some instructions and a light game for students related to the activity. |
| | - Each group repeated the sentences of the cut papers and practiced 'how to say hello/ introduce someone' to Mr. Hara. |
| | - Teacher gave a cut of 'introduction dialogue' paper to every group. |
| | - Every group discussed about the conversation. |
| | - Each representative of the group came forward to present their group result. |





Activity III

| | |
|-------------|--|
| Date | 13 May 2019 |
| Time | 80 minutes |
| Topic | Green School Day |
| Venue | School Garden |
| Program | Out-of-Class Activity |
| Teacher | Karina |
| Volunteer | Lely |
| Description | - Teacher divided the students into five groups. |
| | - Teacher gave the name tag to each leader of the group. |
| | - Teacher and students did warm-up. |
| | - Teacher gave the instructions to the students about how to 'plant a tree/ flower.' |
| | - Student together with their group did planting. |
| | - Students wrote the things related to gardening. |
| | - Each representative of the group presented their planting. |
| | - Every student collected the words they had been gotten. |
| | - Teacher and students together checked the words and corrected it. |
| | |



Activity IV

| | |
|---------|------------------------|
| Date | 15 May 2019 |
| Time | 80 minutes |
| Topic | Shopping Time! |
| Venue | English Club Classroom |
| Program | Out-of-Class Activity |
| Teacher | Karina |

| | |
|-------------|--|
| Volunteer | - |
| Description | - Teacher divided the students into five groups. |
| | - Teacher gave the name tag to each leader of the group. |
| | - Teacher and students did warm-up. |
| | - Teacher gave a brief explanation about money and how to buy and sell something. |
| | - Teacher divided the groups into two groups: 2 group sellers and 3 group customers. |
| | - Teacher gave the envelop including the money paper and shopping lists to every customers and sellers. |
| | - Each group did the shopping. |
| | - Each representative of the group came forward to the class practicing the things they had been gotten. |
| | - Teacher and students together checked the words and corrected it. |





Appendix IV

Open-ended Interview Questions

1. How do you learn best?

| | | | | | |
|----|----|----|----|------|----|
| A | P | S | C | Ou | Ot |
| lo | a | m | la | tsid | he |
| ne | ir | al | s | e | rs |
| | s | l | s | cla | |
| | | gr | | ss | |
| | | o | | | |
| | | u | | | |
| | | p | | | |
| | | | | | |

2. What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom?

(√) according to pupils' preference, they can (√) multiple option.

_____ I read English magazine.

_____ I read English academic books.

_____ I read novels, comics, and short stories.

_____ Independent study in a library.

_____ I have an English course outside the school.

_____ I use internet/ email/ chat.

_____ I use facebook/ instagram/google.

_____ I watch English tv programme, videos on youTube or movies.

_____ I concentrate on the content of films, and discussing them with friends/family.

_____ I listen to English songs.

_____ When I listen an English song, I listen it carefully and try to understand

all of the words and practise my pronunciation.

_____I speak with colleagues/ fellow students.

_____I have a conversation with my family friend who is a native speaker of English.

_____I speak with family members.

_____I play video game/online game.

The above question is partly adapted from Ferdous Tanjila (2013)

3. Do you think out-of-class activity raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/ no, give some reasons.

Yes

No

4. What were your difficulties in using English out of class?

5. What do you expect from the school and teacher to do outside the classroom?

Appendix V

Open-ended Interview Questions

Page 29-31

Extract 1

How do you learn best?

"I usually learn English in a small group."

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I learn from instagram”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because I can make collaboration with another friend.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I can’t make difference how to say the English words, like ‘know’ and ‘now’.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School and teacher have to make many English activities by creating more challenging activities so that student easy to understand the learning.”

(CE)

Extract 2

How do you learn best?

“I learn English with aunt.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I usually practice my English with aunt, she teaches me if I have difficulties in learning English.”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because I have gotten new English words.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“Difficulties in understanding the English vocabulary.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“Teacher: for the future teacher should more understand.”

“School: add more activities with foreign (native speakers) people.”

(DAF)

Extract 3

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn with dad.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I use facebook and youYube,”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because I can more understand the English.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I am not confident.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School can give us further education such as provide a travelling program abroad or invite the foreigners or native speakers to our school.”

