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Table of Contents

A Study on Common Errors Committed by the Beginners of LFU
in English Language Speaking

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Abstract

In the contemporary educational system, the learners gain neither a command over their own native language nor over the foreign language that leads to no specified linguistic personality. Hence the researchers decided to investigate the common errors of English Language Speaking committed by the beginners of the Lebanese French University in Erbil, Kurdistan. The university is one of the peers in the region. In the University, the curriculum has to be learnt in English yet students study all the subjects in the Regional Language i.e., Kurdish during the secondary stage of education. Like phonological and grammatical errors, errors of style and organization are also due to mother tongue interference. Developing a foreign language at the college level will help everyone to have good communication collectively. The present study focuses on whether the beginners of LFU commit common errors in English language speaking. The normative survey approach is applied in this study. The analysis shows that there is a significant difference between Sub Urban and urban beginner students of LFU. The urban students fared well than the Sub Urban students. Comparing the students of the Kurdish medium with English medium, English medium students are better than the Kurdish medium students. The total income of the family has no correlation for the students committing errors in the foreign language. The study reveals that the level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking by the beginner students of LFU is moderate.

Keywords: Common error, Foreign Language, beginners, Language Speaking, Kurdish.

Introduction

Education is a progression by which people acquire knowledge, skills, habits, values, and attitudes. It should also support them to progress an obligation of their cultural and social legacy and lead a substantial life (Brown, 2007). The secondary education bridges between primary and higher education, which is expected to prepare the budding young learners between the age group of 13-18 into the world of the job market and entry into higher education (Gass, Susan and Selinker, 2001). The secondary education starts with the 8-10th level that leads to higher secondary classes 11 and 12. Today, the English language inhabits a predominant place in the educational structure. In the contemporary educational system, the learners at the culmination of a strenuous and affluent academic career, gain neither a command over their own native language, nor over the foreign language thrust on them, the outcome that

they never emanate to have any operative medium for expressiveness and there is no personality where there is no self-manifestation (Hamilton, 2001 and Koller, 2008).

The existing Kurdish Government has executed a "Two language formula" (via) Kurdish and English. Hence the researchers decided to investigate the common errors committed by the beginners of Lebanese French University in Erbil, Kurdistan. The university is one of the peers in the region. In the university, the curriculum has to be learnt in English. But the students during the secondary stage of education study all subjects, except the second language subject, in the Regional Language i.e., Kurdish as a medium of instruction. The learning pedagogy in their own regional language is undoubtedly the best methodology to expand the learners' cognitive progress. It unlocks a fresh domain before them and supports to break down artificial barriers. English is a language that is used to communicate between countries, thus studying it would definitely kindle new thoughts from every nook and cranny of the world (Sarwade, 2010). The study of English has opened to us a vast literature. Thus, as a second language, English has obtained its own authentic place in the curriculum of the school educational system (Agnihotri and Khann, 1994). The English teaching ought to be a resource to an end but not an end to itself (Abbott, 1980). It ought to be learned for the day to day communication and not for propagating its learning. Teaching practical English is the best than teaching literature like drama, poetry, and prose.

English is one of the widely used international languages and the competence usage of this language has turned into a compulsion to any literate. According to French F.G here, the researchers list a few obligatory reasons for the pupils to learn English.

- "To communicate in speech or writing with other people who speak English and thus to understand and take part in a wider life than that of the village."
- "To understand directions and instructions in life at work (at the offices, at the airports or with machines especially)."
- "To read books in English on educational subjects; religion, history, geography, nature study, our own trade or profession for example in order to become educated by means of English."
- "To read books in English for pleasure - comics, magazines, stories, novels, plays and so on."
- "To read books in English on technical and scientific subjects which will help them to understand the contemporary world or to make their place in their own succeeding community as it moves forward."

Errors in English

Errors in spoken English can be conveniently grouped under four broad headings.

1. Lexical errors
2. Grammatical errors
3. Error of style
4. Errors of organization

The errors of the first three kinds are largely due to mother tongue interference. Green (1967) suggests that "like phonological and grammatical errors, errors of style and organization are also due to mother tongue interference". He is probably influenced by what has come to be known as the 'Whorfian hypothesis' which declares that a new language learned is always influenced by the cognizance of those practices, that subsequently on those speaking multi-languages organize their understanding in their own way and use diverse pictures.

Sources and Seriousness of Error

There are many sources of error. Michael West (1953) lists four causes and they are

1. Mistakes caused by the mother tongue
2. Overload
3. Carelessness
4. Ignorance

F.G. French gives the following causes for mistakes

1. False analogy
2. Laziness
3. Mother tongue interference
4. Inability to visualize correctly
5. Misunderstanding

Chitra Fernando (1961) suggests that "error can arise either due to (i) lack of mastery form or order of linguistic items (or) (ii) lack of ability to select a given form or pattern to fit a relevant context".

Determining the seriousness of an error is important for preparing remedial exercises. Should one always be guided by frequency in errors in remedial teaching? It may be dangerous to equate seriousness with frequency (Ancker, 2000). As it was pointed out by a Report of the Second Annual Conference of Directors of English Language Teaching Institutes in India, what is serious is 'the accumulation of errors' as it threatens to breakdown in communication. The

efficiency of communication being the aim, the causes of misunderstanding, failure of communication and unintelligibility deserve attention and treatment (Turton, 2007).

Uses of Error Analysis

Can all errors be eliminated by remedial work? As it was pointed out by a Report of the Second Annual Conference of Directors of English Language Teaching Institutes in India, some mistakes are harder to remedy than others, but all mistakes are sufficiently remediable if enough practice is given. Poor learning is the result of poor teaching. Different errors are caused by different kinds of 'learning failure' and require a different remedial approach (Singh, 2018). Errors that are mainly linguistically in character need sufficient practice to eliminate them; errors which are non-linguistic, those due to psychological reasons, physical handicaps, habits of thought or habits of study must be tackled differently (Susilo, 2018). Different teaching devices are needed to overcome different kinds of linguistic errors. For instance, substitution tables can remedy structural errors, while multiple-choice exercises (which require selection, matching transformation) may be useful in forming the habit of using a given form or pattern to fit a relevant context. "From the teaching and learning point of view, Green (1967) classifies grammatical errors into three categories.

a. Errors which the student himself can discover and correct with the help provided he is given time to read through his work again;

b. Errors which the student can correct himself if the error is pointed out to him by the teachers, and

c. The error which the student cannot correct even if he is given to revise his work and even if the error is pointed out to him.

Significance of the Study

The teaching profession plays a crucial role in structuring the existing system of society and shaping the educational system in the future. The development aspects in all sections of a country depend much upon the quality of teachers. So the global educational system is under collective compression to utilize the current statistics in its all dimensions to educate the learners to the knowledge and skills they require for the 21st century. Developing a foreign language at the college level will help everyone to have good communication with all the people.

The present study focuses on whether the beginners of LFU commit common errors in English Language Speaking. When the foreign language is taught there must be an inspiration to all the students to learn the language.

Objectives

1. To find out the level of Common Errors in English Language Speaking committed by boys and girls of the beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

2. To find out the level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by Suburban and urban students of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

3. To find out the level of Common Errors in English committed by Kurdish medium and English medium students of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

4. To find out the level of Common Errors in English committed by General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

Null Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference between boys and girls of Beginner of LFU in their level of common Errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

2. There is no significant difference between Suburban and urban students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

3. There is no significant difference between Kurdish and English medium students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

4. There is no significant difference among General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

5. There is no significant association between the annual income and the level of common errors committed by Beginner of LFU students in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

Limitations

No study is free from limitations. Any piece of research work has its own merits and demerits, limitations and drawbacks. The following are the limitations of the present study.

1. The sample of the study is limited to 200 students.

2. The study deals with only the Beginners of LFU.

3. For the present study, the used tool for the collection of data is the only questionnaire.

4. In this study, only 10 dimensions have been selected.

Methodology

Considering the nature of the problem under investigation and nature of the data required for the present study the investigators decided to adopt the 'survey method' as the method relevant for collecting data relating to this study.

A normative survey approach is the only means through which opinions, suggestions, attitudes and other such data can be obtained. It is concerned with generalized statistics based on data abstracted from a number of individual cases.

Tools for The Present Study

As a preliminary step towards the preparation of the questionnaire, the investigators studied and reviewed the related literature of Agnihotri & Khann, (1994), Hamilton, R. P. (2001), and Turton, N. (2007) to the area under investigation. The major aspects to be included in the questionnaire were decided upon as 80 statements at first and questions were distorted and some were modified. Finally, the questionnaire consists of 50 statements with 10 dimensions.

Validity

To establish the validity, the prepared tool was given to experts in the field of education like Dr. Stephenie, Dr. Elena, and Dr. Kurdistan to get their valuable comments. They suggested certain modifications. The draft was thus scrutinized and the irrelevant items were deleted and the draft had been reduced to forty-eight items. Thus the content validity has been established.

Reliability

After receiving some suggestions from other experts, the existing tool was administered to 30 students randomly. The students' responses were scored. The same tool was administered

to the same set of students after 15 days. When both sets of scores were compared, it was found out that there were not many differences between the two sets of scores. The coefficient of reliability was found (0.65). Hence the questionnaire was apt and reliable.

Description of the Tool

The tool prepared by the investigators to find out the common errors committed by the Beginner of LFU students in English Language Speaking consists of two parts.

Part: 1. General Information Schedule

It includes general information about the respondents.

Part: 2. Tool

This part consists of 50 statements under 10 dimensions namely

a. Spelling
b. Superlative forms
c. 'Be' verbs
d. Articles
e. Simple present tense verb
f. Prepositions
g. Short responses to the questions
h. Reported speech
i. Sentence pattern
j. Voices and
k. In toto

Each dimension consists of 5 statements, respectively with regard to the Common Errors in the English Language. The respondents were asked to write on the questionnaire itself.

Sample

The investigators have selected two hundred Beginners of LFU students from different Colleges as a sample with the help of a stratified random sampling technique.

List of College Selected for the Study

Table 1

College-Wise Distribution of the Sample

S. No	Name of the College	No. of students	Percentage
1.	General Education	65	32.5%
2.	Law and Legal	65	32.5%
3.	Accounting and Finance	70	35.0%
Total		**200**	**100%**

Table 2

Sex-Wise Distribution of the Sample

Sex	No of students	Percentage
Male	98	49%
Female	102	51%
Total	**200**	**100%**

Table 3

Locality -Wise Distribution of the Sample

The locality of the Students	No of students	Percentage
Sub Urban	92	46%
Urban	108	54%
Total	**200**	**100%**

Data Analysis

Objective Testing

1. To find out the level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by boys and girls of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

12

Table 4

Level of Common Errors in English Language Speaking Committed by Boys and Girls

of Beginner of LFU

Dimensions	Category	Low		Moderate		High	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
a. Spelling	Boys	26	26.5	52	53.1	20	20.4
	Girls	9	8.8	55	53.9	38	37.3
b. Superlative forms	Boys	27	27.6	61	62.2	10	10.2
	Girls	12	11.8	67	65.7	23	22.5
c. Be Verbs	Boys	29	29.6	61	62.2	8	8.2
	Girls	17	16.7	70	68.6	15	14.7
d. Articles	Boys	9	9.2	72	73.5	17	17.3
	Girls	1	1.0	83	81.4	18	17.6
e. Simple present tense	Boys	12	12.2	71	72.4	15	15.3
	Girls	10	9.8	76	74.5	16	15.7
f. Prepositions	Boys	12	12.2	79	80.6	7	7.1
	Girls	2	2.0	85	83.3	15	14.7
g. Short responses	Boys	9	9.2	80	81.6	9	92.2
	Girls	14	13.7	82	80.4	6	5.9
h. Reported speech	Boys	13	13.3	79	80.6	6	6.1
	Girls	23	22.5	70	68.6	9	6.8
i. Sentence pattern	Boys	21	21.4	59	60.2	18	18.4
	Girls	20	19.6	66	64.7	16	15.7
j. Voices	Boys	4	4.1	85	86.7	9	9.2

	Category	N	%	N	%	N	%
	Girls	10	9.8	88	86.3	4	3.9
k. In toto	Boys	23	23.5	61	62.2	14	14.3
	Girls	16	15.7	66	64.7	20	19.6

It is inferred from the above table (4) that a high percentage of 53.1% and 53.9% of boys and girls have committed a moderate level of errors in spelling. 62.2% and 65.7% of them have committed a moderate level of errors in superlative forms. 62.2% and 68.6% of them have committed a moderate level of errors in 'Be' verbs. 73.5% and 81.4% of them have a moderate level of errors in articles. 72.4% and 74.5% of them have a moderate level of errors in the simple present tense. 80.6% and 83.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in prepositions. 81.6% and 80.4% of them have a moderate level of errors in short responses. 80.6% and 68.6% of them have a moderate level of errors in reported speech. 60.2% and 64.7% of them have a moderate level of errors in sentence patterns. 86.7% and 86.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in Voices. 62.2% and 64.7% of them have a moderate level of errors in English.

2. To find out the level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by the Sub Urban and urban students of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

Table 5

Level of Common Errors in English Language Speaking Committed by Suburban and Urban Students of Beginner of LFU

Dimensions	Category	Low		Moderate		High	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
a. Spelling	Sub Urban	17	18.5	60	65.2	15	16.3
	Urban	18	16.7	47	43.5	43	39.8
b. Superlative forms	Sub Urban	17	18.5	60	65.2	15	16.3
	Urban	22	20.4	68	63.0	18	16.7

c. Be verbs	Sub Urban	26	28.3	61	66.3	5	5.4
	Urban	20	18.5	70	64.8	18	16.7
d. Articles	Sub Urban	3	3.3	76	82.6	13	14.1
	Urban	7	6.5	79	73.1	22	20.4
e. Simple present tense	Sub Urban	4	4.3	81	88.0	7	7.6
	Urban	18	16.7	66	61.1	24	22.2
f. Prepositions	Sub Urban	6	6.5	85	92.4	1	1.1
	Urban	8	7.4	79	73.1	21	19.4
g. Short responses	Sub Urban	3	3.3	87	94.6	2	2.2
	Urban	20	18.5	75	69.4	13	12.0
h. Reported speech	Sub Urban	13	14.1	71	77.2	8	8.7
	Urban	23	21.3	78	72.2	7	6.5
i. Sentence pattern	Sub Urban	9	9.8	66	71.7	17	18.5
	Urban	32	29.6	59	54.6	17	15.7
j. Voices	Sub Urban	3	3.3	82	89.1	7	7.6
	Urban	11	10.2	91	84.3	6	5.6
k. In toto	Sub Urban	18	19.6	60	65.2	14	15.2
	Urban	21	19.4	67	62.0	20	18.5

It is inferred from the above table (5) that a high percentage of 65.2 % and 43.5% of Sub Urban and urban students have a moderate level of errors in spelling. 65.2% and 63.0% of them have a moderate level of errors in superlative forms. 66.3% and 64.8% of them have a moderate level of errors in 'Be' verbs. 82.6% and 73.1% of them have a moderate level of errors in articles. 88.0% and 61.1% have a moderate level of errors in the simple present tense. 92.4% and 73.1% of them have a moderate level of errors in prepositions. 94.6% and 69.4% of them have a moderate level of errors in short responses. 77.2% and 72.2% of them have a moderate level of errors

in reported speech. 71.7% and 54.6% of them have a moderate level of errors in sentence patterns. 89.1% and 84.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in Voices. 65.2% and 62.0% of them have a moderate level of errors in English.

3. To find out the level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by Kurdish and English medium students of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

Table 6

Level of Common Errors in English Language Speaking Committed by Kurdish and English Medium Students of Beginner of LFU

Dimensions	Category	Low		Moderate		High	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
a. Spelling	Kurdish	17	16.7	54	52.9	31	30.4
	English	18	18.4	53	54.1	27	27.6
b. Superlative forms	Kurdish	17	16.7	70	68.6	15	147
	English	22	22.4	58	59.2	18	18.4
c. Be Verbs	Kurdish	27	26.5	65	63.7	10	9.8
	English	19	19.4	66	67.3	13	13.3
d. Articles	Kurdish	3	2.9	87	85.3	12	11.8
	English	7	7.1	68	69.4	23	23.5
e. Simple present tense	Kurdish	16	15.7	73	71.6	13	12.7
	English	6	6.1	74	75.5	18	18.4
f. Prepositions	Kurdish	6	5.9	77	75.5	19	18.6
	English	8	8.2	87	88.8	3	3.1
g. Short responses	Kurdish	19	18.6	79	77.5	4	3.9
	English	4	4.1	83	84.7	11	11.2
h. Reported speech	Kurdish	31	30.4	63	61.8	8	7.8

	English	5	5.1	86	87.8	7	7.1
i. Sentence pattern	Kurdish	28	27.5	63	61.8	11	10.8
	English	13	13.3	62	63.3	23	23.5
j. Voices	Kurdish	13	12.7	87	85.3	2	2.0
	English	1	1.0	86	87.8	11	11.2
k. In toto	Kurdish	25	24.5	65	63.7	12	11.8
	English	14	14.3	62	63.3	22	22.4

It is inferred from the above table (6) that a high percentage of 52.9% and 54.1% of Kurdish and English medium students have a moderate level of errors in spelling. 68.6% and 59.2% of them have a moderate level of errors in superlative forms. 63.7% and 67.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in 'Be' verbs. 85.3% and 69.4% of them have a moderate level of errors in articles. 71.6% and 75.5% of them have a moderate level of errors in the simple present tense. 75.5% and 88.8% of them have a moderate level of errors in prepositions. 77.5% and 84.7% of them have a moderate level of errors in short responses. 61.8% and 87.8% of them have a moderate level of errors in reported speech. 61.8% and 63.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in sentence patterns. 85.3% and 87.8% of them have a moderate level of errors in Voices. 63.7% and 63.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in English.

4. To find out the level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and Finance students of Beginner of LFU with respect to their background variables.

Table 7

Level of Common Errors in English Language Speaking Committed by General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and Finance Students of Beginner of LFU

Dimensions	Category	Low		Moderate		High	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
a. Spelling	General Education	11	30.6	19	52.8	6	16.7

	Law & Legal	18	15.6	64	53.3	38	31.7
	Accounting and finance	6	13.6	24	54.5	14	31.8
b. Superlative forms	General Education	8	22.2	26	72.2	2	5.6
	Law & Legal	24	26.0	74	61.7	22	18.3
	Accounting and finance	7	15.9	28	63.6	9	20.5
c. Be Verbs	General Education	9	25.0	24	66.7	3	8.3
	Law & Legal	25	20.8	80	66.7	15	12.5
	Accounting and finance	12	27.3	27	61.4	5	11.4
d. Articles	General Education	4	11.1	25	69.4	7	19.4
	Law & Legal	4	3.3	99	82.5	17	14.2
	Accounting and finance	2	4.5	31	70.5	11	25.0
e. Simple present tense	General Education	4	11.1	26	72.2	6	16.7
	Law & Legal	13	10.8	87	72.5	20	16.7
	Accounting and finance	5	11.4	26	72.2	6	16.7
f. Prepositions	General Education	1	2.8	35	97.2	0	0.0
	Law & Legal	11	9.2	93	77.5	16	13.3
	Accounting and finance	2	4.5	36	81.8	6	13.6
g. Short responses	General Education	3	8.3	30	83.3	3	8.3
	Law & Legal	17	14.2	96	80.0	7	5.8
	Accounting and finance	3	6.8	36	81.8	5	11.4
h. Reported speech	General Education	5	13.9	28	77.8	3	8.3
	Law & Legal	24	20.0	89	74.2	7	5.8
	Accounting and finance	7	15.9	32	72.7	5	11.4
	General Education	5	13.9	25	69.4	6	16.7

i. Sentence pattern	Law & Legal	27	22.5	70	58.3	23	19.2
	Accounting and finance	9	20.5	30	68.2	5	11.4
j. Voices	General Education	0	0.0	31	86.1	5	13.9
	Law & Legal	9	7.5	107	89.2	4	3.3
	Accounting and finance	5	11.4	35	79.5	4	9.1
k. In toto	General Education	9	25.0	20	55.6	7	19.4
	Law & Legal	24	20.0	75	62.5	21	17.5
	Accounting and finance	6	13.6	32	72.7	6	13.6

It is inferred from the above table (7) that a high percentage of 52.8%, 53.3% and 54.5% of General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students have a moderate level of errors in spelling. 72.2%, 61.7% and 63.6% of them have a moderate level of errors in superlative forms. 66.7%, 66.7% and 61.4% of them have a moderate level of errors in 'Be' verbs. 69.4%, 82.5% and 70.5% of them have a moderate level of errors in articles. 72.2%, 72.5% and 77.3% of them have a moderate level of errors in the simple present tense. 97.2%, 77.5% and 81.8% of them have a moderate level of errors in prepositions. 83.3%, 80.0% and 81.8% of them have a moderate level of errors in short responses. 77.8%, 74.2% and 72.7% of them have a moderate level of errors in reported speech. 69.4%, 58.3% and 68.2% of them have a moderate level of errors in sentence pattern. 86.1%, 89.2% and 79.5% of them have a moderate level of errors in Voices. 55.6%, 62.5% and 72.7% of them have a moderate level of errors in English.