“The teacher should give more activities in English.”

(MHF)

Extract 4

How do you learn best?

“I like learning in small group.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

"I usually open video on YouTube. I have instagram but it moms"

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

"Yes, in this activity I rather more confident in speaking English or it's better because before not. My mother officially often goes to abroad for working, so I also practice my English with her."

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

"I am difficult in writing the English words."

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

*"I don't know (*smile..hehehe)."*

(DH)

Extract 5

How do you learn best?

"I like to learn English alone."

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

"At home I read English novels, sometimes I open facebook/ instagram too."

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

"Yes, because I like English, it's more motivated me."

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

"I am not confident to speak and pronounce the English words well."

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

"School can invite more volunteers and native speakers to the school."

“Teacher must be more patient.”

(KP)

Extract 6

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn outside the class, in a group.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I didn’t any internet or social media access at home but when I have difficult words about the topic of the activities, I find out the words into my dictionary.”(line 23, page 29).

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because the activities are fun.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I like forget the words.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School can add more program.”

“The teacher should provide more activities.”

(FASB)

Extract 7

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn English with sister.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I read my English textbook, short stories in English, and talk with sister. I usually speak English in pair with my sister who joins the English course at EF English First. She helps me practicing my English at home.”(line 15, page 29).

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because while learning I can play the game in the activities.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I am less brave to speak English.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“Teacher and school provide more activities outside the school.”

(KAPN)

Extract 8

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn with dad.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I practice and talk English with bule (native speaker) uncle.”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because I can learn the new English words more deep and focused.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I am less understand new English words,”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School provides new activities to English Club Class to make it more advanced.”

“The teacher should add new activities frequently.”

(AAIOKW)

Extract 9

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn English with mom and dad.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom?

“During the out-of-classroom activities, I reread my English text book again at home.”
(line 21, page 29).

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because often added new English words.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I have difficulty in speaking.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School can do more planting activity and teacher can do more English activities.”

(NAS)

Extract 10

How do you learn best?

“I prefer learning English alone.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I usually learn English on instagram and YouTube.” (line 12, page 29).

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, the activities are interesting because the words used by the teacher are easy to articulate and understand.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I can’t say the letter ‘r’ and to pronounce the words with ‘r’ in English because in Germany we pronounce the ‘r’ when speaking.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“For the school, I expect more visitors/volunteers coming to school. For the teacher, I hope more outing activities, especially to keep in touch with the native speakers.”

(NAT)

Extract 11

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn English with dad. My dad works at travel agent so sometimes we speak English when he is at home.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I read English comics and play online game.”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because I can learn English more fun.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I am less confident.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School can do the same activities like these.”

“Teacher can provide more activities.”

(MA)

Extract 12

How do you learn best?

“I usually learn English alone.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I know and learn English through instagram, youTube, sometimes listen to the English songs and talk with family.”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because it’s so enjoyable.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I am bad at grammar.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“School gives more subjects to be learned.”

“Teacher should not often angry.”

(RA)

Extract 13

How do you learn best?

“I like to study English in small group.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I usually open instagram and English video on YouTube.”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because the activities are good“

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

"I don't used to do these kind of activities, I am not confident."

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

"I wish the school provides another English teacher."

"The teacher should make various activities."

(AYR)

Extract 14

How do you learn best?

"I learn English in pairs."

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/
School?

"I watch YouTube."

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm
in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

*"Yes, I think the out-of-classroom activities raise my enthusiasm in learning English. I
have never done these kind of activities in English club class before. These activities are
so joyful."*

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

"I have difficulty in writing good grammar."

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

*"I expect the school to provide the "English Day" longer than the present English club
class. And the teacher must held many activities."*

(NKDP)

Extract 15

How do you learn best?

“I like to learn English in the Class with Teacher.”

What types of activities that you carried out in learning English outside the classroom/school?

“I use instagram to learn English.”

Do you think the out classroom activities raise your lexical competence and enthusiasm in learning English? If yes/no, give some reasons.

“Yes, because the activities are exciting and fun.”

What were your difficulties in using the English out-of-classroom?

“I am not confident.”

What do you expect from the school and the teacher to do outside the classroom?

“For the school, please add more facilities and the English program. For the teacher, more enthusiastic in teaching us.”

(BKMSM)