Hypotheses Testing

Null hypothesis – 1

There is no significant difference between boys and girls of beginners of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

Table 8

Difference Between Boys and Girls of Beginner of LFU in their Level of Common Errors Committed in English Language Speaking with Regard to all Dimensions

Dimensions	Category				Calculated 't' value	Remarks at 5% level
	Boys		Girls			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
a. Spelling	3.42	1.11	3.93	1.01	3.42	S
b. Superlative forms	3.20	1.04	3.62	0.96	2.92	S
c. 'Be' verbs	2.96	0.96	3.25	0.95	2.20	S
d. Articles	2.72	0.99	2.91	0.81	1.45	NS
e. Simple present tense	2.60	1.00	2.62	1.05	0.11	NS
f. Prepositions	2.56	1.12	3.20	1.09	4.08	S
g. Short responses	2.53	0.88	2.31	0.98	1.65	NS
h. Reported speech	2.36	0.84	2.21	1.11	1.09	NS
i. Sentence pattern	2.36	1.09	2.35	1.22	0.03	NS
j. Voices	2.05	1.08	1.71	1.04	2.29	S
k. In toto	26.77	5.42	28.11	5.44	1.75	NS

(At 5% level of significance, the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table (8) that the calculated 't' values for 1 (a, b, c, f, j) are greater than the table value (1.96) at a 5% level of significance. Hence the null hypotheses 1(a, b, c, f & j) are rejected. Since the calculated 't' values for 1 (d, e, g, h, I & k) are less than the table value (1.96) at 5% level of significance, the null hypotheses 1(d, e, g, h, i, & k) are accepted.

Null hypothesis – 2

There is no significant difference between Sub Urban and urban students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

Table 9

Difference Between Suburban and Urban Students of Beginner of LFU in their Level of Common Errors Committed in English Language Speaking with Regard to all Dimensions

Dimensions	Category				Calculated 't' value	Remarks at 5% level
	Sub Urban		Urban			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
a. Spelling	3.48	0.97	3.85	1.15	2.49	S
b. Superlative forms	3.42	0.97	3.41	1.06	0.11	NS
c. 'Be' verbs	2.99	0.89	3.21	1.01	1.67	NS
d. Articles	2.78	0.88	2.85	0.94	0.54	NS
e. Simple present tense	2.62	0.75	2.60	1.21	0.13	NS
f. Prepositions	2.61	0.87	3.12	1.29	3.33	S
g. Short responses	2.55	0.63	2.31	1.13	1.96	S
h. Reported speech	2.47	0.89	2.12	1.03	2.55	S
i. Sentence pattern	2.51	1.04	2.22	1.23	1.80	S
j. Voices	1.96	1.06	1.81	1.08	0.99	NS
k. In toto	27.39	5.42	27.50	5.52	0.14	NS

(At 5% level of significance, the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table (9) that the calculated 't' values for 2 (a, f, g, h & I) are greater than the table value (1.96) at a 5% level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis 2(a, f, g, h, & i) is rejected. Since the calculated 't' values for 2 (b, c, d, e, j & k) are less than the table value (1.96) at 5% level of significance, the null hypotheses 2(b, c, d, e, j & k) are accepted.

Null hypothesis -3

There is no significant difference between Kurdish and English medium students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

Table 10

Difference Between Kurdish and English Medium Students of Beginner of LFU in their Level of Common Errors Committed in English Language Speaking with Regard to All Dimensions

Dimensions	Category				Calculated 't' value	Remarks at 5% level
	Kurdish		English			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
a. Spelling	3.68	1.11	3.68	1.07	0.05	NS
b. Superlative forms	3.45	0.94	3.38	1.10	0.51	NS
c. 'Be' verbs	3.02	0.95	3.20	0.97	1.36	NS
d. Articles	2.74	0.78	2.91	1.03	1.33	NS
e. Simple present tense	2.44	1.08	2.79	0.93	2.42	S
f. Prepositions	3.06	1.27	2.70	0.97	2.23	S
g. Short responses	2.13	0.98	2.72	0.79	4.75	S
h. Reported speech	2.02	1.12	2.55	0.73	3.99	S
i. Sentence pattern	2.10	1.08	2.62	1.17	3.28	S
j. Voices	1.55	0.99	2.21	1.06	4.59	S
k. In toto	26.18	4.76	28.78	5.84	3.44	S

(At 5% level of significance, the table value of 't' is 1.96)

It is inferred from the above table (10) that the calculated 't' values for 3 (a, b, c, d) are less than the table value (1.96) at a 5% level of significance. Hence the null hypotheses 3 (a, b, c, & d) are accepted. Since the calculated 't' values for 3 (e, f, g, h, i, I & k) are greater than the table value (1.96) at 5% level of significance, the null hypotheses 3 (e, f, g, i, j & k) are rejected.

Null hypothesis – 4

There is no significant difference among General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

Table 11

The difference among General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and Finance Students of Beginner of LFU in their Level of Common Errors Committed in English Language Speaking with Regard to all Dimensions

Dimensions	Source of variation	Df	Sum of squares	Mean square variance	Calculated 'F' value	Remarks at 5% level
a. Spelling	Between	2	5.29	2.65	2.24	NS
	Within	197	232.23	1.18		
b. Superlative forms	Between	2	0.56	0.28	0.27	NS
	Within	197	207.99	1.06		
c. Be Verbs	Between	2	1.28	0.64	0.68	NS
	Within	197	184.3	0.94		
d. Articles	Between	2	2.67	1.34	1.60	NS
	Within	197	164.85	0.84		
e. Simple present tense	Between	2	0.93	0.47	0.44	NS
	Within	197	208.65	1.06		
f. Prepositions	Between	2	5.00	2.50	1.91	NS
	Within	197	257.36	1.31		
g. Short responses	Between	2	4.61	2.31	2.64	NS
	Within	197	172.11	0.87		
h. Reported speech	Between	2	4.25	2.12	2.20	NS
	Within	197	190.07	0.96		
i. Sentence pattern	Between	2	3.15	1.58	1.17	NS
	Within	197	264.64	1.34		
j. Voices	Between	2	4.60	2.30	1.99	NS
	Within	197	227.27	1.15		
k. In toto	Between	2	30.56	15.28	0.51	NS
	Within	197	5960.94	30.26		

(At 5% level of significance, the table value is 3.03)

It is inferred from the above table (11) that all the calculated 'F' values for 4 (a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j and k) are less than the table value (3.03) at 5% level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted.

Null hypothesis – 5

There is no significant association between the Annual Income and the level of common errors committed by Beginner of LFU students in English Language Speaking with regard to their background variables.

Table 12

Association Between Annual Income and the Level of Common Errors Committed by Beginner of LFU Students in English Language Speaking with Regard to all Dimensions

Dimensions	Category Annual Income	Low	Moderate	High	Calculated χ^2 value	Remarks at 5% level
a. Spelling	Below USD 9,999	14(16)	43(48)	32(26)	6.38	NS
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	18(15)	50(45)	17(25)		
	Above USD 20,000	3(5)	14(14)	9(8)		
b. Superlative forms	Below USD 9,999	13(17)	63(57)	13(15)	5.34	NS
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	22(17)	47(54)	16(14)		
	Above USD 20,000	4(5)	18(17)	6(4)		
c. 'Be' verbs	Below USD 9,999	19(20)	62(58)	8(11)	3.32	NS

	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	20(20)	54(56)	11(10)		
	Above USD 20,000	7(6)	15(17)	4(3)		
d. Articles	Below USD 9,999	2(4)	76(69)	11(16)	6.82	NS
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	7(4)	61(66)	17(15)		
	Above USD 20,000	1(1)	18(20)	7(5)		
e. Simple present tense	Below USD 9,999	14(10)	62(65)	13(14)	10.16	S
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	8(9)	67(62)	10(13)		
	Above USD 20,000	0(3)	18(19)	8(4)		
f. Prepositions	Below USD 9,999	8(6)	63(73)	18(10)	16.43	S
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	5(6)	78(70)	2(9)		
	Above USD 20,000	1(2)	23(21)	2(3)		
g. Short Responses	Below USD 9,999	18(10)	68(72)	3(7)	24.51	S
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	2(10)	77(69)	6(6)		
	Above USD 20,000	3(3)	17(21)	6(2)		

h. Reported speech	Below USD 9,999	24(16)	59 (66)	6 (7)	11.05	S
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	11(15)	66(63)	8(6)		
	Above USD 20,000	1(5)	24(19)	1(2)		
i. Sentence pattern	Below USD 9,999	25(18)	55(56)	9(15)	9.03	NS
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	12(17)	54(53)	19(14)		
	Above USD 20,000	4(5)	16(16)	6(4)		
j. Voices	Below USD 9,999	12(6)	76(77)	1(6)	17.54	S
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	2(6)	73(74)	10(6)		
	Above USD 20,000	0(2)	24(22)	2(2)		
k. In toto	Below USD 9,999	18(17)	61(57)	10(15)	7.89	NS
	From USD 10,000 to USD 19,999	17(17)	53(54)	15(14)		
	Above USD 20,000	4(5)	13(17)	9(4)		

(The table value of chi-square at 5% level of significance, and df 4 is 9.49)

It is inferred from the above table (12) that the calculated 'χ^2' values for 11 (e, f, g, h & j) are greater than the table value (9.49) at a 5% level of significance. Hence the null hypotheses 11 (e, f, g, h & j) are rejected. Since the calculated 'χ^2' values for

11 (a, b, c, d, I & k) are less than the table value (9.49) at 5% level of significance, the null hypotheses 11 (a, b, c, d, i & k) are accepted.

Major Findings

1. The level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by boys and girls of Beginner of LFU with respect to the dimensions - spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, simple present tense, prepositions, short responses, reported speech, sentence pattern, voices and in toto is moderate.

2. The level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by the Sub Urban and urban of Beginner of LFU with respect to the dimensions - spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, simple present tense, prepositions, Short responses, reported speech, sentence pattern, voices and in toto is moderate.

3. The level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by the Kurdish and English medium students of Beginner of LFU with respect to the dimensions - spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, simple present tense, prepositions, short responses, reported speech, sentence pattern, voices and in toto is moderate.

4. The level of common errors in English Language Speaking committed by the General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students of Beginner of LFU with respect to the dimensions - spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, simple present tense, prepositions, short responses, reported speech, sentence pattern, voices and in toto is moderate.

5. a. There is a significant difference between boys and girls of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to – spelling, superlative forms, 'Be' verbs, prepositions, voices.
   b. There is no significant difference between boys and girls of beginners of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to – articles, simple present tense, short responses, reported speech, sentence pattern and in toto.

6. a. There is a significant difference between Sub Urban and urban students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to – spelling, prepositions, short response, reported speech and sentence pattern.

b. There is no significant difference between Sub Urban and urban students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to - superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, simple present tense, voices and in toto.

7.   a. There is a significant difference between Kurdish and English medium students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to - simple present tense, prepositions, short responses, reported speech, sentence pattern, voices and in toto.

b. There is no significant difference between Kurdish and English medium students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to – spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles.

8.   There is no significant difference among General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students of Beginner of LFU in their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking with regard to – spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, simple present tense, prepositions, short responses, reported speech, voices and in toto.

9.   a. There is a significant association between annual income and the level of common errors committed by the Beginner of LFU students in English Language Speaking with regard to simple present tense, prepositions, short response, reported speech and voices.

b. There is no significant association between annual income and the level of common errors committed by the Beginner of LFU students in English Language Speaking with regard to–spelling, superlative forms, Be verbs, articles, sentence patterns and in toto.

Interpretations

The level of common errors committed by the Beginner of LFU students in English Language Speaking is moderate. This may be due to the reason that the method of teaching at the secondary level is not up to the mark to reduce common errors committed by them. The 't' test result shows that the sex of the students has no influence over their level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking as there is no significant difference between boys and girls. It may be due to the fact that in this modern world there is no discrimination of boys and girls in education.

The analysis shows that there is a significant difference between Sub Urban and urban students of Beginner of LFU. The urban students fared well than the Sub Urban students. This may be the reason that the Sub Urban students are not exposed to the usage of English Language Speaking like the urban students. Comparing the students of the Kurdish medium with English medium, English medium students are better than the Kurdish medium students. This is the fact that the English medium students have a good opportunity to learn the language whereas the Kurdish medium students do not.

According to the 'F' test result, there is no significant difference among General Education, Law & Legal and Accounting and finance students in their level common errors committed in the English language. This shows that the students have more opportunities to use the language in their studies. The χ^2 result shows that there is no significant association between the annual income and the common errors committed by the Beginner of LFU students in the English language. The total income of the family has no responsibility for the students committing errors in the foreign language.

Suggestions

The following suggestions are submitted to rectify the errors committed.

1. Above-average students may adversely affect the tone of the class, therefore the attainment of the class should be uniform. Those who have facilities for learning English at home should not be allowed to show off in the class.

2. The translation method of teaching English should be discarded and the direct method should be adopted. Teachers and students should speak only English during English lesson period.

3. Enough opportunities should be provided for the students to express their ideas even in broken sentences. Once the students gain confidence in speaking English, they can master the language skill by degrees.

Conclusion

The study reveals that the level of common errors committed in English Language Speaking by the Beginners of LFU students is moderate. To learn a foreign language, encouragement must be given to the students in any essential form.

"Practice makes a man perfect" – The students must be provided with the situations to compete for the usage of language. Language learning requires committing errors and rectifies themselves (Bartholomae, 1980). Teachers can act as a guide by the side.

Through this study, the teachers who teach the English language to the non-native speakers should observe the errors committed by the learners while speaking and be corrected with diagnostic and prognostic evolution in the classroom. It can be applied as a strategy to reduce the errors committed by the graduates while speaking the English language without common errors.

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The Effectiveness of Contextual Teaching and Learning Approach on the Students' Argumentative Writing Skills

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Abstract

This research is designed specifically to measure the effectiveness of contextual teaching and learning approach (learning community technique and inquiry learning technique) on the students' argumentative writing skills at students of English Language Education Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Riau University. Based on the result of preliminary observation which show that students learning outcome was still quite low and

there were some problems that arise related to the result of their writing skills that still have not achieved the expected aims. This research used quantitative approach, with quasi experimental design that involved the number of samples in this research were 60 students divided into two classes, experimental class and control class. For the data collecting technique, this research used argumentative writing skills test after students participated in the contextual teaching and learning approach. Data garnered from the experimental research was described with descriptive analysis, followed by subsequent inferential analysis involving a series of normality and homogeneity tests, ANOVA analysis was utilized using students' score of argumentative writing skills as the covariate variable. The research result shows that there is significant difference on the students' of argumentative writing skills between the experimental and control classes. This result also revealed that community learning technique is better applied than inquiry learning technique in the teaching and learning process of argumentative writing skills

Keywords: learning community, inquiry, writing argumentative skills

Introduction

The process of acquiring a language is not a simple process, but there are stages that have to be passed by someone, especially those who want to master second language. In learning languages both Indonesian and English there are four components of language skills that have to be mastered, the four components include: (1) listening skill; (2) speaking skill; (3) reading skill; and (4) writing skill. Based on the four components of language skills, writing is one of the important skills to be mastered because writing is a productive and expressive activity in doing communication. However, the activity of writing skill is a language skill that have to be mastered by students, because writing is one aspect of language skills that has been recommended in the curriculum of educational institutions like schools and universities to develop educator science itself.

Related to the activity of writing English skills, for Indonesian EFL learners there are still a number of problems, especially for students in writing English texts. Those problems can be caused by a variety of reasons, such as a lack of knowledge about writing English skills which includes understanding vocabulary, language structure and organizational of sentences in each paragraph. Besides that, in writing English text students are required to have initial knowledge related to what topics will be developed in an English text. Another problem that

cannot be avoided is that there are some students who have low motivation in carrying out English writing activities. Based on the opinion of Pangilinan (2015, p. 46), that the lack of preparedness of the student, alongside his poor argumentative and grammar skills and insufficient knowledge, all play an important role in the soundness or weakness of his argumentation. This means that all aspects can have an impact on the result of writing skills.

For students who have good writing skills can develop their skills to be able to produce quality of English texts and can evaluate other English texts, in line with the opinion of Ahour and Golpour (2014, p. 541) who stated that among learners that acquire writing skill professionally some can write more analytically and evaluate some texts more precisely. Writing skills certainly become a difficult skill to be understood by everyone, because in writing skill the writer is required to be able to produce a product of language that can be seen as a series of words. Of course, this is different form with receptive skills. This is supported by Harmer's (1991, p. 265) opinion that productive skills are speaking and writing because they are related with language products, while receptive skills are reading and listening because they are related with the recipient of the message.

Those problems require appropriate solution, one of the solutions to those problems is selection of material delivery techniques in teaching and learning process. In this case, lecturer is required not only to be able to master the conventional learning approach but also to be able to master modern learning approaches. The application of the modern learning approach in learning writing English skills will encourage students in the class to be more active and productive in learning and practicing language so that they are not only focused on understanding the theory, but students can also practice it directly.

Related to the modern learning approach, contextual teaching and learning approach is a learning concept that helps educators or lecturers to associate between material taught with students' real world situations and encourage them to make the connection between their knowledge and application in their live as family members and society. So that it is expected that the uses of contextual learning approach can help to solve students' problems in learning to write English texts.

Literature Review

Writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master than difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas but also in translating these ideas into readable text (Richards and Renandya, 2002, p. 303). The process of writing is not a process that can be

quickly carried out and can immediately get results, but the process of writing is a very complex process that involves thinking processes in order to produce good ideas to be expressed in a series of words so become a good written language for readers.

The most important thing to note in argumentative writing according to Renkema (2004, p. 203) is that listeners or readers must be convinced of something. This is an important purpose of argumentative writing text, therefore each writer is required to be able and skilled to produce a written form that can convince the reader with the concept or opinion from the writer.

Reid (2000, p. 4) formulated seven main formats of argumentative text; 1) Introduction & Thesis statement, 2) Background, 3) Pro argument 1, 4) Pro argument 2, 5) Pro argument 3, 6) Con argument & refutation, 7) Conclusion (including solution) While in the writing process Richard and Renandya (2002, p. 303) divided the four main steps, those are planning, drafting, editing and revising. Harmer (2007, p. 326) divides the writing stages into four steps; pre-writing, editing, re-drafting and final work. In research journal it is said that in writing argumentative text, the writer has to involve five stages which include; prewriting, drafting, revising, editing and publishing (Fadhly and Ratnaningsih, 2017, p. 237). Based on the several stages that were described above, they have important roles and stages in making text on English language argumentative, which begin with the general stages and starting from the stages of planning, drafting, and improvement. So the results of argumentative text will be appropriate and acceptable to the reader.

Contextual teaching and learning approach is a learning concept that helps educators or lecturers to associate the material taught with students' real world situations and encourage them to make connections between their knowledge and application in their lives as family members and society (Depdiknas, 2002, p. 1). Contextual learning is a concept that helps lecturers to associate the content of subjects/courses to real world situations and motivate students to make connections between their knowledge and its application in daily life (Rofii and Franscy, 2018, p. 9). In the implementation of contextual teaching and learning approach, the lecturer or teacher can choose and use several teaching techniques which includes; (1) constructivism, (2) inquiry, (3) Questioning, (4) learning community, (5) modeling, (6) reflection, and (7) authentic assessment. From the several of contextual teaching learning techniques, the researchers only chose two form techniques for this research that were learning community technique and inquiry learning technique.

Learning community is also interpreted as a learning process by prioritizing the process of cooperation between students and groups. Supported by Musmur's (2007, p. 46) opinion that learning community can occur if learning outcomes are obtained from cooperation with other people. This means that learning outcomes can be obtained by sharing between students, between groups, and between those who know who do not know, both inside and outside the classroom.

The learning process will run significantly if done in study groups, both homogeneous and heterogeneous, so that there will be sharing problems, sharing information, sharing experiences and sharing problem solving, which allows more and more knowledge and skills to be obtained (Hanafia and Suhana, 2009, p. 74). In applying learning community technique, the lecturer has to monitor students work in groups. It is expected that there are not students tend to be dominant in the group, because this technique will work well if there are two-way or multi-directional communication and there is no dominant party in the group.

While inquiry learning is learner-centered learning and emphasizes more on thinking skills consisting of several parts including analysis and problem solving. Creative inventions and activities are done in the classroom or in the community, the most important in inquiry learning is that students are responsible for the data process that they are working on with the results of their purpose.

Where this is supported by Sanjaya's opinion which states that there are several things that are the main characteristics of inquiry learning technique; First is emphasizes the activities of students maximally seeking and discovering, essentially placing students as subjects of learning. Second is the activities carried out by students are directed to search and find out something in question, which means that in inquiry learning teacher place his self not only as learning resources but also as facilitators and student motivators, and third is to develop intellectual skills as part of mental processes and students are required to be able use the potential they have (2011, p. 196).

By selecting two learning techniques (learning community and inquiry learning), it is expected that the learning process of writing English argumentative skills will be more effective and can achieve the expected learning purposes.

Methodology

This research employed experimental design that dealt with the effectiveness of contextual teaching and learning approach on the students' argumentative writing skills. This research used quantitative approach, with quasi experimental design was conducted at students of the English Language Education Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Riau University.

This research involved the number of samples were sixty students divided into two classes, experimental class and control class. thirty students who participated in learning community technique and thirty students who participated in inquiry learning technique. The main purpose is to analyze the students' argumentative writing skills by applying contextual teaching and learning approach which has divided into learning community technique and inquiry learning technique. It is expected that this can help and give contribute to the learning of English language, mainly in the process of writing English agumentative to get maximum results.

This experiment consist of two steps. The first steps includes planning, forming and developing contextual learning material. The second steps involves implementation and the activity of contextual teaching and learning approach at the related to the students.

Data from the research results of argumentative writing skills was taken from post-test score which was carried out at the end of the research or in other words without consider from the pre-test score. Post-test was carried out using instrument of argumentative writing skill that had gone through the testing stage of validity test and reliability test. In processing the data, this research used descriptive analysis and inferential statistics with parametric statistical technique. The use of parametric statistical technique requires a prerequisite test of data analysis which includes normality test and homogeneity test. The normality test of the data used Liliefors test, while the homogeneity test used Bartlett test. Hypothesis testing used two-way Anava test with F-test at 0.05 significance level.

Result and Discussion

Post-test data was obtained from test of argumentative writing skills after implemented learning community technique in the experimental class and inquiry learning technique in the

control class. The data description of average score, variance and standard deviation in Table 1.

Tabel 1. Data on Argumentative Writing Skills with Community Learning Technique A_1 and Inquiry Learning Technique A_2

Learning Techniques	Mean	Varians	Std. Deviasi	N
Learning Community	80,1	8,51	8,65	30
Inquiry	78,23	6,14	6,25	30

Based on table 1, it shows that the average score of groups of students who learn using learning community technique (80.1) is greater than the average score in the group of students who learn using inquiry learning technique (78.23).

Hypothesis testing was carried out after fulfilling the parametric assumption of data. The testing of parametric assumption was carried out with normality test and homogeneity test. The normality test was conducted to find out whether the data is normally distributed or fulfill the normal curve while the purpose of homogeneity test is to determine whether the variance values in the sample groups are homogeneous. The Data normality test is presented in table 2.

Tabel 1. Normality Test Result with Lilifors Test

Data	N	Normal Parameter		L_{count}	$L_{table\ 0.05}$	Result
		Mean	SD			
A_1	30	80,1	8,50	0,156	0,161	Normal
A_2	30	78,23	6,26	0,117	0,161	Normal

Based on the result of the data calculation of normality test on the learning community technique (A1), obtained the value of Lcount = 0.156. This value is smaller than Ltabel (n = 30, α = 0.05) = 0.161. Because Lcount = 0.156 < Ltabel = 0.161, it can be concluded that the data on learning community technique (A1) comes from population that is normally distributed. The result of the calculation of the data normality test on the inquiry learning technique (A2), obtained the value of Lcount = 0.117. This value is smaller than Ltabel (n = 30, α = 0.05) = 0.161. Because Lcount = 0.117 < Ltabel = 0.161, it can be concluded that the data on the inquiry learning technique (A2) comes from population that is normally distributed. The data homogeneity test is presented in table 3.

Tabel 3. Homogeneity Test Result with Bartlett Test

Sample Group	Number of Sample	x^2_{count}	x^2_{table}	Result
A₁ & A₂	60	3,247	18,31	Homogeny

Testing of variance homogeneity on the two treatment groups (A1 and A2) was done by calculating the value of x^2_{count} by dividing A1 variance with A2 variance from two groups of data, then compared with the value of x^2_{table} at the chosen significance level. The calculation result obtained $x\_count^2 = 3.247$. At the level of significance α = 0.05 and dk = 10, the value of $x\_table^2 = 18.31$. So that $x\_count^2 = 3.247 < x\_table^2 = 18.31$. This proves that the variance of data groups between learning community technique and inquiry learning technique (A1 and A2) are the same or homogeneous.

Hypothesis testing was done by analyzing the data of writing English argumentative skills test using contextual teaching and learning approach. The analysis technique used variance analysis (ANAVA) two lines. The result is presented in table 4.

Tabel 4. ANOVA Test Result

Source of Variance	db	JK	RJK= JK/db	Fh= Rk/RKD	F$_{table}$ (0,05)
Interline (b)	b – 1 2 – 1 = 1	JK A (b) = 86,33	86,33	**10,69***	**4,01**

The result of two-way ANOVA calculation shows that group of students who participated with learning community technique (A1 group) have an average value = 80.1, while group of students who participated with inquiry learning technique (A2 group) have an average value = 78, 23. So, the ANOVA test above showed that the result of writing English argumentative skills for group of students who participated in the learning community technique is higher

than the result of writing English argumentative skills for group of students who participated in inquiry learning technique.

The calculation result shows that the value of Fcount = 10.69, is greater than the value of Ftable = 4.01 for the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ n = 30 so it can be concluded that the value of Fcount = 10.69 > Ftable = 4.01. This result indicates that H0 is rejected and Ha is accepted, so there is a significant difference between groups of students who participated in learning community technique with students participated with in inquiry learning technique for writing English argumentative skills.

Through the result of this research it has been proven that learning community technique (A1) is better applied to the learning process of writing English argumentative skills compared to inquiry learning technique (A2). The reason that underlying this fact, although the two learning techniques are learning techniques that exist in contextual teaching and learning approach, but learning community technique gives contribute more positively to the learning process of students' English argumentative writing. The positive contribution and excellence of this learning technique is supported by the following factors.

First, the implementation learning community technique was done by dividing students into group of study and each member in that group have to have a sense of responsibility to the group or members of their respective groups. The function of responsibility here is that each member in each group has the equal responsibilities and roles to provide assistance or teaching assistance to group members. If members in each group have difficulty in understanding the material, members who are perceived to understand the material can provide assistance to each group member.

Second, learning community technique provides many opportunities for each lecturer and student, both students in the group and outside the group to conduct a joint discussion process with group members or other group members in the class. So through the discussion process lecturer and students can exchange idea and knowledge to be able to solve problems related to the material in class to improve their understanding toward a better direction.

Third, learning community technique can be categorized as one of the learning technique that is easily implemented at all levels of students and also easily used in the process of delivering material, especially in improving students' English argumentative writing.

Therefor the hypothesis test can be concluded that the group of students who participated the class of learning community technique, their score in writing English argumentative skills (A1) is higher than the group of students who participated the class of inquiry learning technique (A1). However, the Inquiry learning technique also gives positive contribute to the students, but the result is not as maximal as the uses of learning community technique.

Conclusion

Based on the result of data analysis, the researcher stated that the English argumentative writing skills of students' group who participated the class of learning community technique is higher than students' group who participated the class of inquiry learning technique. The research result gives implication that the used of contextual teaching and learning approach with learning community technique and inquiry learning technique have a significant influence on the learning outcomes of students' English argumentative writing skills.

This research also gives the planning process and the development of contextual teaching and learning approach that used in the learning process of English argumentative writing skills. The used of learning community technique and inquiry learning technique had different result. Students' score who participated with learning community technique their English writing argumentative skills better than students who participated with inquiry learning technique.

Pedagogical Implication

There are two research implications that can be recommended based on the result of the current study. One of the research implication is the need for training on the application of learning community and inquiry learning techniques to determine performance of contextual teaching and learning process. In addition, continued research that investigate the influence of learning community and inquiry learning techniques is necessary due to the inconsistency of result. Contextual teaching and learning approach (learning community, inquiry learning) produced in future research study should be assessed for accuracy and used as a measure of students knowledge. In regard to educational implication, the most significant implication is that the learning community technique and inquiry learning technique are valuable in raising students' argumentative writing skills

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The Empowerment of Facebook
in Language Learning at The University

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Abstract

The society and the government are concerned about the development of social media abuse, such as Facebook, Instagram and Youtube. The misappropriation of social media can potentially divide the nation's unity with the spreading of hoax news. It's as if the ITE Law that was authorized in 2008 cannot stop the abuse of social media. Although several people have

been punished due to violating the ITE Law. Even though social media can be empowered as a media in language learning. Social media can help students' in the process of language learning, especially related to students' participation and discussion toward the results of student creativity products in the teaching and learning process. The purpose of this research is to applying Facebook as a media to increase students' participation and creativity in language learning. The methodology used in this research is an experiment with using *Facebook* to discuss student tasks collectively without limits of space and time. The data collection techniques use observation, interview and documentation. The data analysis technique that used to compare the level of understanding of students with three learning models namely teacher learning, student learning and a combination model that empowers Facebook as a media for language learning. This research only compares the level of students' participation and knowledge of the assignments that given to them. For more details about the research design.

Keywords: *social media, Facebook, language learning*.

Introduction

The education world provides innovative breakthroughs in the learning process. All this time, there are two known learning models. First, learning model which is dominated by teachers known as Teacher Centered Learning. Teacher-centered approach relied on the behaviourist theory which was based on the idea that behaviour changes are caused by external stimuli (Skinner, 1974). According to the theory students are passive and respond to environmental stimuli. In teacher-centered classrooms, the teacher is in charge of learning; therefore, he/she transmits knowledge to the students. As the teacher holds the ultimate authority, the students do not collaborate. In a teacher centered, control has been priority in classrooms for that reason; teacher-centeredness has received criticism for favoring passive students rather than active ones in the classroom (Freiberg, 1999). It should be noted that the primary goal in the classroom is to empower learning. In this respect, in order for teachers to maintain control over students, they need to ensure that they enable the students to participate actively in the classroom.

Second, learning model that is centered on students known as Student Centered Learning. In student centered classrooms, teachers avoid transmissions of knowledge directly. Rather, students relating it to prior knowledge and by discussing it with others (Brophy, 1999). Students are provided opportunities to learn independently in student-centered learning

and they are involved in the activities, materials and content. Creation of meaning comes to the fore in student-centered learning and learning is influenced by the prior knowledge. Student-centeredness focus on cooperative learning in which a group of students work together to complete a given task for that reason it enhances student-to-student interaction (Condelli & Wrigley, 2009).

These two learning models have advantages and disadvantages. The basic disadvantage is the adequacy of time to transfer knowledge to the level of completeness, either individual or group of individual. Likewise, the opportunity for active participation, both in asking and answering for teachers or students. In generally, the increasing the ability of students to master learning material is only understood by teachers or lecturers. It is better if students have to know the task level of mastery and ability of other students. By knowing the abilities of other students, it will be an individual learning process in improving and refining the mastery of learning material provided by the teacher.

TCL and SCL Learning Models need to be mastered by teacher. By mastering these two learning models, teacher can innovate by utilizing technology as a medium of learning. Students can also take the advantage of these learning models and find the solutions of these learning models weakness. One way to overcome the weakness of these learning models is by utilizing technology. Hermanto (2017) explains that the use of learning media created by technological developments now day adds to the innovation of teachers in learning. The existence of the internet and other technological developments have made it easier for educators and students to access information. Learning media that uses the facilities of internet development and technology are very good choice for the world of education. There is no limit on access the information in the internet world is very helpful to facilitate the use of ideal learning media.

The development of educational technology cannot be separated from the development of technology in general. Various educational devices and modern educational facilities also support the optimization of the learning process, both at the school level and in daily life. Development of technological, especially information and communication technology, offer a variety of facilities in learning, which enable a shift in learning orientation from the process of presenting various knowledge into a process of guidance in conducting individual exploration of science. One of the technologies in education is the utilization of social media. In now day, Social media is widely used in the education process, where the teaching and learning process is no longer limited with classrooms, distance, and time. Social media in its sequel not only teaches how a communication and information technology has an impact, but also teaches how

a communication technology is absorbed and adopted (Bandura, 2001). The use of social media is very trend in the society. Age, gender and even any work do not measure social media usage. There are even those who abuse the use of social media for negative things, such as the spread of hoax news. This has become a problematic in the international world. Social media should be used for positive things, such as facilitating communication and transformation in the world of education.

Social media is a form of technology that can complement the TCL and SCL learning models. The purpose of the researchers to conduct this research was to carry out experiments on the use of TCL and SCL as a whole, and the learning models that utilizes social media to overcome the limitations of time in prescribing learning material especially on psychomotor aspect. Social media that used in developing innovative learning model is Facebook. Innovation through social media was done by the researchers by combining TCL and SCL learning models with Facebook. The level of successful of this learning innovation was by comparing the TCL and SCL learning models based on the level of student participation.

Research on the effectiveness of TCL and SCL learning models on students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has been conducted by Ramadhani (2017) at Untag Surabaya. The result of his research explained that there were no differences in intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation on psychology students of Untag Surabaya, academic year 2014/2015 who received the SCL (student center learning) and TCL (teacher center learning) learning methods. Next is the research on the SCL learning model was conducted by Antika (2014). She conducted her research at Baitul 'Izzah Islamic Middle School. From this research result obtained that learning strategies applied by Baitul 'Izzah Islamic Middle School in the SCL learning process, namely (1) Active Learning, learning oriented to student activities (2) Contextual Learning, learning strategies with real life of students. The obstacles that arise in the SCL-based learning process come from inside and outside factors. The obstacles that arise from inside are the existence of students who are passive and not all material subjects can prioritize the activity of students, especially the material about the basic formula. Obstacles that arise from the outside are the lack of available infrastructure and government attention and also a lack of students' parent knowledge of the actual learning process. Then, the SCL learning model research was also conducted by Hermanto and Rina (2017). This research describes the learning outcomes of students who use the Student Center Learning (SCL) based on Google for Education learning media better than students who do not use Google for Education.

Furthermore, research that using Facebook as a learning media was conducted by Stewart and Brenda (2015). This research discusses about Japanese and Malaysian students

who participated in online intercultural exchanges using Facebook. The next research was conducted by Inayati (2015) who stated that Social Media Technology (SMT) has given a big influence on many aspects of life. This survey research looked at ELT faculty members from language center at leading private universities in Indonesia. The result shows that Facebook and YouTube are the types of SMT that are most often used by members of the language center faculty. In addition, the analysis shows that, although most faculty members are aware of the benefits of SMT in teaching and using various SMTs for various personal and professional needs, they are reluctant to use it in class.

Angoluan (2018) conducted a research with the purpose to describe how nonverbal cues are expressed in computer-mediated communication (CMC) such as Facebook posts where everything is written. The result of this research proved that language can accommodate the technology that used by a new generation of Facebook users to express themselves. This research becomes an important now because further research is being conducted to explore the use of computer-mediated communication in second language learning. Facebook was used by Chik and Breidbach (2011) in addition to wikis and Skype. Another study employing Facebook was conducted by Shih (2011), who taught an English writing course to a cohort of Taiwanese students. The findings suggest that Facebook integration in this English writing course contributed to improving the effectiveness and enjoyment in learning and, at the same time, offered additional learning modes that potentially improved students' English writing skills. Another study on Facebook in ELT was conducted by Hsu (2013) who found that students greatly exploited Facebook for various forms of English learning. In addition, almost all participants perceived Facebook as an effective platform for EFL learning.

Literature Review

Teacher Centered Learning (TCL)

TCL (Teacher Centered Learning) is a one-way learning method during the learning process, which is a learning model with more listening to material by lecturer in the classroom. In this TCL learning model, a teacher explains more about science from his perspective through lecturing, while students keep quiet, listen to or record the material by taking notes in class. Jacobs and Toh-Heng (2003) who explained that through the TCL method, the assessment focused on the shortcomings students had in achieving certain achievement targets and determined ways to shorten the distance of the target with the achievement of the real achievements of the students concerned. Meanwhile in the SCL method, students actively and

independently process themselves in self-assessment and conduct self-evaluations with teacher feedback guidelines. In the TCL setting, students' motivation in learning is more extrinsic because it relies on reward and punishment given by the teacher. Different condition is reached in the SCL class where students are encouraged to learn independently, work and learn to find many ideas, new knowledge and skills based on intrinsic motivation.

Research shows that motivation from inside is more effective than motivation from outside in an effort to achieve optimal learning outcomes. Motivation from the inside can be done by arousing feelings of curiosity, want to try, and a desire to progress and learn, while motivation from the outside can be done by giving rewards, namely punishment and praise. Educators are expected to be facilitator and develop effective communication with students as long as learning takes place, especially in directing students to be able to develop independence, cooperation, problem solving skills and understanding of self-superiority related to the tasks that must be done (Geven & Attard, 2012).

Another impact of the TCL learning system is that lecturer does not develop teaching materials and tend to be sober, especially if students tend to be passive and only as recipients of knowledge transfer. Lecturer begins to move to develop lecture materials by reading a lot of journals or downloading articles on the results of the latest research from the internet, if students have high creativity, ask many questions, or often invite discussion (Sudjana, 2005).

Hasibuan (2014) explains that the quality of learning carried out depends on the planning and implementation of the teacher's learning process. The task of the teacher is not merely teaching (teacher centered), but rather to teach students (student centered). Learning is essentially a process of interaction with all situations around individual students. Learning can be seen as a process directed at the goals and processes of doing through various learning experiences designed and prepared by the teacher. Learning can also be seen as a process of seeing, observing, and understanding something that is in the student body. Learning activity is carried out by teacher and student. Teacher behavior is teaching, and student behavior is learning. Learning behavior is related to designing and implementing learning models.

Student Centered Learning (CTL)

Learning is a process of developing creativity in thinking that can improve students' thinking skills and can improve and construct new knowledge as an effort to improve mastery and good development of recovery material. (Kurdi, 2009). Learning itself is divided into two, namely learning that focus on lecturer or learning that focus on student. Learning that focus on student is called Student Centered Learning (SCL), which according to Robert in 1983 is an

approach or development in term of learning in which students are required to choose not only what they want to learn but also how and why the material is learned. (2010).

Student Centered Learning is also defined as one way of learning that makes students an important part or main part or influences the content of the material, activities, and the material itself and influences the speed of learning. Through this learning method, students take the main role or become the center of the learning process, so whatever is related to student learning material must be independent in finding learning resources and references with guidance from the lecturer. Then the lecturer can also be called a facilitator whose role is to facilitate what students have been looking for. (Froyd, Jeffry. & Simpson, Nancy).

Compared to the Teacher Centered Learning (TCL) learning system which is centered on lecturer as a source of information, Student Centered Learning (SCL) makes students' understanding deeper and more specific about the fields they pursue by making students the center of learning, so that they can improve the quality of students itself. As a method of student-centered learning, there are some of the characteristics that distinguish SCL from other learning systems: (Harsono, 2008)

1. Active Learning

   Active learning is learning that occurs when students are given the opportunity to interact more with fellow students or with lecturer about the subject material they are facing, developing knowledge, and not just receiving information from lecturer.

2. Interactive Learning

   In interactive learning each student must do something, that related with the material being studied.

3. Independent Learning

   Independent learning is a student-centered learning approach in which the learning process and experience are organized and controlled by the students themselves.

4. Collaborative Learning

   Collaborative learning is a method that makes students from various backgrounds work together in small groups to achieve learning objectives in general. The students are jointly responsible for the learning process they carry out. The success of a student is the success of his friend.

5. Cooperative Learning

   In cooperative learning groups of students will acquire new knowledge with better quality, contextual and relevant when compared to individual or independent learning.

6. Contextual Learning

Contextual learning is a learning principle that combines content with the daily experience of individuals, communities and the environment. Contextual learning can increase self-confidence because it can understand the relationship between theory and practice. Contextual learning also fosters a group work approach to solving a problem. Practical skills / doing something (hands-on) and thinking (minds-on) are the principles of a contextual approach.

As a learning method that has different characteristics from other methods, Student centered learning has its own advantages and disadvantages. The following are the advantages and disadvantages of student-centered learning when compared to the Teacher centered learning method; (Ramdhani, 2014)

Advantages SCL compared to TCL

1. Students can be motivated to find new information.
2. Students can train themselves to dare to argue in groups.
3. Lecturers can add insight from things unknown and experienced before.
4. Students can build knowledge both individually and in group.
5. Lecturer has more roles as Facilitating, Empowering, Enabling and Guide on the Sides than as mentor in the centered.

Disadvantages SCL compared with TCL

1. Lecturer cannot provide a lot of materials because they are only facilitators.
2. SCL requires quiet room conditions, while the SCL strategy is relatively crowded and noisy due to discussion.
3. SCL requires a special room that is separate from other groups.
4. SCL requires a lot of media to gather information from outside such as the internet.

Facebook

Social media literally refers to any media that allows interaction among people. However, currently, the term has been given to a particular set of attributes that tend to narrow its meaning towards a range of networked tools that emphasize the social aspects of the Internet as a medium of communication (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 2012). Following Davis III et al.'s (2012) suggestion, the term social media technology is used to refer to web-based and mobile applications that allow users to create, engage, and share digital content through multi-

way communication. social media technology has been acknowledged to have contributed to a great shift in its practices (Dudeney & Hockly, 2012).

The way to use social media in order to trigger the quality of students is to take advantage of all the ease of communication and share information that the media has for the process of education or learning. Some social media can play a role in the world of education that can trigger the quality of students, including Facebook, Twitter, Blog, and YouTube. The quality of students can be better when utilizing social media as much as possible, by minimizing the negative impact. With the advent of Facebook, computer-mediated communication (CMC) has become deeply integrated into people's lives. Facebook which was created in 2004 "as a cross between a tool for meeting new people and a platform for networking with people you already know" (Baron, 2010) is currently one of the top social networking websites.

Wiguna (Sunarti, 2015) states that the social media Facebook is one of the trendiest forms of technology today, proven to be successful in diverting the attention of teenagers, especially from their intellectual activities. Facebook fever looks so real, it began in mid-2008 and peaked at or during 2009 until now. The use of Facebook by the Indonesian people reached a growth of 64.5% per year, beating China and India, which are the top ranks of the population in the world. For this reason, Indonesia is nicknamed The Republic of Facebook.
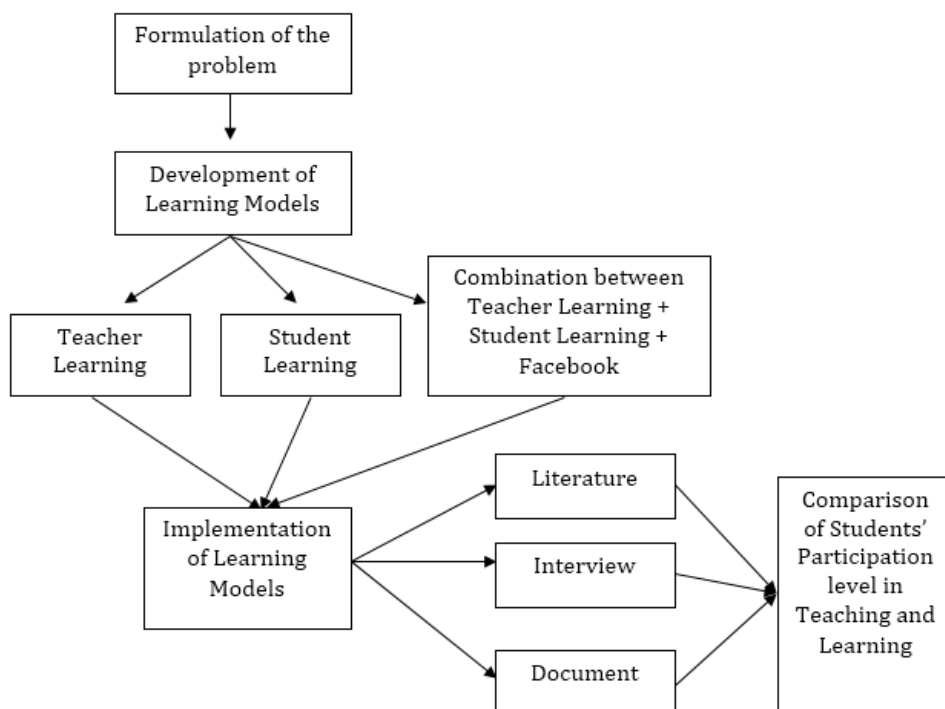
The number of social media users in Indonesia is increasing. This year, according to research from the media company 'We Are Social' in collaboration with 'Hootsuite', there are 150 million users of social media in Indonesia. That number increased by 20 million users compared to the research results in 2018. Still the same as last year, Facebook became the most popular social media application in Indonesia, with 81 percent penetration (https://tekno.kompas.com/read/2019/02/05/11080097/facebook-jadi-medsos-paling-digemari-di-indonesia).

Methodology

The methodology used in this research is an experiment with using social media Facebook to discuss student tasks collectively without limits of space and time. This experimental research was conducted to observe the level of students' participation in the learning process with TCL and SCL, or TCL and SCL innovation models with Facebook social media. Data collecting technique by identifying the number of students who gave comments and likes toward the work of other students that uploaded through Facebook. This experiment applied to students of the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Program at the Riau

University Academic Year 2018/2019 in the subject of the Language and Literature Studio (Sanggar). The number of students that participated in this research was divided into two classes, namely the 2016A class consist 39 students and 2016B consist 37 students. This research was conducted in the odd semester of the second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth lecture meetings. The data presentation technique was presented in the form of graph and description to make it easier to see the comparison of the level of student participation in the implementation of TCL and SCL learning models using Facebook.

While the data collection techniques use observation, interview and documentation. Furthermore, the data analysis technique that used to compare the level of understanding of students with three learning models namely teacher learning, student learning and a combination model that empowers *Facebook* as a media for language learning. This research only compares the level of students' participation and knowledge of the assignments that given to them. For more details about the research design, we can see in the following picture:
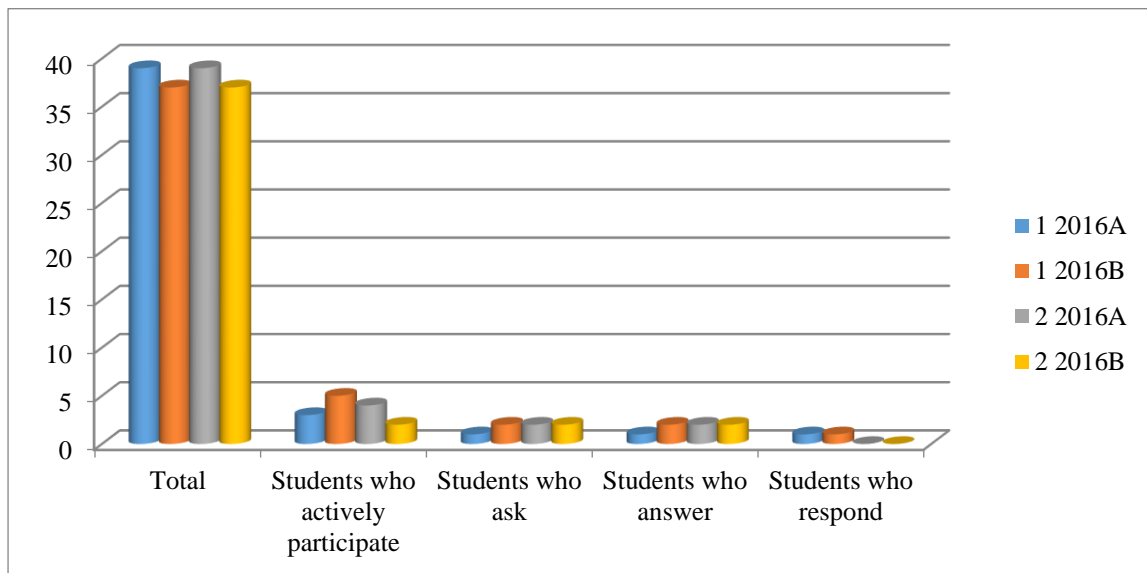

Result and Discussion

Teacher Centered Learning Experiments Results

1. The 1st meeting of the 2016A batch totaled 39 people. There are 3 students who actively participate. 1 student asked, 1 student answered, 1 student responded.

2. The 2nd meeting of the 2016A Force totaled 39 people. Students who actively participate increase to 4 people. 2 students asked, 2 students answered.

3. The 1st batch of 2016B was 37 people. Students who actively participate are 5 people. 2 students asked, 2 students answered, 1 student responded.

4. The 2nd meeting of the 2016B Force was 37 people. Students who actively participate have a decrease to 2 students who ask.

Based on the explanation above, the author simplifies the graph below.
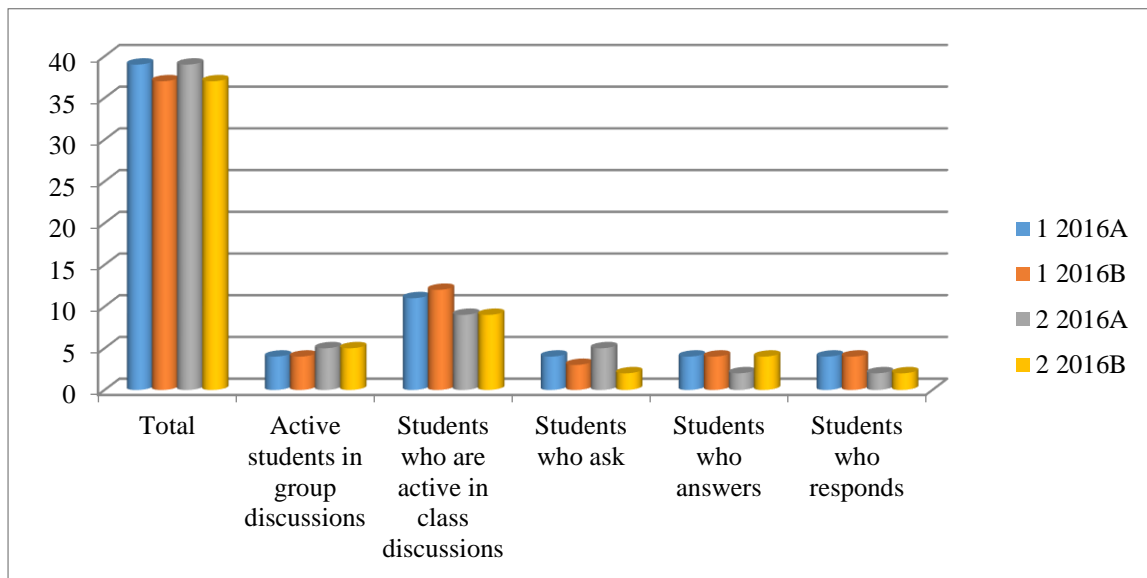
Graph 1. TCL Results

Student Centered Learning Experiments

1. The 1st batch of 2016A was divided into 6 discussion groups. On average there were 4 students who were active in group discussions and 12 people who were active in class discussions. 4 students asked, 4 students answered, 4 students responded.

2. The 2nd meeting of the 2016A batch was divided into 6 discussion groups. The results of the observations have increased with an average of 5 students who were active in group discussions and while there were decreases in the number of students active in class discussions to 9 people. 5 students asked, 2 students answered, 2 students responded.

3. The 1st batch of 2016B was divided into 6 discussion groups. On average there were 4 students who were active in group discussions and 11 people who were active in class discussions. 3 students asked, 4 students answered, 4 students responded.

4. The 2nd meeting of the 2016B class was divided into 6 discussion groups. The results of the observations have increased with an average of 5 students who were active in group discussions and while there were decreases in the number of students active in class discussions to 9 people. 2 students asked, 4 students answered, 2 students responded.

Based on the explanation above, the author simplifies the graph below.

Graph 2. SCL Results

Application of Teacher Centered Learning Combination Model, Student Centered Learning and Facebook Social Media

This combination goes through three stages:

1. The first stage uses Teacher Centered Learning. Lecturers provide theoretical explanations and use project assignments that must be published using Facebook social media. It is the duty of students to publish their work and comment on each of their friends work published using Facebook.
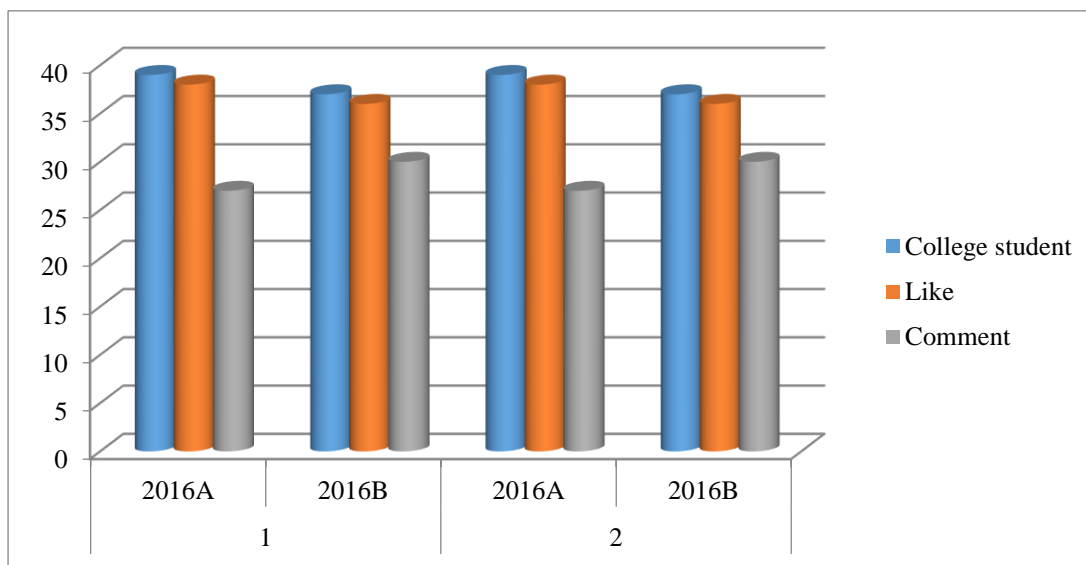
2. The second stage of the student submits proof of publication of his work and proof of likes and comments on the work that has been published on Facebook.

3. The third stage uses Student Centered Learning. Students make an outline of the weaknesses and excellence of their works in general.

Results of Teacher Centered Learning Teacher Learning Combination Model, Student Centered Learning and Facebook Social Media

1. 1st Meeting of 2016A there were 39 students who published their work on Facebook. Based on published works there are 38 likes and 27 comments.

2. Meeting 2 of 2016A there were 39 students who published their work on Facebook. Based on published works there was an increase in interaction to 38 likes and 37 comments.

3. 1st batch of 2016B there were 37 students who published their work on Facebook. Based on published works there are 36 likes and 30 comments.

4. Meeting 2 of 2016A there were 39 students who published their work on Facebook. Based on published works there is an increase in interaction to 36 likes and 35 comments.

Based on the explanation above, the author simplifies the graph below.

Graph 3. Results of TCL, SCL, and Facebook Social Media

Based on the stages of implementation of TCL and SCL, and also the combination innovation of learning models using Facebook, we can see the advantages and disadvantages of the learning model in the table below.

Table Results of Analysis Of The Disadvantages And Advantages of TCL, SCL, and Innovation Learning Models Using Facebook

No	Aspect	TCL	SCL	Combination of TCL, SCL dan Facebook
1	Purpose	Tends to emphasize only the completion of learning material	Emphasizing the achievement of student competency	Achieving competency possessed by students through the completion of literary learning material through Facebook
2	Knowledge Transfer	Lecturer explains to students (passive)	Students actively add and develop the knowledge learned	Lecturer and students play an active role in giving each other the knowledge learned to be understood together through comments on Facebook
3	Mastery Focus	The lecturer fully mastered the learning materials	Students give information to each other that they have understood	Lecturer and students communicate their understanding with each other through comments on Facebook for a perfect conclusion

4	Media	Slides, Books and Articles	Slides, Books and Articles	Slides, Facebook, Books and Articles that can be compared their scientific
5	Function of giving learning materials	Giver of the main information	Giver and provider of Additional information	Lecturer and students as main information
6	Learning	One direction (lecture)	Comprehensive between students	Comprehensive between lecturer and students both in class and through comments on Facebook
7	Learning climate	competitive	cooperative	competitive, cooperative, communicative, collaborative
8	Assessment	One point of view of the lecturer alone	Various perspectives between students	The lecturer gave a view as the main assessor and was given input by evaluating between students both in class and through comments on Facebook

Information:

1. Purpose

   This section on TCL has a tendency that only completed the explanation of the material at that time. Even though it actually has the expected results. However, in reality the tendency is more to complete material explanation alone. It is different from SCL which has an independent goal in order that students are able to achieve the desired

competencies. Because students can active in the class and information come directly from these students so that the expected competencies are automatically achieved. However, if this is combined then the competency achieved by students is achieved through the completion of literary learning material through Facebook. Thus, competence is achieved by completing the material that described.

2. Transfer of Knowledge

Lecturer who will always explain all kinds of understanding in TCL. Unlike SCL, fellow students play an active role in providing material understanding at that time. Give input to each other and even rebuttal among fellow students. But if these two things are combined, the creation of a world of learning between lecturer and students will play an active role in giving each other the knowledge learned to be understood together both in class and through comments on Facebook.

3. Focus on mastery

TCL provides full power in providing material to lecturers. It is different from SCL, which made active students master each other's material at that time. There are more interesting things if the two practices are combined correctly. Lecturer and students communicate with each other to understanding through comments on Facebook for a perfect conclusion.

4. Media

This section does not have much impact arising from the choices of TCL, SCL and its combinations. Media will be an extension of every learning that is followed. If learning uses a combination of TCL and SCL then there are many media such as Slide, Facebook, Books and Articles that can be compared their scientific. This also spreads very broadly and can provide the freedom of people outside the classroom to know the learning process because it has been uploaded on social media such as Facebook. Thus it will be more interesting if this is used correctly.

5. Function of giving learning materials

TCL punishes lecturer to become the main informant in learning. This narrows the development of students' competency and even make students not critical and skilled. It is almost the same if SCL is used as the addition that the students are the giver and

developer of additional information. Better learning if combined with the practice of lecturer and students as the main information give each other, develop and seek conclusions together.

6. Learning

Learning at TCL is only one direction from lecturer to students while SCL is comprehensive among students who are involved through Facebook social media. The combination of TCL and SCL makes the practice of learning a lot between lecturer and students both in class and through comments on Facebook.

7. Learning Climate

The learning atmosphere will certainly be more interesting with a combination of TCL and SCL through competitive collaborative, cooperative, communicative. It was suggested that the atmosphere would attract students to take part in the material. Bored will not be there in this learning process.

8. Assessment

The lecturer gave a view as the main assessor and was given input by evaluating between students both in class and through comments on Facebook. Various views of lecturer and among students make learning increasingly critical, creative, independent, and interesting with various inputs from different perspectives.

Conclusion

The advantages of the combination model are Teacher Centered Learning, Student Centered Learning, and Facebook social media.

1. Every student has the confidence to publish his work through Facebook social media.
2. Every student has the same opportunity to read the results of his friends' social media Facebook.
3. Every student has the same opportunity to comment on the results of their social media Facebook friends.
4. Every student has the same opportunity to understand his friends' comments on the results of their own work and those of other friends.

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Assessment of English Vocabulary Mastery through Environment-Based Image Media on the 7th Grade Students

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Abstract

Environment-based English vocabulary mastery is the mastery of lexicon which exists in an environment, with the implementation of English, both orally or written. This research aims to assess the English vocabulary through the environment-based image media of the 7th

grade students of a junior-high schools in the District of Sumbawa. This research was carried out by applying the quantitative method. The data were obtained from the writing test result of the students, the questionnaire of the teachers and students, and the observation of the learning activities. The analyzed result can be categorized into: (1) The environment-based the urban vocabulary mastery category was 46.55, with the percentage of 14.6% of the students with the good score; (2) The category of environment-based the marine vocabulary mastery was 46.97, with the percentage of 13.5% of the students with good score; (3) The category of environment-based the mountain vocabulary mastery was 47.42, with the percentage of 30% of the students with good score; and (4) The category of environment-based the rural vocabulary mastery was 46.55, with the percentage of 12.9% of the students with a good category score. Based on those result, it can be concluded that the environment-based English vocabulary mastery of the 7th-grade students of the junior-high schools in the District of Sumbawa was low.

Keywords and Phrases: Assessment, Environment-based Vocabulary, Images Media, English Vocabulary Mastery.

Introduction

Presently, English is a very important language as a global communication tool. As stated by Rahayu & Riska (2018, p. 85), foreign languages, especially English, becomes a fundamental language, either in daily life or in other fields such as science, politics, technology, social, and culture. The use of English as an international language has been an essential need in this globalized era, as both a foreign language and a second language as stated by McKay (2002, p. 5). On the other side, the spread of English as an international language has appeared to be based on the appropriate use, so the user of language can be distinguished on the basis of the way they use the language. This is similar to Sharifian & Manan (2016, p. v) who state that *the emergence of English as an International Language (EIL) is a response to changes in the use of English as a global language.*

Furthermore, teaching text can be a huge challenge in English teaching at the high school level caused by the inappropriateness of several teaching materials with the circumstances and the environmental conditions of the students. Teaching materials such as vocabulary, history, and conversations are not in line with the environment and the culture of the society where English is taught. This is way different from the English teaching in the Expanding Circle countries that is based on the local context of the country where the language is taught. This is similar to McKay's (2002, p. 45) stating:

The ability of local teachers to design appropriate pedagogy should not be underestimated since they are in the best position to be able to assess the effectiveness of methods and materials for their local context.

The English learning at the level of junior-high school, especially in vocabulary learning, is still very far from the expectation. Meanwhile, to master language skills, one must master as many number of vocabulary as possible. Similarly, Hudson (2007, p. 227) claims that learning vocabulary is the key to the acquisition and mastery of language. Similarly, Roghani & Milton (2017, p. 144) claims that vocabulary knowledge, it seems, is multifaceted. It can include knowledge of both the written and oral forms of words. The success of learning English as a foreign language or the second language is very dependent on the level of the learners' vocabulary mastery. This is in line with Alqahtani (2015, p. 22) who proposes that vocabulary mastery is often viewed as a critical tool for second language learners because a limited number of vocabulary may impede successful communication. Furthermore, Suyana (2017, p. 87) stated that the quality and quantity of vocabulary the students have helped them absorb various information conveyed by the teachers from other learning resources. It also similarly, Dodigovic, Jeaco, & Wei (2017, p. 3) claims that vocabulary is ideally suited to corpus linguistic approaches in research and teaching.

The recent learning has always been focused on the mastery of the four major language skills: (1) reading, (2) speaking, (3) listening, (4) and writing. Such four language skills require adequate vocabulary mastery in order to determine the quality of language learners. As stated by Cahyono & Widiati (2011, p. 107), mastering the vocabulary can help to master all language skills. Moreover, as claimed by Kasihani & Suyanto (2008, p. 43), that vocabulary is a collection of words owned by a language and give meaning when we use it. For example, writing is one aspect of language skills learnt by students after being able to read. Writing skill requires perseverance by understanding or mastering vocabulary for developing a good framework. Writing skill must be supported by adequate vocabulary. Likewise, Tarigan (2007, p. 3) proposes that to be a skilful writer, one must use language style, language structure, and vocabulary, also practice routinely and regularly. Furthermore, Tarigan (2011, p. 14) asserts that one's language skill quality clearly depends on his/her vocabulary quality. The richer the vocabulary a student has, the bigger the possibility a student is skilful in writing. Next, Thiruvengadam (2017, p. 53) claims that vocabulary is essential in dealing with communication, both spoken and written. Additionally, Nappu (2014, p. 146) stated that many students cannot speak well, understand the reading content, and writing in English, due to their

lack of vocabulary, or they do not know what vocabulary they should speak or use. Based on the above explanation, the researcher can conclude that in order to be a good language user, the one has to be owned by a language learner is adequate vocabulary.

Based on the result of the observation and interview the researcher did, it is found that the student's mastery and understanding of vocabulary are still low that lead to their difficulty in developing their ideas widely. In order to upgrade the students' vocabulary mastery, it requires a learning approach improvement, especially vocabulary learning. In this case, the vocabulary learning should be started from things that are experienced, mastered, and liked by the student, i.e., the environment-based learning; therefore, they can widely develop the vocabulary. Vocabulary learning indeed does not have its own portion in the curriculum of English learning for junior-high schools; however, a teacher has to be able to integrate it into the four aspects of language skills. As stated by Astika (2014, p. 374), that techniques and strategies the teachers use, will determine how the learners study the vocabulary. For example, the learning of writing should begin by writing about things the students have experienced, felt, and seen. By means, the learning of writing that indicates the students' vocabulary mastery and mind concept development when writing can be done by guiding the students to write any phenomena in the environment that helped shape the students. In speaking skill, students should be taught how to communicate across their nearby environment, as well as other language skills. This is similar to Munirah & Hardian (2016, p. 79) who stated that in language learning, the created language environment is directed to improve the language behavior quality.

The phenomenon of students' weaknesses in mastering vocabulary found on the students in junior-high schools in the District of Sumbawa. The junior-high school students in the District of Sumbawa at present show low vocabulary mastery, especially in English, resulting in the lack of students' ability in using the English language. Vocabulary plays an important role in the language mastery. This is supported by Susanto (2017, p. 183) who claims that vocabulary acquisition plays an important role in mastering a language. Therefore, the phenomenon of the weak English vocabulary mastery of the junior-high school students in the District of Sumbawa is crucial to explore. This study was conducted by assessing the English vocabulary mastery via the environment-based image media of the 7th grade students of a junior-high school, with the aim to discover the extent of the English vocabulary mastery understood by the students.

Theoretical Review

English Learning

Basically, there are many concepts related to English learning. However, in the communication side, there are two concepts of English learning; first, English learning as a second language; second, English learning as a foreign language.

English as the second language is not only studied at school by the learners, but also used to communicate outside of school. Students do not use the language as their mother tongue. Society members use that language for the formal needs and other communications, in which the learning occurs. Furthermore, Ghazali (2013, p. 9) stated that the second language acquisition refers to the process of acquiring language which occurs after someone has acquired his or her first language.

Furthermore, English as a foreign language is only used for learning at school. The language is not used for communication outside school; people commonly do not communicate with that language. This is in line with Ghazali (2013, p. 10) who stated that foreign language learning is a process of learning a language that is not used as a way of communication in anyone's environment. The research conducted by Krashen (1981) mentioned that the second or foreign language learning strategy for beginners must be directed to the achievement of competency and confidence.

Vocabulary Learning

Basically, it can be said that vocabulary is considered to be one of the most important elements in comprehending lesson materials, especially when learning a foreign language (Bakti, 2018, p. 1). In other words, vocabulary can be interpreted as a language element which provides specific information inside. That is, the vocabulary of a language is a physical appearance of a language which already has meaning, and can be used to name, mention, and express something.

Furthermore, learning is an activity of the establishment and creativity development for the students by the teachers. As stated by Solihati (2016, p. 65) that every learning activity appropriately involves students actively. On the Law of the Indonesian National Education System No. 20 Year 2003, it is defined that learning is a process of the learner's interaction with the educator in a learning environment. Related to such learning definition, vocabulary learning is an educator's interaction with the learners in a realm of learning about the vocabulary of a language. In other words, language learning is a teaching-and-learning activity designed to help students or learners to understand and figure out what exists in a language.

Vocabulary Learning in Indonesia

On every curriculum of education in Indonesia, there is always an element of vocabulary learning that students hopefully can be used to utter their mind, opinion and idea, both orally or written. Sudarajat & Herlina (2015, p. 115) stated that vocabulary in language learning, including English, is one of the most important things to master.

To most extent, vocabulary learning in Indonesia still focuses on general vocabulary learning, both on the Indonesian vocabulary learning itself, and in the foreign language, like English. Munirah & Hardian (2016, p. 80) stated that the learning system determines the success of students in understanding particular vocabulary. It means that vocabulary learning of a language in the educational world in Indonesia has not been comprehensive yet until this time. In other words, the teaching has not yet included vocabulary that can really be used by students in their living environment. As a result, the vocabulary of a language that is taught in a teaching-and-learning process all this time can only be used by the students in a certain (formal) situation. This has an implication for the weakening of the vocabulary adhesion in the students' mind because it is rarely used in the living environment of the students or learners.

Environment-based Vocabulary Learning

Environment-based vocabulary refers to particular lexicon related to the language used in a certain environment. Environment vocabulary can be lexicon about the name of a thing, condition, or event occurring in a certain area or environment. Meanwhile, environmental vocabulary learning reflects an educator's action to teach environment-based vocabulary to help the learners use their environmental lexicon fluently, in which they should understand the names of thing, condition, or events occurring in their environment, using English. By having this understanding of the lexicon, they will easily be able to express their ideas and thoughts using the correct words. It is in line with Defitasari (2017, p. 680) statement claiming that the concept of learning vocabulary should be done by taking the most familiar material to the children.

Learning Media

Media is one type of communication facility that can clarify meaning and understanding between the information provider (source) and the information received. According to Rusman, Kurniawan, & Riyana (2013, p. 65), media helps in clarifying, simplifying, and making the learning message, which will later be delivered by the teacher to the students, more interesting, thus it can motivate the study and learning process. Meanwhile, Musfiqon (2012, p. 27) stated

that the media is a material which is manipulated, seen, heard, read, or discussed along with the instrument utilized greatly, and it can also influence the effectiveness of the instructional program. Arsyad (2011, p. 3), on the other hand, stated that the media of the teaching-and-learning process tends to be interpreted as tools of graphic, photographic, electronic, and used to capture, process, and reconstruct the verbal or visual information. Based on the three views above, it can be concluded that media is a facility of communication which is both visual and auditory; such as graphical tools, photography tools, and electronic tools, which can simplify a concept for learners to accept the learning materials delivered by the teacher, therefore, the learning process becomes more efficient, and the learners become motivated in following the learning process.

Image Media

Learning is a unique process in which there are interactive processes, either the teacher with the learners or even the learners with the media. There are many types of media used in the learning process. A teacher must be able to adjust the used media with the delivered learning material. Fathurrohman & Wuryandani (2011, p. 50 – 54) mentioned various types of media in learning: visual, audio, and audio-visual. In this research, the researcher uses the visual media, in images form, to collect the research data. The reason is that image media can simplify students' understanding. Arsyad (2011, p. 91) stated that visual media can smoothen understanding and strengthen memory.

Research Method
Research Design

This research was a quantitative descriptive. The data were obtained from questionnaires: (1) questionnaire for teachers, (2) questionnaire for students, and (3) written test of English vocabulary, in which the data collecting instrument used structurally arranged questionnaires, and written test in the form of environment-based images.

The data collection was emphasized in two information groups, namely about: (a) English teachers' understanding about the concept and position on the environment-based English learning at junior-high schools in the District of Sumbawa, and (b) the students' understanding of the environment-based vocabulary and the English vocabulary urgency.

The research data was analyzed by quantitative method. The data analysis technique employed descriptive statistics through percentage techniques. As stated by Creswell (2014, p. 5), that quantitative method is to analyze the data consisting of numbers which can be analyzed

based on statistical procedures. The data were taken from the result of teachers and students' questionnaires and from students' written test.

Research Participants

Purposive sampling was applied to determine the participants involved as subjects of the research. As Neuman (1997, p. 206) stated that a researcher may use purposive sampling to select members of a difficult-to-reach, specialized population. On the other hand, purposive sampling allows researcher to choose cases that occur to be studied. Also in line with Silverman & Marvasti (2008, p. 166) who stated that purposive sampling allows you to choose a case because it illustrates some feature or process in which you are interested.

The participants in this research were 533 7th grade students of 19 groups from four Junior-High Schools in Sumbawa Regency. The schools are State Junior-High School 2 (SMPN 2) of Sumbawa, the District of Sumbawa, the State Junior-High School 4 (SMPN 4) of Labuhan Badas, the Sub-district of Labuhan Badas, the State Junior-High School 1 (SMPN 1) of Moyo Hulu, the Sub-district of Moyo Hulu, and the State Junior-High School 1 (SMPN 1) of Lopok, the Sub-district of Lopok.

Research Procedure

Students in each participating school were given a different test of vocabulary based on their local environmental background. Students from State Junior-High School 2 of Sumbawa (n=192), were given a written test of vocabulary related to the urban life by mentioning 15 words based on urban environment-based picture. Students from State Junior-High School 4 of Labuhan Badas (n=96), were given a written test of vocabulary related to the marine life by mentioning 15 words based on marine environment-based picture. Students from State Junior-High School 1 of Moyo Hulu (n=90), were given a written test of vocabulary related to the mountain life by mentioning 15 words based on mountain environment-based picture. Students from State Junior-High School 1 of Lopok (n=155) were given a written test of vocabulary related to the rural life by mentioning 15 words based on rural environment-based picture.

Data Analysis Procedure

There were three types of data utilized: (1) the data from the students' written test result, (2) the teachers' questionnaire, and (3) the students' questionnaire. Data of the students' written test result was to analyze the extent of the mastery of English vocabulary of the 7th grade

students of the junior-high schools, and data was analyzed by using descriptive statistics. The criterion of Sukardi (2008) was used to analyze the test result as follows:

$$X = \frac{Total\ of\ correct\ answers}{Total\ Statements} \times 100\%$$

X = the score of each student

Table 1

Criteria of the students' skills

No.	Score (%)	Level of Skill
1.	80% - 100%	Best
2.	65% - 79.99%	Good
3.	54% - 64.99%	Fair
4.	40% - 53.99%	Less
5.	0% - 39.99%	Poor

The data from the result of the students' questionnaire and the teachers' questionnaire were analyzed by using the Likert Scale: 5 – Strongly agree, 4 – Agree, 3 – Not really agree, 2 – Disagree, 1 – Strongly disagree. Data were analyzed by employing the SPSS version 20 program.

Result and Discussion

The result of this study were taken from the learners' writing test with the total of 533 sheets, with the following details: (1) the written result of the students of SMPN 2 Sumbawa (n=192), with the category of environment-based the urban vocabulary (see Table 2); (2) the written result of the students of SMPN 4 Labuhan Badas (n=96), with the category of environment-based the marine vocabulary (see Table 3); (3) the written result of the students of SMPN 1 Moyo Hulu (n=90), with the category of environment-based the mountain vocabulary (see Table 4); and (4) the written result of the students of SMPN 1 Lopok (n=155), with the category of environment-based the rural vocabulary (see Table 5).

Table 2

The Written Test Result of the Urban Vocabulary of the State Junior-High School (SMPN) 2 of Sumbawa

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
Students Code	192	191	1	192	18528	96.50	4.010	55.570	3088.000
Students Score	192	60	13	73	8938	46.55	1.268	17.569	308.657
Valid N (list wise)	192								

The result of the research, based on the SPSS calculation (see Table 2), show that the mastery of English vocabulary for the 7th grade students of State Junior-High School (SMPN) 2 of Sumbawa, in the category of environment-based the urban vocabulary, as follows: the average score is 46.55 of 192 students; the lowest score was 13, and the highest score was 73. The percentages of the students' vocabulary mastery as follows: 4.2% students gained the score of 13; 11.5% students gained the score of 22; 6.2% students gained the score of 27; 9.9% students gained the score of 33; 7.8% students gained the score of 40; 10.4% students gained the score of 47; 14.1% students gained the score of 53; 16.1% students gained the score of 60; 14.1% students gained the score of 67; and 5.7% students gained the score of 73. It can be concluded that the students' vocabulary mastery was at a low level.

Table 3

The Written Test Result of the Marine Vocabulary of the State Junior-High School (SMPN) 4 of Labuhan Badas

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
Students Code	96	95	1	96	4656	48.50	2.843	27.857	776.000
Students Score	96	53	20	73	4509	46.97	1.582	15.503	240.346
Valid N (list wise)	96								

The result of the research, based on the SPSS calculation (see Table 3), show that the mastery of English vocabulary for the 7th grade students of State Junior-High School (SMPN) 4 of Labuhan Badas, in the category of environment-based the marine vocabulary, as follows: the average score was 46.97 of 96 students; the lowest score was 20, and the highest score was 73. The percentages of the students' vocabulary mastery as follows: 8.3% students gained the score of 20; 5.2% students gained the score of 27; 18.8% students gained the score of 33; 11.5% students gained the score of 40; 9.4% students gained the score of 47; 10.4% students got the score of 53; 22.9% of students gained the score of 60; 7.3% of students gained the score of 67; and 6.3% of students gained the score of 73; It can be concluded that the students' vocabulary mastery was also at a low level.

Table 4

The Written Test Result of the Mountain Vocabulary of the State Junior-High School (SMPN) 1 of Moyo Hulu

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
Students Code	90	89	1	90	4095	45.50	2.754	26.125	682.500
Students Score	90	53	20	73	4268	47.42	1.952	18.519	342.966
Valid N (listwise)	90								

The result of the research, based on the SPSS calculation (see Table 4), that the mastery of English vocabulary for the 7th grade students of State Junior-High School (SMPN) 1 of Moyo Hulu, in the category of environment-based the mountain vocabulary, as follows: the average score was 47.42 of 90 students; the lowest score was 20, and the highest score was 73. The percentages of the students' vocabulary mastery as follows: 16.6% students gained the score of 20; 5.6% students gained the score of 27; 12.2% students gained the score of 33; 8.9% students gained the score of 40; 8.9% students gained the score of 47; 7.8% students gained the score of 53; 10% of students gained the score of 60; 20% of students gained the score of 67; and 10% of students gained the score of 73; It can be concluded that the students' vocabulary mastery was at the level of less.

Table 5

The Written Test Result of the Rural Vocabulary of the State Junior-High School (SMPN) 1 of Lopok

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
Students Code	155	154	1	155	12090	78.00	3.606	44.889	2015.000
Students Score	155	53	20	73	7216	46.55	1.264	15.740	247.742
Valid N (listwise)	155								

The result of the research, based on the SPSS calculation (see Table 5), that the mastery of English vocabulary for the 7th grade students of State Junior-High School (SMPN) 1 of Lopok, in the category of environment-based the rural vocabulary as follows: the average score was 46.55 of 155 students; the lowest score was 20, and the highest score was 73. The percentages of the students' vocabulary mastery as follows: 9.7% students gained the score of 20; 4.5% students gained the score of 27; 20.6% students gained the score of 33; 9.1% students gained the score of 40; 10.3% students gained the score of 47; 23.8% students gained the score of 60; 6.5% students gained the score of 67; and 6.5% students gained the score of 73. Therefore, overall the students' vocabulary mastery was at the level of less.

Table 6

The Questionnaire Result of the 7th Grade Students in Four Junior-High Schools in the District of Sumbawa as the Research Sample Schools

INDICATOR	N	LIKERT SCALE				
		SA	A	NRA	D	SD
Sufficient vocabulary mastery is required to improve language skills (A)	533	450	60	18	4	1
Environment-based vocabulary can simplify students to memorize, remember, and enrich vocabulary (B)	533	428	50	10	25	20
Teaching material needs to include environment-based vocabulary and images (C)	533	410	70	30	20	3
Teachers' strategy and approach during the teaching-learning process influence language learning result (D)	533	320	120	45	20	28

Based on the questionnaire result of the 7th grade students (see Table 6), the response of the 533 students who have become the research samples in four Junior-High Schools (SMP) in the District of Sumbawa, those were:

In the indicator of **sufficient vocabulary mastery is required to improve language skills (A)**, there were 450 students who strongly agree (SA), 60 students who agree (A), 18 students who did not really agree (NRA), 4 students who disagree (D), and 1 student who strongly disagrees (SD). The percentages of the students' respond to the indicator-A, that there were 84.4% students who strongly agree (SA), 11.3% students who agree (A), 3.4% students who did not really agree (NRA), 0.4% students who disagree (D), and 0.2% students who strongly disagree (SD). It can be concluded that vocabulary mastery can improve language skills.

In the indicator of **environment-based vocabulary can simplify students to memorize, remember, and enrich vocabulary (B)**, there were 428 students who strongly agree (SA), 50 students who agree (A), 10 students who did not really agree (NRA), 25 students who disagree (D), and 20 students who strongly disagree (SD). The percentages of the students'

respond to the indicator-B, that there were 80.3% students who strongly agree (SA), 9.4% students who agree (A), 1.8% students who did not really agree (NRA), 4.7% students who disagree (D), and 0.2% students who strongly disagree (SD). It can be concluded that environment-based vocabulary can simplify the learning concept for students to memorize, remember, and enrich vocabulary.

In the indicator of **teaching material needs to include environment-based vocabulary and images (C)**, there are 410 students who strongly agree (SA), 70 students who agree (A), 30 students who did not really agree (NRA), 20 students who disagree (D), and 3 students who strongly disagree (SD). The percentages of the students' respond to the indicator-C, that there were 76.9% students who strongly agree (SA), 13.1% students who agree (A), 5.6% students who did not really agree (NRA), 3.8% students who disagree (D), and 0.6% students who strongly disagree (SD). It can be concluded that teaching material needs to include environment-based vocabulary and images.

In the indicator of **teachers' strategy and approach during teaching-learning process influence language learning result (D)**, there were 320 students who strongly agree (SA), 120 students who agree (A), 45 students who did not really agree (NRA), 20 students who disagree (D), and 28 students who strongly disagree (SD). The percentages of the students' response to the indicator-D, that there were 60% students who strongly agree (SA), 22.5% students who agree (A), 8.4% students who do not really agree (NRA), 3.8% students who disagree (D), and 5.3% students who strongly disagree (SD). It can be concluded that teachers' strategy and approach during the teaching-learning process influence language learning result. The students' questionnaire result above can be seen on this chart (see Chart 1):
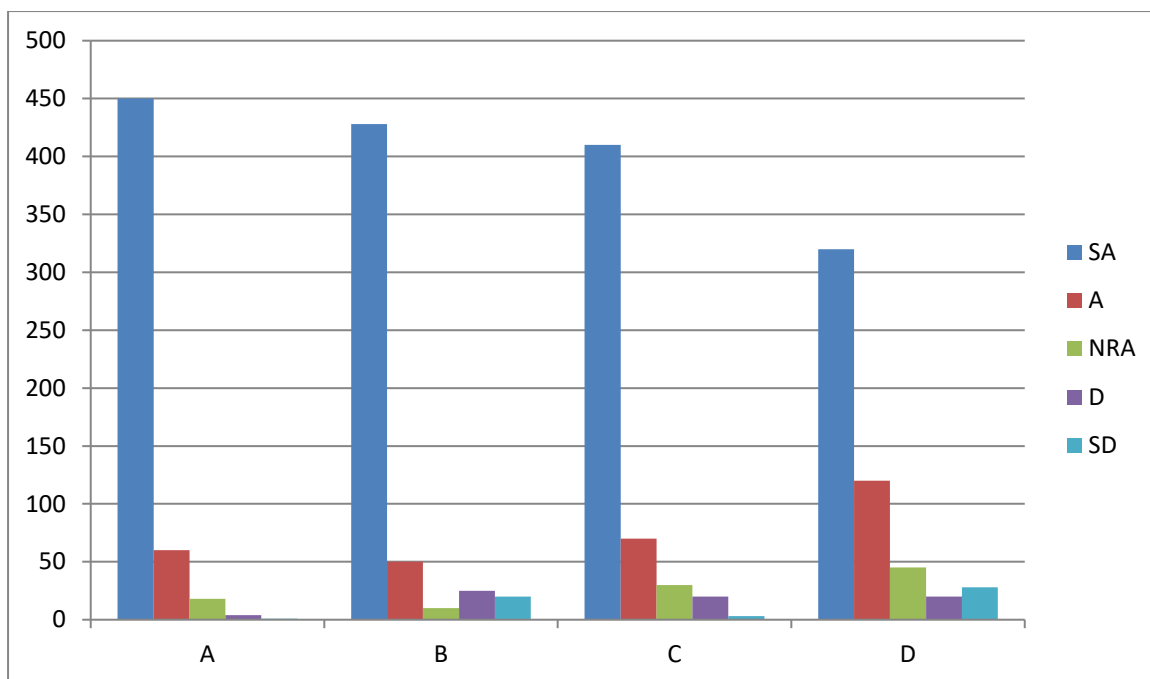
Chart 1: The students' questionnaire result

Table 7

The Questionnaire Result of the English Teachers for the 7th Grade Students in Four Junior-High Schools in the District of Sumbawa as the Research Sample Schools

INDICATOR	N	SCALE				
		SA	A	NRA	D	SD
Sufficient vocabulary mastery is required to improve language skills (A)	4	4	-	-	-	-
Environment-based vocabulary can simplify students to memorize, remember, and enrich vocabulary (B)	4	3	1	-	-	-
Vocabulary is very necessary for language aspect other than language skill aspects (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) (C)	4	3	1	-	-	-
Teaching material needs to include environment-based vocabulary and images (D)	4	2	2	-	-	-
Teachers' strategy and approach during the teaching-learning process influence language learning result (E)	4	2	2	-	-	-

Environment-based teaching materials can motivate students to learn vocabulary (F)	4	2	1	1	-	-

Based on the questionnaire result of the English teachers for the 7th-grade students in four Junior-High Schools in the District of Sumbawa (see Table 8), that the response of 4 teachers who have become the research samples in four Junior-High Schools (SMP) in the District of Sumbawa, those were:

First, in the indicator of **Sufficient vocabulary mastery is required to improve language skills (A)**, all 4 teachers strongly agree (SA). The percentage of the teachers' respond to the indicator-A was that 100% of teachers strongly agree (SA). It can be concluded that vocabulary mastery can improve language skills. Second, in the indicator of **Environment-based vocabulary can simplify students to memorize, remember, and enrich vocabulary (B)**, there were 3 teachers strongly agree (SA), and 1 teacher agree. The percentage of the teachers' respond to the indicator-B was that 75% of teachers strongly agree (SA), and 25% of teachers agree (A). It can be concluded that environment-based vocabulary can simplify the teaching material for the students to easily memorize, remember, and enrich vocabulary. Third, in the indicator of **Vocabulary is very necessary for language aspect other than language skill aspects (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) (C)**, there are 3 teachers strongly agree (SA), and 1 teacher agree. The percentage of the teachers' respond to the indicator-C was that 75% of teachers strongly agree (SA), and 25% of teachers agree (A). It can be concluded that vocabulary was very necessary for the language aspect. Fourth, in the indicator of **Teaching material needs to include environment-based vocabulary and images (D)**, 2 teachers strongly agree (SA), and 2 teachers agree (A). The percentage of the teachers' respond to the indicator-D was that 50% of teachers strongly agree (SA), and 50% of teachers agree (A). It can be concluded that teaching material needs to include environment-based vocabulary and images. Fifth, in the indicator of **Teachers' strategy and approach during teaching-learning process influence language learning result (E),** there were 2 teachers strongly agree (SA), and 2 teachers agree (A). The percentage of the teachers' respond to the indicator-E was that 50% of teachers strongly agree (SA), and 50% of teachers agree (A). It can be concluded that teachers' strategy and approach during the teaching-learning process influence language learning result. Finally, sixth, in the indicator of **Environment-based teaching materials can motivate students to learn vocabulary (F),** there were 2 teachers strongly agree (SA), 1 teacher agree (A), and 1 teacher did not really agree (NRA). The percentage of the teachers' respond to the Indicator-F was that 50% teachers strongly agree (SA), 25% teachers agree (A),

and 25% teachers did not really agree (NRA). It can be concluded that environment-based teaching materials can motivate students to learn vocabulary. The teachers' questionnaire result above can be seen on this chart (see Chart 2).
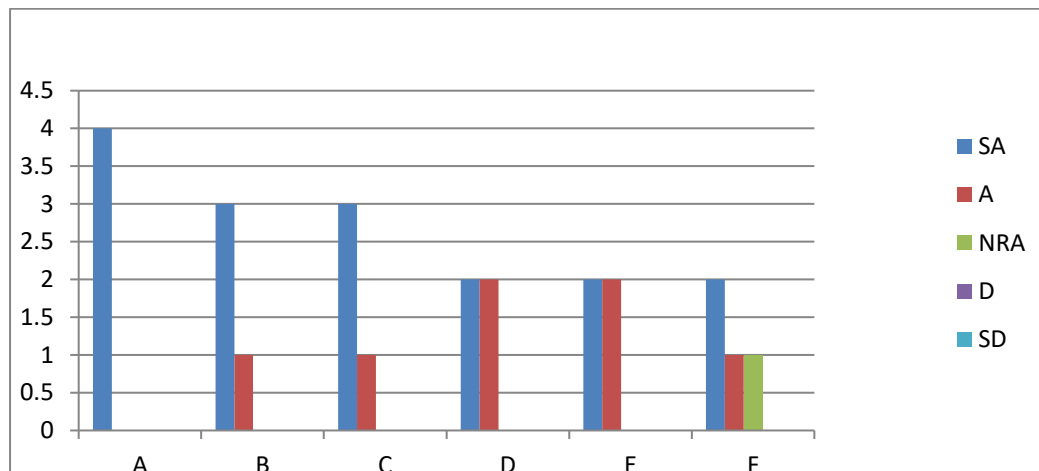

Chart 2: The teachers' questionnaire result

Conclusion, limitations, and pedagogical implications

Based on the discussion above, conclusions can be taken as follows:

First, the result of the students' written test showed that the mastery of the environment-based English vocabulary in the 7th-grade junior-high school students in the District of Sumbawa were in the less category. The details were as follows: (1) The environment-based the urban vocabulary mastery was 46.55, with 14.6% students who had the score of good category; (2) The environment-based the marine vocabulary mastery was 46.97, with 13.5% students who had the score of good category; (3) The environment-based the mountain vocabulary mastery was 47.42, with 30% of students who had the score of good category; and (4) The environment-based the rural vocabulary mastery was 46.55, with 12.9% students who had the score of good category. Second, the result of the students' questionnaire showed that from the 533 students, as the respondents of the research, 450 students with 84.4% stated they strongly agreed that the adequate vocabulary mastery was required in order to improve the language skills. Third, the result of the teachers' questionnaire showed that 75% teachers, as the respondents of the research, stated strongly agreed that the environment-based vocabulary was able to help the students simplify, memorize, remember, and enrich the vocabulary.

There were some limitations in conducting this study. First, the method of data analysis just quantitative method. Secondly, the number of subjects as a sample in this study just a small sample. Designing more complete and comprehensive studies on the subject including a

variety of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and using larger samples is required.

Although, its limitations, some pedagogical implications are as follows. First, the EFL teachers can design environment-based teaching material to overcome of students' less in vocabulary mastery. Secondly, teaching materials with the circumstances and the environmental conditions of the students; such as vocabulary, history, and conversations are in line with the environment and the culture of the society where English is taught.

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Ethnographic Linguistic Landscape Analysis Pedagogy

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Abstract

With the largest population of English language learners in the world at just over 400 million and the fastest growing economy, China is a hotbed for English infusion. While several researchers have examined various parts of China: Beijing,Wuhan, Suzhou, and Yunnan few have studied the linguistic attributes of smaller cities. After cataloguing the usage of English at various sites around Shaoxing, China, a template can be made for future studies in the region. The instructor has utilized a flipped classroom methodology in empowering the students as ethnographic researchers in their own neighborhood! While much of the research done in linguistic landscape analysis has been focused on quantifying, classifying and cataloguing languages in a given space, few studies have examined the more complex aspects of semiotics.

Students chose a site, devised a research question, performed ethnographic research, interviewed people at the site, analyzed the results of their findings, and discussed the

implications of their research. Some of the sites include: Starbucks, Walmart, Pizza Hut, a high speed railway station, the university campus, and tourist sites. The research questions generally related to the usage of English at the site and perceptions held about the usage of English by Chinese and non-Chinese alike. Ethnographic Linguistic Landscape Analysis (ELLA) (Blommaert, 2014) was conducted and analyzed through pictures, fieldnotes, and interviews. Finally, the implications of the studies related to reducing the amount of Chinglish at the sites, modifying hiring and training practices in local businesses, improving perceptions of the sites, and examining changes in students' perceptions.

Keywords: Ethnographic Linguistic Landscape Analysis (ELLA), Linguistic Landscapes, Ethnography, Linguistic Landscape Pedagogy

Introduction

This paper is concerned with perceptions of the usage of English in a country that is experiencing tremendous growth and adoption of the language. The most recent available data from Wei and Su in 2012 puts the number at 400 million English language learners. At the current time, the number has more than likely increased, making China the country with the highest amount of people in the world currently studying English. Coupled with the fastest growing economy, China is a crucial site to study the usage and interaction of English signs or semiotic resources (van Leeuwen, 2005). While several researchers have examined various parts of China: Beijing,Wuhan, Suzhou, and Yunnan (Wang, 2013, Graddol, 2013, Guihang & Bingjia 2017, Li 2015 and Xia and Li 2016) few have studied the linguistic attributes of smaller cities. After cataloguing the usage of English at various sites around Shaoxing, China, a template can be made for future studies in tier 3 cities. Analyzing semiotics, the study of signs and symbols, can be useful in relation to reducing the amount of Chinglish at the sites, improving perceptions of the sites, examining changes in perceptions over time, and improving intercultural communicative competence among the agents' creating the signs. Student researchers conducting ethnographies are a unique pedagogical feature of this research. It will examine their role with the languages as they create discourse in place (Scollon & Scollon, 2003).

Linguistic Landscapes (LL)

LL has been defined by Landry and Bourhis (1997) as the "visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory" (p. 23). Close to a decade later

Gorter (2006) started to expand and clarify the definition of LL to focus on language all around us in text in the form of shop windows, commercial signs, posters, official notices, traffic signs, etc. Shohamy and Gorter (2009) were early pioneers of the field and called attention to the interpretation of the meaning, messages, purposes and context of languages in public spaces. They posited,

> Language in spaces and places is calling for the attention of researchers and scholars who attempt to study and interpret its meaning, messages, purposes and contexts. Such language, that can be found everywhere, is closely related to people as they are the ones producing it and who choose the ways to represent and display it in diverse spaces. People are the ones who hang the signs, display posters, design advertisements, write instructions and create websites. It is also people who read, attend, decipher and interpret these language displays, or at times, choose to overlook, ignore or erase them. (Shohamy and Gorter , 2009, p. 1)

Figure 1 A mixture of Chinese and English signs found on a commercial street outside the campus

In the same text, they listed a host of questions for future studies and explored some of them in the same book. The questions are What is LL really? What kind of reality does it shape? Does it refer to language only? What is public and private? How is it all connected? What role does LL play in policy making? What motivates people to display it and how do they value it? What messages are being delivered? Are they received? How does the audience interpret it? What are the applications of it? How can LL be used in conjunction with existing theories? What can the study of it contribute to society? (2009)

Most studies in LL, particularly in the early years of the field, have primarily been focused on quantitative analysis of the languages observed in a particular space (Backhaus, 2007, Ben-Rafael 1994, Cenoz & Jessner, 2000, Huebner 2006, McArthur 1998, Schlick 2002, Spolsky & Cooper 1991). In these studies publicly visible languages were counted, catalogued and mapped to a particular area (Blommaert & Maly 2014). Blommaert (2013) felt there was more to LL than what could be observed and quantified.

Ethnographic Linguistic Landscape Analysis

Ethnography, the study of culture, (Blum Malley & Hawkins 2012; Clifford & Marcus 1986) is useful in LL in that in can offer a more in-depth, qualitative analysis. It can explore complex relationships and discuss layers of insight into language usage at the site. The first to utilize ethnography as a research methodology in LL and devise a framework for doing so was Blommaert in 2014. He felt there was something lacking in the relationship between the presence of the signs and their relationship with the surrounding environment. In an earlier study in 2013 Blommaert stated, "The point of the exercise is to demonstrate that ELLA enables us not just to identify with a very high degree of accuracy the demography of the neighborhood – who lives here? – but also the particular dynamic and complex features of the social fabric of a superdiverse neighborhood"(p.4). Therefore, who better to examine this social fabric than the very inhabitants of the neighborhood: English major students. This project based learning approach empowers students to become expert language observers in their society and to challenge their preconceived notions about the usage of English in the space over time. They were tasked with investigating English semiotics and the discourse created at the site. They used ethnographic tools to critically examine the agents and actors within a given space. This is known as ethnographic linguistic landscape analysis (ELLA).

Students have a unique perspective into the dynamic system of English in the world around them and the ability to understand the complex role English plays within it as they are in what Lefebre calls the "lived space". He defines it as, "the dominated — and hence passively experienced— space which the imagination seeks to change and appropriate. It overlays physical space, making symbolic use of its object" (1991, p. 39). Using students as researchers offers critical insight into the landscape beyond what is readily seen in the 'perceived space' (Lefebre, 1991) with a camera. Students can engage in ethnographic research and interview sign creators and users. They can reflect upon their own interpretations and engage in discourse with other inhabitants of the space. These complex relationships can be examined further when the instructor observes and guides the students at the site. Furthermore, conducting fieldwork allows students an opportunity to negotiate new meanings and interpretations for the signs at the site. Recently, in a 2016 critique of the very first *Linguistic Landscape* journal, Blommaert petitions for more ELLA studies to be published. He decries the "snap-shot" methodologies as empirical and 'first wave'. He feels qualitative research ,ELLA, can contribute deeper meaning to the present conversation. He states,

> The surrender of all ambitions to say something substantial about society in ways not usually done by sociologists, anthropologists, historiographers or political scientists, in

favor of a preference to stick within a safe, "canonized" synchrony grounded in a kind of instant sociology of the most conventional kind (Blommaert, 2016, p. 3)

The notion of the field of LL being canonized is echoed throughout the paper and he cautions against it as it would exclude work that is not part of the established tradition. As the field is relatively new it is not fully developed, thus it should not contain a 'canon'. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct a deeper analysis on LL in the form of ELLA. LL pedagogy and word walks are a way to add deeper commentary on the relationship between semiotics and the society.

Linguistic Landscape Pedagogy

Sayer(2010), Kusenbach (2003), Garvin (2010), and Stroud and Jegels (2014) have all explored walking the LL with students and the many positive effects of doing so. Furthermore, LL pedagogy is an emerging field outlined by David Malinowski:

> As the subjective experience, imaginings, and even desire of the inhabitants of a place, "lived space" may also be one way to characterize the object of what has become a major line of inquiry in linguistic landscape studies of late. Blommaert (2013), Collins and Slembrouck (2007), Garvin (2010), Lou (2010), Malinowski (2009), and Stroud and Mpendukana (2009) are among those calling for the expansion of ethnographic methods in LL research, in order to better understand subjective meanings made in and by participants in the linguistic landscape, and as these unfold and change across time, context, and scale. (Malinowski, 2015, p. 108)

This article can contribute to the discussion of LL pedagogy and study the benefits of conducting it.

This article's research approach was unique in that there have been few LL studies conducted in the classroom and even less in smaller cities in China. The most notable studies involving LL in China are (Graddol 2013, Guo and Li 2017, Li 2015, Wang 2013, and). The most notable studies involving pedagogy related to LL are (Cenoz and Gorter 2008, Malinowski 2015, and Sayer 2010). Huebner (2016) endorses the idea of LL pedagogy being a powerful tool. He says it increase students linguistic awareness of lexical borrowing, syntactic patterning, phonological adaptation and rhetorical devices like assonance, alliteration, metaphor, and personification He also says that students can examine the LL to explore issues of identity and ethnicity. They are also able to investigate both overt and covert features of the language. Furthermore, Seargeant, Hewings, and Pihlaja (2018) posit that pedagogical approaches allow people the opportunity to explore the highly localized and fragmented nature

of language and how it evolved that way. Rather than continuously attached to or merged with its historical locations or it institutionalized purposes, students can see it as part of the fabric of their social lives in their unique contexts.

Thus, LL has been defined and an overview has been given. The manner in which the ELLA pedagogy was conducted and the unique insights garnered through it will be laid out in the next sections.

Figure 2 Laowaitan: A popular nightspot in a Chinese city that has been influenced by western culture significantly

Methods

Course Design

In a 12-week Introduction to Research Writing course, sophomore English majors in a Sino-American degree program were instructed on ELLA and general research skills. They were asked to choose a research site, conduct ELLA, and write a research paper on their findings. They were also allowed to work in groups and utilize a wiki for assessment. The syllabus is below for reference.

Week #	Date	Classwork	Homework
1		Course Introduction What is ethnography? Site decision Components of a research paper	Choose 3 sites
Phase 1			
2		How to observe and take field notes How to reflect and write reflections	Fieldnotes 1 Reflections
3		Workshop - Phase 1 Writing abstracts	*Abstract*
4		**Peer Review Phase 1** Individual conferences	**Revise**
Phase 2			
5		What are research questions? Writing research questions Conducting a literature review	Research Questions *Introduction*
6		Workshop - Phase 2 Conducting interviews	Fieldnotes 2 Interviews
7		Peer review Phase 2 Individual conferences	**Revise**
Phase 3			
8		Writing the methods section Elements of research papers	*Methods* Draft research paper
9		Workshop – Phase 3 Discussion section	*Conclusion*
10		**Peer review Phase 3** Individual conferences	**Revise**
Portfolio and Presentations			
11		Revisions	Final Paper Prepare Presentation
12		Presentations	Graduation!

Figure 3 syllabus for the course

The course progressed with instruction on a given component of a research paper followed by guided practice in class. Next, the students were tasked to draft the given part of the paper and submit it for grading the following week. Every three weeks, conferences were held to discuss features of their paper and assist them with revisions. In the first phase, much of the discussion centered around focusing the paper on ELLA and not simply ethnography. The biggest issues of the conferences during phase 2 related to developing good questionnaires and focusing on specific research questions. Finally, phase 3 workshops centered around organizing the papers and making them complete and concise. As to be expected, a variety of improvements in different sections of the paper were discussed based on group needs. This concludes the section on how the course was designed. Next, the paper will look at some of the benefits of doing this particular variety of research and the challenges that were faced.

Ethnography

Through ethnographic research students can understand their own role in their language learning journey. They can reflect and think critically about the usage of English in their worlds. They are also able to contribute meaningfully to the field of LL in terms of the

ethnographic perspectives Blommaert was pushing for. Ethnography is the study of culture. (Clifford & Marcus 1986) Culture is often deemed the fifth skill of learning a language (Kramsch, 1993) and intercultural competence (Bachman, 1990, Byram, 1989) is sought after by language learners all around the world. Furthermore, as Sapir's student Benjamin Lee Whorf pointed out, "Talking or the use of language is more than a process concerned strictly with communication. The grammars of the different languages are not merely norms of conventional and social correctness, and guides to rational or intelligent thinking" (Whorf, 2012). Kramsch (1993, 1) states, culture "is always in the background , right from day one, ready to unsettling the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenging their ability to make sense of the world around them."

Intercultural communicative competence is especially difficult to master in English as a foreign language setting where English is devoid of a English context (Krieger 2005). However, social media and digital literacies are bridging this gap and expanding on the confines of Kachru's three circles. (de Jong, 2018). Through ethnographic research students can develop intercultural competence and they can reflect and think critically about the usage of English. They can contribute unique perspectives on the superdiversity (Blommaert 2013) of their sites.

Field notes observations and interviews are the backbone of ethnographies. The interview component can strengthen students' opportunities for interaction with English speakers and increase their intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997). Students might view English as more than something having a utility - for demonstrating mastery for a grade or test. It is hoped that in this pedagogy students can value English for more than instrumental motivation. It is hoped that they see the language as the dynamic, living entity that it is.The approach is also very student-centered with the instructor serving as a mentor or guide on the side. Additionally, ethnographies are works of creative nonfiction in which students were challenged to depict an interesting narrative about the usage of English in the worlds in which they live. This type of writing is deemed a 21st century skill that is sought after in a recent research initiative by the Bill and Melinda Gates Chan Zuckerberg Foundation (2018). It stimulates growth in the skills of evaluation of arguments and evidence, critical and creative thinking about solutions and sources, identifying support for a key idea or process, clear and evocative argument-making. In writing the papers collaboratively the students have the benefits of learning from each other and focusing on forms over functions (Bikowski &

Vithanage, 2016; Kessler & Bikowski, 2010; Li & Zhu, 2013). This is one benefit of collaborative writing. It also helps students forge a unified identity as researchers.

Many students struggled with this new form of writing and the register within it. At times in ethnographies, it is acceptable to use the pronoun "I" when the person writing is essential to the ideas expressed. Other times they needed to employ an objective "researcher" voice in the passive. Matsuda (2001, p.40) defines voice as "the amalgamative effect of the use of discursive and non-discursive features that language users choose, deliberately or otherwise, from socially available yet ever-changing repertoires". This effect can be viewed by the errors in the papers. It was difficult for students to grasp when they were analyzing citations and sources or when they were speaking as local experts. Furthermore, it was difficult for them to understand how to switch from active to passive and when "what was found" was more important than "who it was found by". Krashen (1982, 2004) would agree that reading is the answer. In critically examining other research articles students were able to identify and mimic the register used and find and craft an academic voice of their own.

Students were instructed to expand their worldview (Bloom Malley & Hawkins,) think like non-Chinese speakers and observe the language like travelers to their own sites. The students were asked to use first person pronouns only at times when their specific knowledge was the subject of research. They were constantly flipping from the identity of a researcher to that of a highly proficient English user. Ken Hyland has studied the problems associated with Chinese speakers writing in English in "Authority and Invisibility: Authorial Identity in Academic Writing" (2002). He observed very similar issues among various researchers across a variety of disciplines. In these unique ethnography papers, they were challenged to switch back and forth from being a detached researchers/observer to local experts offering testimony and insight. In classroom instruction, this was highlighted by focusing on explicit grammar instruction and the salient features of each voice. Essentially, the use of the first-person pronouns, and substituting the word "researcher(s)" for it was discussed. Also, the students were instructed to use the passive voice as often as possible when the subject of the research was not the person conducting the research but the research itself. To improve on this error, in a peer-review session the students were asked to think critically about their peers' papers and the usage of the words "I" and "we". They were tasked to highlight instances of the first-person pronouns or active and passive voice. These issues were far from unique to learners in this context as Hyland has observed in 2002.

Results

In the results section, the students reflected on the usage of English at the site and how doing ELLA can provide insight into much more than simply the presence of English and its correctness. They uncovered a deep and complex relationship between actively created discourses in place (Scollon & Scollon 2003). Here are some interesting findings. One group stated,

> The results of this study can be used to learn how ordinary Chinese view English, what do they think when a foreign language they are not familiar with leaps to their eyes, and to what extent English play as a role of changing the whole environment from the perspective of people in the site, which can be considered valuable information for English-major students who study not only the language itself but also the culture behind it. (Liu, Wu, Xu, Shu, Cao, 2018)

Much of the LL research in China centers around Chinglish found in public signs and the embarrassment they create for the country (Zhang, 2015; Zhang & Xu, 2015; Yang & Liu, 2010). Private shop signs are by no means exempt from embarrassment due to Chinglish and students found several incidences of it at a variety of sites. Additionally, one group found an item called "lion ball soup" on a menu; this contained no lion meat. The word was simply used to connote the magnanimity of the circular-shaped food items containing beef or pork.

Figure 4 linguistic landscape of Walmart

In the two years of conducting this class, Lu Xun's Native Place was by far the most popular research site. Lu Xun was a famous literateur who wrote several famous poems in Chinese. Some of his well-known works: *Call to Arms, A Madman's Diary, Kong Yiji* (Reference Archive: Lu Xun) His ancestral home has been preserved and memorialized for tourists from all over the world. This is arguably the most international place in the area frequented by the largest amount of tourists both from within China and from outside.

Overall, the students found several incidences of Chinglish at the site. Words like *Sanwei Three Flavor Study* and *Baicao Garden* were transliterated into romanized pinyin or transformed some other way, producing confusing renditions of English. *Sanwei* and *three*

Figure 5 semiotics of a popular tourist site

*flavo*r are redundant in that one is the romanized pinyin of the mandarin words *san wei* and the other,*three flavor* is an incorrect English translation of the same word (three disciplines is a more precise translation). This makes things very confusing for English speaking guests gazing upon a room with desks and books labeled "Sanwei (Three-flavors) Study".

There was also a lack of consistency at the site when the same object was referred to in English and Pinyin in different signs. Near the main entrance, *wupeng boats* is written for a collection of boats, as visitors get closer the signs indicate *black awning boats*. These are not different types of boats as one might expect, but different ways to describe the same boat. *Wupeng* is the romanized pinyin representation for the word *black awning*. Perhaps the authors of the signs think English and pinyin are the same thing since they both contain a similar orthography. Perhaps they thought this naming convention would aid Chinese/English learners. These are the types of questions ELLA researchers seek to answer and attempt to illuminate.

The restaurants in the surrounding areas also warranted some interesting translations that were neither clear nor helpful to English speakers. One respondent stated, "When I traveled to Luxin's Native Place, I found some translation errors of the signs from some restaurants and hotels. For example, some signs translated 'public toilet' as 'between public health', which really made me confused." Also, there was a digital audio guide that was not available in English and the availability of English-speaking tour guides was negligible. Overall, there were some confusing words at the site and limitations in the usage of English. This was not conducive to a positive international image and disseminating cultural information to visitors in a manner in which they can appreciate the significance of the place. Some of the students mentioned,

With the continuous improvement of China's international influence and the flourishing development of the world tourism market, we find increasingly foreign tourists are attracted by China's long history and culture. In a sense, tourist signs play a significant role as a bridge between people in different background and the medium of mutual understanding among countries. And the usage of English in tourist attractions can make us realize that the application of English in China is very frequently. The survey's(sic) result shows that English is inevitable in Chinese's[sic] life now (Chen, Chen, Jin, Lu, & Song, 2018).

We can see that the students are thinking critically about the role of English in their environment. They discuss the visibility and saliency of the language as well as hint to its functions and the relationships between the author and agents of the signs.

On Chinglish, "As a matter of fact, Chinglish is getting more and more popular in China which can be understood clearly by Chinese people. If people are frequently speaking Chinglish, it will be regarded as common English, such as 'long time no see'" (Zhan, Wen, Gao, & Jin, 2017). We can also see the students predicting how what we observe today will shape English in the future. Evidence of Chinese/Cantonese phrases in the English lexicon can be seen in a recent news story about the term 'add oil' to mean 'keep it up' (Kao, 2018). While dictionaries merely anthologize words that have been previously used in print, as the students pointed out, this still legitimizes particular varieties of English and gives them relevance.

Additionally, the local high speed railway station was chosen twice each year and the largest retail mall in the vicinity, Wanda, was a popular favorite. Pizza Hut and KFC were both chosen out of convenience. One of the group members was employed part-time and encountered critical incidents in the usage of English at KFC. Interestingly, McDonald's was not chosen by any of the four groups. The translation or lack thereof in menu items was examined and difficulty communicating was observed by English speaking customers. The group that conducted their research at Pizza Hut mentioned,

Taking ketchup as an example, most employees do not know the ketchup is called "ketchup" instead they called it "tomato" sauce or "tomato". In other words, they do not know the difference between ketchup and tomato sauce. According to staff, "'Sauce' would be the kind of tomato product you would eat with spaghetti, or put on pizza, or eat with chicken parmigiana." When

employees say tomato sauce instead ketchup, English speaking customers are always confused and apologize. (Li, Fu, Wang, & Zheng, 2017)

In relation the to the "in vogue" nature,

All of these signs ultimately imply that Garbage Street may seem as an international site that reflects the internationalization of China at first glance, but it turns out that the usage of English in the site is only for the purpose of being unpractical decorations to attract more Chinese customers who don't understand English a lot. (Liu et el., 2018)

At the end of the course, all of the students were asked to write an anonymous, nongraded exit ticket where they were asked to reflect upon what they have learned and how their thinking has changed as a result of the research project, if at all. Specifically, the question was, "How has this research changed the way you think about English in Shaoxing, China?" Resoundingly, all of them mentioned they didn't notice the strange, erroneous, or confoundingly absent incidences of English but this research has compelled them to do so. "I never pay attention to think about using English in Shaoxing, after our research, I changed my mind there is not enough English usage in KFC", said one group. They also mentioned that they will continue to observe the changes in English over time and be a part of the positive change when feasible. "In our research, I find most Chinese people don't care about the English in public. Although they recived[sic] higher education. I never think about this question before class. Our research makes me start to learn how to improve people's attention on the English usage." Also,

First of all, I thought ZYU was an international university in which did not exist English errors. However, I was wrong. Although those mistakes are not notiable[sic], there were still many foreign people noticed it. As for me, I learnt we, as students major in English, should pay more attention to the English around us. Although we are lived in a Chineses university. Then it changed what I thought about English translation. Since we had already learn the class of translation, we should keep noticing the wrong translation in our life.

On collaboration, "I learned how to work with my teammates, because there is not one's work. We need to make our own contribution". These student reflections exemplify that doing

collaborative research papers on ELLA build teamwork, foster creativity and critical thinking, and enhance 21st century skills.

Discussion

While many studies have been done on LL in various parts of the world, few of them have focused on China. It is also important to note that even fewer studies have been conducted on ELLA pedagogy. This work can be a useful guide on how to use wikis in the classroom and to examine ELLA features in rural areas of China over time.

Sayer's 2010 article, "Using the Linguistic Landscape as a Pedagogical Resource", mentions language detectives going out into the world and looking for clues in the manner in which English is used. This imbues the principles of language learning as a journey that exists beyond the confines of school walls (Dixon and Shewell, 2018). Garvin (2010) found similar results with his "walking tours".

Figure 6 A 'Word Walk' with a group of students

Furthermore, The learning is multimodal and authentic texts are examined in realistic contexts. This embodies Dornyei's work in the "Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners" (1998): making the class interesting, promoting autonomy, personalizing instruction and familiarizing learners with the target culture. This research project engages the four skills and challenges students to think critically about how to classify their ethnographic information and compose it in a way that is informative and intriguing for the reader. A compelling piece of creative nonfiction to the tell the tale of the zeitgeist of English at the site.

Sayer (2010) also mentions how language is used as a means for both intercultural and intracultural communication. LL can be used a pedagogical tool for examining how English is used outside of the classroom in the social space within their own communities. Additionally, the extra component of students collaborating and deciphering meaning in their worlds challenges them to further to focus on forms (Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016) and learn from one another. Ethnographies allow the students to have their own voice as experts (Nunn &
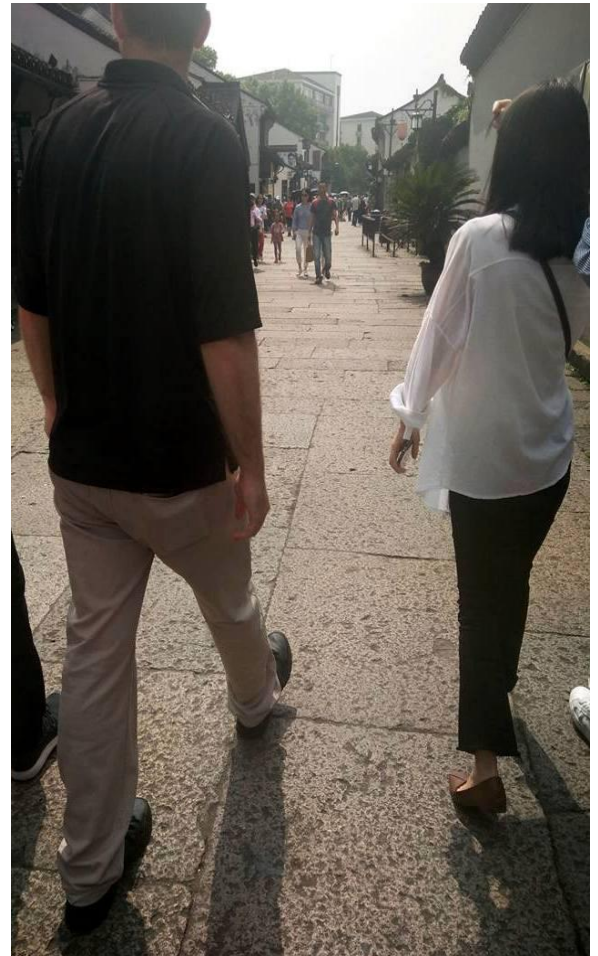
Adamson, 2009 p. 14) and explain their individual interpretation of the results of the study as well as any new understandings they may have as a result of conducting the research.

This has helped them to understand how to write clearly and concisely and to plan their research effectively. In the discussion section, the researchers are asked to speculate on what they anticipated to find and reflect on how their expectations compare with the actual findings. This serves to allow the students an opportunity to examine their own preconceived notions about the usage of English at the site and how they've changed as a result of conducting the research. The students are the subjects, authors, and language experts of their very own narratives about their local community!

Conclusion

While many studies have been done on LL in various parts of the world, few of them have focused on China. It is also important to note that even fewer studies have been conducted on ELLA pedagogy. This work can be a useful guide on how to use wikis in the classroom and to examine ELLA features in rural areas of China over time. In conclusion, there are a number of benefits of using wikis for ELLA in the classroom for collaborative writing. They engage students in critical thinking, creativity and collaboration. Ethnographies encourage intercultural communicative competence. Rowland (2013, 2016) has found that doing this type of research activity was very beneficial to students. He discovered it was beneficial to both multimodal and critical literacy skills, and increased pragmatic competency.

This research was recently presented at a conference on a MOOC at Arizona State University entitled The Journey Beyond our Walls. The audience members were asked to reflect on the following questions: What did you learn? What do you think about …? Tell me something… Generally they indicated sentiments of usefulness and intrigue after listening to the presentation. One person wrote, "I think the presentation was very, very interesting. The planning, time and implementation of this into the classroom in question showed wonderful results. I have taken many ideas from this for future use in my own classroom." Another, "Your presentation showed the utility of language awareness for learners and how to use affordances in the learning environment. You did well to get learners to reflect on the relationship between English and their environment, as it motivated them to improve the use....." Shane Dixon, Senior International Educator of ASU's Global Launch, designer of ASU's online TESOL certificate program, and chair of the conference, sat in on the presentation as well. He also echoed notions of the utility of English in the world. "Ethnography makes me imagine the opportunity for English language learners to discover their resources and see the utility of

English in the world around them. It may connect them more fully - if they know where to go and whom to find." This praise comes directly from an expert in online learning and EFL.

Also, this paper has described a project-based learning approach undertaken in an undergraduate academic writing course. ELLA has two parts: ethnography and linguistic landscape analysis. The paper defined LL and discussed some important studies in the field. It also outlined some of the benefits of EFL students conducting ethnographic research.

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ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

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Grammarly as a Tool for Enhancing Students' Essays

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Introduction

Among the four skills of language, writing comes at the end of one's mastery over the other three skills. According to Ingels (2006), writing skill is rated to be a hard task for most foreign language learners. Writing is not a simple task being done in the classroom. Murcia and Olshtain (2000) claimed that writing skill requires a high level of language control, problem-solving form, generating ideas, planning, goal setting, monitoring, and assessing what has been produced. Fatemi (2008) stated that some previous studies have demonstrated that low ability in grammar can inhibit students from writing effectively. Students must have the knowledge and skill that are actually required in succeeding a writing activity.

Writing among the students seems to be a burden in their studies especially in English grammar. They consider writing to be difficult particularly in writing exercises where English is used. Writing has become a difficult task and skill to develop that even native English writers are making errors. It is a complicated process that requires strict correctness of grammar and mechanics. Learning how to use English in both speaking and writing entails much effort on the part of the students. However, being able to write or speak proficiently in English in a global society is helpful.

Identification of errors that language learners make is important in order to understand the source of errors and the corrective measures teachers can offer. One of the ways in which students could check their essays is the Grammarly®. Grammarly® is an online grammar checker which automatically detects grammar, spelling, punctuation, word choice, and style mistakes in writing. Grammarly® is advertised as the world's most accurate grammar checker and is used as a tool in class. It helps teachers not only to assess learners' progress but also raises their awareness and make progress in a course. Furthermore, despite their growing popularity, research into online grammar checkers is limited. Studies concluded that research

on grammar checkers has largely not kept pace with the technology. Hence, there is a need to add necessary data on the very limited information about grammar checker and further determine the efficacy of this software in checking the errors of the students in their essays.

In a study done by Ventayen and Ventayen (2018), it was affirmed that the utilization of Grammarly® lessens the consultation from the experts that saves time and efforts and improves writing speed. The result of the study implies that the submission of class work in the courses could be improved.

This study was conducted to determine the efficacy of Grammarly® as a diagnostic tool to enhance students' essays based on the following parameters: Contextual Spelling, Grammar, Punctuation, Sentence Structure, Style, Vocabulary Enhancement, and, by extension, Plagiarism.

Methodology

This is a descriptive research since it presents the description given by the Grammarly® on the analysis of the essays. This research focused on a discussion about finding out the writing errors on the submitted essays of Third year AB-English students. The participants of this research are 37 Junior college students from a state university in Isabela, Philippines.

The submitted essays were analyzed using the licensed Grammarly® software based on the following categories: Contextual Spelling, Punctuation, Grammar, Style, Sentence Structure and Vocabulary Enhancement, and, by extension, Plagiarism. Grammarly® also determined the common errors of the students in their essays and the over-all qualitative analysis of the essays. The scoring used in the analysis of the essays was adopted from the scoring scale used in the University of London with some modifications on the adjectival rating. The values on the scale suggest that, the highest score on the scale has an adjectival rating of outstanding/ excellent; while a lowest score on the scale was given an adjectival rating of fail.

The scoring used in the analysis of the essays was adopted from the scoring scale used in the University of London with some modifications on the adjectival rating. The values on the scale suggest that, the highest score on the scale has an adjectival rating of outstanding/ excellent; while a lowest score on the scale was given an adjectival rating of fail.

Results and Discussion

Over- all score of students on Grammarly

The over-all score of the student as determined by Grammarly® using the scoring scale of the University of London revealed that 27 students got a score from 0-29, 8 students got a score from 30-39, only one 1 student got 40-42, and one 1 student got 50-52. Further, there were 27 students who got the literal mark (F) or degree classification "Fail." 8 students got the literal mark (F) classified as "Fail," 1 student for the literal mark (C-) classified as "Good" and, 1 student for the literal mark (B=) classified as "Satisfactory."

As demonstrated in the above discussion, most of the students got failing grades in their written essays, while only 1 student got a "Satisfactory" degree classification.

Number of Issues/ Errors found by Grammarly® in each essay

There were 1,820 issues found out of 18, 936 words in the essays of 37 students. These issues were the number of errors in terms of Contextual Spelling, Grammar, Punctuation, Sentence Structure, Style, and Vocabulary Enhancement. One must be mindful, however, that these categories are generic in nature as sub-categories of errors exist under them (as demonstrated by the findings that would follow) thereby demonstrating the extensive nature of Grammarly®'s coverage. For instance, under Contextual Spelling, the sub-categories of issues or problem areas include: misspelled words, confused words, and mixed dialects among others. These specific issues under the generic categories are presented in the succeeding discussions. Likewise, a discussion on plagiarism, as an issue, is also discussed separately. Its separation is made simply to highlight its unique nature from the given class of issues that are strictly linguistic in nature (i.e. morpho-syntactic). Moreover, this separate discussion was done only in a generic sense for reasons of brevity so as not to stray away from the primary objectives of the study with respect to the linguistic aspect of writing as a macro-skill.

In Contextual Spelling, the results revealed that there were 23 students who committed 0-29 errors, one student has 30-39 errors and one student has 56-58 errors. This means that in terms of their spelling, majority of the students were classified as Excellent/Outstanding, four students were rated Very Satisfactory and one student was classified as Good.

In terms of grammar, 35 students committed 0-29 errors, one student had 30-39 errors and one student committed 40-42 errors. The results suggest that, in terms of their grammar use, majority of the respondents were rated or classified as Excellent/Outstanding, one student was rated Very Satisfactory and one student was classified as Satisfactory in their grammar use.

In Punctuation, Sentence Structure, Style and Vocabulary Enhancement category, the results revealed that all the students committed 0-29 errors which means that the students were classified as Excellent/Outstanding in their punctuation, sentence structure, style and vocabulary.

As seen on the result, the highest number of errors is on spelling while the lowest number of errors committed by the students is the proper use of punctuation, sentence structure, style and vocabulary enhancement.

Some studies dealing with this study were done by Syifa (2013) who analyzed students' error in learning descriptive writing, which aims to find out the most common error made by the student in learning descriptive writing. As a result of the qualitative analysis of the 32 students, the findings showed that there are 770 errors made by the students. The most frequent errors made by the student in their descriptive writing is adding a word or omission with 129 of total errors or 16.75 percent; followed by word choice with 127 errors or 16.4 percent, singular-plural with 122 errors or 15.84 percent, punctuation which has 92 errors or 11.95 percent, capitalization with 90 errors or 11.69 percent, omitting a word (addition) with 72 errors or 9.35 percent, spelling that has 48 errors or 6.23 percent, run-on sentences with 23 errors or 2.98 percent, verb tense with 20 errors or 2.60 percent, article with 16 errors or 2.08 percent, word order with 15 errors 34 or 1.95 percent, and others.

Issues on Plagiarism found by Grammarly®

In the essays of the 37 respondents, Grammarly® revealed that a considerable degree of the some of the students' essays were plagiarized. The highest percentage of plagiarism accounted for among the essays amounted to 40% committed by a singular student. Nevertheless, there were some students whose essays recorded a 0% plagiarism indicating that they are 100% authentic. These results indicate that plagiarism remains a pervading issue in the students' academic life, particularly in the writing of their papers. However, whether these instances were intentional or merely inadvertent on the part of the students were no longer accounted for in the conduct of this research.

Many researchers and experts said, as reported by Ranjan (2009) of Shri Ramswaroop Memorial University, that there is an acceptable percentage of plagiarism. Ranjan claimed that some universities in India accepts PhD thesis with 30% maximum duplication with some genuine relaxations. As previously mentioned, it was found out that out of the 37 essays, there was one student who committed the highest percentage of plagiarism, 40%, which is 10% higher than the allowed percentage of plagiarism in Shri Ramswaroop Memorial University.

Dissimilar to the study of Martin (2005) of screening and evaluating the student research papers for the five semesters, the result found out that in 39 papers submitted during the first semester, nearly 50 percent of the papers contained some amount of plagiarism.

Common errors detected by Grammarly® on Contextual Spelling

There were five identified specific issues on Contextual Spelling category. The highest number of errors committed under this category are the following: Misspelled Words (424), Confused Words (78), Commonly Confused Words (31), Mixed Dialects of English (29) and on Unknown Words (10). The highest number of errors in Contextual Spelling category is the Misspelled Words. Looking at the figures and compare them with the total number of words in the essay which is 18,000+ words, the number of errors on contextual spelling is significantly low.

The results also revealed that the highest number of errors committed by the student in contextual category is the misspelled words and the lowest is the use of unknown words.

Similar to the study Al-Taani (2006) who studied spelling errors in students' composition writing at the secondary level in the United Arab Emirates. The sample in his study consisted of 200 randomly selected students classified and identified the position of spelling errors. The results showed that most spelling errors occur in the middle of misspelled words. The paper recommends that more time should be allocated to the investigation of spelling errors of this type.

Common errors detected by Grammarly® on Grammar.

On the Grammar category there were 12 specific issues identified by Grammarly namely, Faulty Subject-Verb Agreement (172 errors), Determiner Use (a/an/the/this, etc. (103 errors), Wrong or Missing Prepositions (99 errors), Incorrect Verb Forms (85 errors), Incorrect Noun Number (20 errors), Modal Verbs (17 errors), Faulty Tense Sequence (17 errors), Faulty Pronoun Use (12 errors), Misuse of Quantifiers (3 errors), Misuse of Modifiers (2 errors); and Conditional Sentences (1 error). The average number of errors per essay in Grammar category is 14.51 within an average of 511 words per essay.

The results further reveal that the highest number of errors in Grammar Category is in Subject- Verb agreement with 172 number of errors; while the lowest is Conditional Sentences with one error.

In the study of Ponvarin (2007), writing errors found in the first year graduate students' revealed that the most frequent grammatical mistakes were on the use of verbs (177), sentence

structure (172) which was the second most common error. Another most common error committed by the students in her study was on the use of nouns (148); and adjectives, adverb, and pronouns.

Common errors detected by Grammarly® on Punctuation.

There were four specific issues found in the essay of the 37 students in Punctuation category, namely, Punctuation in Compound/Complex Sentences with over-all number of errors (202), Comma Misuse within Clauses (75), Closing Punctuation (8) and Misuse of Semicolons, Quotation Marks, etc. (3) and the average Punctuation score per essay is 7.94.

As seen in the results, most of the students committed errors on Punctuation in Compound/Complex Sentences and only few of the students committed errors in using the Semicolons, Quotation Marks, etc.

In the study of Nasrudin (2015), it was stated that punctuation is one of many grammatical categories which is important to be learned by students. It should be learned because it is one of the three ways for students to complete what other people have said and thoughts to other people especially when they communicate to each other.

Common errors detected by Grammarly® on Sentence Structure.

There were two identified specific issues on Sentence Structure category. Results revealed that the identified specific issues and the number of errors were on Incomplete Sentences (34) and Misplaced Words or Phrases (19). Only few errors in sentence structure category were committed by the students

Ho (2005) states there are eight (8) common errors in students' writings: Dangling Modifier, Squinting Modifier, Jumbled-up or Illogical Sentence, Incomplete or Fragmented Sentence, Run-on Sentence (Fused Sentence), Inappropriate Coordinating Conjunction, Inappropriate Subordinating Conjunction, and Inversion of Subject-Verb.

Similar to the study of Ho (2005) the most common error made by the students was on Incomplete or Fragmented Sentence with 55 Fragmented Sentences.

Common errors detected by Grammarly® on Style

On the Style category there were 7 specific issues identified by Grammarly, namely: Improper Formatting with over-all number of errors (83), Unclear Reference (29), Wordy Sentences (30), Possible Dialectisms (16), Passive Voice Misuse (10), Inappropriate

Colloquialisms (7) and Politically Incorrect or Offensive Language (1). The over-all average number of errors per essay in Style category is 4.76.

This means that most of the students committed error in improper formatting in style category and only one error in politically incorrect or offensive language.

Similar to the study of Faller (2015) there are three specific issues identified in the Style Check category. Most writing errors committed by the students under this category is on Improper Formatting with overall mean of 2.18. On the other hand, only few errors are under the issues on Wordiness (0.32) and Usage of Colloquial Speech (0.23).

Vocabulary Enhancement detected by Grammarly®

Students' writing error was high on the Vocabulary Enhancement category, the specific issue is Word Choice wherein the average number in Vocabulary Enhancement per essay is 5.08. While only few were found in the students' essays in vocabulary enhancement category, which is similar to the study of Faller (2015) who reported that students' writing error was also high on the Enhancement Suggestion category, wherein the overall mean for the sole detected issue, the Word Choice issue, is 4.29.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusion

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of the study.

The students demonstrated an overall weak performance in their writing skills thereby warranting the necessity of the conduct of reinforced activities that aim to strengthen their weaknesses in the varied categorical issues identified by Grammarly®. Considering that most of the errors committed were basic and elementary in terms of their level of difficulty, the problems reflected by the issues strike at the core of educational institutional policy on language learning.

Nevertheless, the use of computer-assisted tools in identifying linguistic problems in writing showcases the growing interest in the accounting of problem areas in language learning with technical precision and efficiency. The use of such tools help address deficiencies that relate to human error wherever it may lie. However, one must be wary of too much dependence on such tools. An excessive focus on the technical might yield affective filters that would repel, rather than invite, the students in the field of language learning, specifically on writing skill as a dimension. This possible problem area is likewise addressed in the portion that follows.

Recommendations

Based on the results and conclusion of the study, the following recommendations are hereby proposed:

1. Since the score of each student is below average, students must pay attention and must not stop in learning the language. There are also lots of online grammar checker like **Grammarly**® that will help users improve their grammar and vocabulary.

2. If a writer wants to be successful in his field and a student wants a good grade in writing essays, he has to learn more about grammar. Both students and teachers could rely on an online grammar checkers. These are efficient and effective tool for enhancing grammar accuracy and learning. The Research and Development Unit of the University offers **Grammarly**® among the faculty and students for a minimum payment. Research instructors are therfore recommended to submit their students' researches to undergo **Grammarly**® checking in order to produce studies with lesser grammatical errors and plagiarism.

3. The researcher suggests both teacher and the student to pay more attention on their grammar especially in academic writing and should practice intensively by means of activities like essays, critiques, reports, thesis, and the like.

4. It is recommended that the implementation of workshops in writing be integrated with learning that uses **Grammarly**®. This would allow for the interaction of the various dimensions of learning—from the personal dimension, by way of self-regulation, i.e. through the use of the said computer-assisted tools; and from the social dimension, by way of interpersonal interaction, i.e. through the feedback mechanisms provided by the teacher and students within the workshop framework.

5. It is also suggested that English teachers/instructors be also meticulous in evaluating whether the corrections prescribed by **Grammarly**® be applied or not, depending on the context in order to have a more comprehensible output.

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Disciplinary Challenges in First-year Writing Courses: A Big Data Study of Students across Disciplines at a Hong Kong University

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Julia Chen is the Director of the Educational Development Centre and formerly Associate Director of the English Language Centre at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. She holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics and oversaw the development of new English subjects in her university's Language and Communication Requirement during a massive undergraduate curriculum reform several years ago. She advocated introducing blended learning components in the new English curriculum, and coordinated a thorough review of three of the new subjects last year, including the EAP subject reported in this article. She is a two-time recipient of her University's President Award for excellent performance and achievement in teaching and in service.

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Abstract

The ESL literature often attempts to explore how discipline-specific EAP knowledge can be acquired, but not much literature can be found on exploring how students across disciplines perform differently in the same EAP course. Also, despite the emergence of big data, data-driven studies are not common in ESL. This paper describes how students from various disciplines take the same EAP course in a Hong Kong university but how different performance results are in academic writing. The study adopted a big data approach, retrieved learning data from more than 7,000 learners across disciplines and three cohorts, and analyzed their learning patterns. Results suggested that the writing performance of students in writing from different disciplines were significantly different. The paper make a few suggestions to help cater the disciplinary differences in an EAP course.

Keywords: Learning Analytic; Data-driven; EAP; Academic Disciplines; Blended Learning

Introduction

Background

Studying at a university is especially new for many secondary school graduates, of whom many do not have a clear understanding of how and what they learn in university. Although these students may have taken relevant subjects in secondary school, they may be lacking in knowledge of the general university learning environment or academic disciplines, such as engineering, health science, and social sciences, in universities. The lack of knowledge in disciplines led to many challenges within within the Asian higher education context especially in their English courses (such as Hamamah, 2018; Chen & Foung, 2019; Foung, 2019).

Offering first-year composition (FYC) courses in the first year of university studies is one possible way to help students tackle an important but unfamiliar task in university:

preparing university papers at a proper academic standard. Past studies have shown that students have different understandings of the need to reference their sources (Chen, 2011) and require help in academic writing and conventions soon after they enter university (Morrison & Evans, 2014). In FYC courses, secondary school graduates who were trained to use English effectively are taught how to prepare common types of university assignments and acquire generic academic literacy (Foung & Lughmani, 2018). Certain FYC courses may also introduce disciplinary academic writing practices to students. Thus, FYC courses are important for students to develop their academic writing competence.

While most past studies have engaged in the debate regarding the need for generic academic literacy or discipline-specific academic literacy, many have neglected the unfortunate fact that students across different disciplines are often taught within one FYC curriculum. In other words, students from engineering, health science, and humanities are likely to take the same courses and complete the same assessments. Students across disciplines often perform differently; thus, different approaches need to be adopted to help students from different disciplines achieve the same set of course-learning outcomes effectively. This study posits itself as action research intended to explore the performance and the teaching and learning needs of students from different disciplines to provide insights for FYC teachers who deal with a diverse group of students to be able to teach more effectively.

Context

The research site is one of Hong Kong's publicly-funded universities. It is one of the largest universities in terms of student population and offers programmes from more than five disciplines, including health science, engineering, applied science, textile and clothing, and hotels and tourism. Each student must obtain approximately 120 credits for their undergraduate programme in four years. FYC courses are considered to be some of the university's generally required courses. Students are asked to obtain six credits (two courses) from English FYC courses in the research site, among the three FYC courses offered to students.

Three FYC courses are offered to accommodate this university's different students; these include Practical English for University Studies (PEUS), English for University Studies (EUS), and Advanced English for University Studies (AEUS). Generally, PEUS is offered to weaker admitted students; thus, the course is designed to enhance these students' proficiencies. EUS is offered to most students admitted to the university, as it helps them to acquire basic academic

literacy skills, including referencing and academic style. AEUS, the focus of this study, is an advanced academic literacy course that requires students to complete a more sophisticated genre and demonstrate critical thinking capabilities. This course has more rigid requirements for academic sources. The intended learning outcomes of AEUS are as follows:

a. to research relevant academic texts for a topic and integrate the sources into a position;

b. to develop an argumentative essay appropriately and effectively;

c. to plan, conduct research for, write, and revise a position argumentative essay; and

d. to present and justify views effectively in a mini oral defence.

There are three assessments in the course, all of which are on the same topic chosen by the student. These assessments are: the First Draft of the Position Argumentative Essay, the Final Draft of the Position Argumentative Essay, and the Oral Defence for the Essay. In addition to these assessments, students are required to complete an online learning package and attain a minimum attendance of 80%. If a student fails to achieve this, they may be downgraded.

Significance

This study, despite being one of action research, provides an important contribution to the Asian English language teaching context in three ways. First, at the discipline level, most previous studies on disciplinary differences examined the nature of the discipline only, by exploring the nature of a pure or practical discipline, for example. This study is one of the few that contextualizes disciplinary differences by investigating how students realize these differences in their writing and course performance. Second, previous studies have seldom adopted large-scale data. The current big data study could provide a strong empirical foundation for future research. Third, at the pedagogical level, very little research has been conducted on the disciplinary differences in writing. This study could provide useful insights for FYC teachers, course designers, and researchers to understand how students across disciplines are different, thus allowing them to design/teach differently according to specific contexts.

Literature Review

University disciplines have been well-defined in the literature. The most classic method of categorization is that developed by Biglan (1973), which has three dimensions: pure (e.g., chemistry) versus applied (e.g., engineering), hard (e.g., science) versus soft (e.g., humanities), and life (e.g., psychology) versus non-life (e.g., physics). Later studies, such as those of Smart and Elton (1982) and Stoecker (1992), attempted to validate these dimensions, which led to the general support of Biglan's (1973) classification scheme. Differences across disciplines were shown to have significant implications for educators. For instance, Bridges et al. (1999) revealed that a wider spread in mark distribution exists in hard disciplines than soft. Neumann, Parry, and Becher (2002) noted disciplinary differences on modes of assessment and the determination of grades within them. These offer solid grounds for language educators to believe that there are differences across disciplines.

Writing practices differ across disciplines. In their seminal paper, Lea and Street (1998) described literacy as context-dependent and discipline-influenced. They observed "variation in modes of writing across disciplines and fields of study" (p. 162) and reported how history and anthropology tutors respond very differently to essays written by the same student using the same format, with the former appreciating evidence in factual details and the latter looking for abstraction of theory. Variations between academic writing in different fields (e.g., humanities, social sciences, and physical sciences) have also been noted in student writing (e.g., Biber & Gray, 2013; Staples et al., 2016) and research publications (e.g., Jiang & Hyland, 2015). For example, finite clauses are used more frequently in student assignments in the humanities than in social sciences, and they are used least often in physical sciences. Passive voice structures occur more notably in physical science writing than in humanities (Weinberger et al., 2015; Staples et al., 2016). Deeper analysis has shown that while art and humanities students slowly and steadily increase their use of the passive voice throughout their studies, physical science students increase their passive voice usage in the second and third years of their undergraduate studies but decrease it at the graduate level, and social science students decrease their use in the first two years, followed by an increase in the third year and a decrease in the fourth year. Research articles in soft fields, such as applied linguistics and sociology, have shown more occurrences of noun complements than in engineering, medicine, biology, and physics; engineers and biologists tend to use stance nouns for different purposes, reflecting the different focuses of the two disciplines (Jiang & Hyland, 2015). Other disciplinary differences found within professional academic writing include the use of short sentences in mathematics and

physics, the present tense in biology and psychology, and hedging in chemistry. These features of disciplinary literacy may reflect "disciplinary habits of mind" (Fang & Coatoam, 2013, p. 628) and carry implications for discipline-aligned pedagogic practices (Harmon & Wood, 2018).

Most past studies have focused on disciplinary differences in professional writing but not on students' writing. Although many studies have been conducted on disciplinary differences, these, which include Foung and Chen (2019), Whitmire (2002), and Lam et al. (2014), were on online behaviours. Very little has been done to understand disciplinary differences in undergraduates' writing. Therefore, this study is aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Which disciplines perform significantly better/worse in FYC courses?

2. What are the specific strengths and weaknesses of students in those stronger/weaker disciplines?

Methodology

Overview

This was a two-phase study that made use of student data from the learning management system and the timetabling system. After the preliminary data screening and processing procedures, the first phase, using quantitative methodologies, was conducted to determine whether some disciplines perform significantly differently from others. The aim of this phase was to identify two to three major disciplines of interest for further analysis and to answer Research Question One. Then, in Phase Two, comparisons were made of the performance of students between disciplines that stand out and all other disciplines, using quantitative methodologies. The aim of this phase was to identify the problematic areas of the identified disciplines and to provide direction for answering Research Question Two. The following sections provide further information on the research methodology.

Participants

Students who took AEUS were the participants for this study. Student assessment data over four cohorts of students were retrieved from the learning management system directly, and, after the screening process, there were altogether 7,192 students in this study. These students had completed the English exam for the Hong Kong Diploma of Secondary Education Examination and had achieved Level 4 or higher (the equivalent of IELTS 6.31 to 7.77). As one of the rationales of this study, all students were taking the same course; however, they were admitted to a range of disciplines. Each student was assigned to a class (each class had approximately 25 students) according to the structure of their undergraduate programme. Students in the same discipline could usually go into the same class; however, some classes contained a mix of students from various disciplines. Table 1 shows the distribution of the students' different disciplines.

Table 1.

Distribution of the students' different disciplines

Disciplines	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Accounting and Finance	780	10.8
Applied Sciences	346	4.8
Applied Social Sciences	162	2.3
Broad Discipline of Civil Engineering	532	7.4
Broad Discipline of Engineering	1,095	15.2
Broad Discipline of Health Sciences	324	4.5
Building and Real Estate	119	1.7
Building Serves Engineering	67	0.9
Business	422	5.9
Civil and Environmental Engineering	141	2.0
Civil and Structural Engineering	62	0.9
Design	308	4.3

Health Technology and Informatics	100	1.4
Hotel and Tourism Management	489	6.8
Land Surveying and Geo-Informatics	60	0.8
Logistics and Maritime Studies	129	1.8
Mixed	336	4.7
Nursing	573	8.0
Optometry	54	0.8
Rehabilitation Sciences	672	9.3
Textiles and Clothing	421	5.9
Total	**7,192**	**100.0**

Course (writing) assessments

AEUS consists of three assessments; two of these are writing assessments. During the course, students are required to write a 1,200-word take-home essay related to a field of academic study, such as the use of genetic engineering or nuclear power, which incorporates a minimum of six academic sources. Assessment One is the first draft of this essay, which has only 600 words (around two to four body paragraphs, excluding the introduction and conclusion of the essay). Assessment Two is the final draft of the paragraph with 1,200 words, and includes all essay elements. Each student's writing assessment is marked according to four criteria – content, organization, language, and referencing – and the two take-home assessments adopt the same grading descriptors. The final assessment in AEUS is an oral defence of the written essay, which is beyond the scope of this paper.

Data collection procedures

After going through all the necessary ethical and data request procedures, student assessment data over four cohorts of students were retrieved directly from the learning management system. All the writing assessment component scores (n = 8) for each student were retrieved for analysis. Each score was given according to the university's assessment scheme.

Data processing and cleaning

Quantitative data

The retrieved assessment results were entered onto a Microsoft Excel sheet. As the learning management system data does not include the disciplines of the students, the researchers used the class codes of the students to trace the discipline of each particular class (based on the timetabling data). Before the data analysis was conducted, students who had not completed the entire course were removed from the study. Also, univariate outliners were detected and removed after the standard scores of each component score were checked; an item was to be removed if the standard score was larger than |3|. The normality of the scores was checked by visually inspecting the histogram of each variable. All variables appeared to be normally distributed.

Data analysis

Phase One

To answer Research Question One, the researchers had to compare the assessment scores of students across disciplines. A round of ANOVA was conducted with all assessment component scores to compare the results of the students across all the disciplines. The 11 scores were the dependent variables, and the student disciplines were the grouping variables. The ANOVAs was followed up by multiple comparisons with Turkey HSD (i.e. the mean of each assessment score in each discipline was compared with the corresponding score of another discipline). Since there were 9 assessment scores and 21 disciplines, a total of 3780 comparisons were made. The number of statistically significant results ($p < 0.05$) in each discipline was recorded, and the sign (positive or negative) of each comparison was also noted. If a discipline was observed to generate many statistically significant, positive results (when compared to other disciplines), this meant that the students were doing relatively better. Similarly, if a discipline generated many statistically significant negative results, these students were relatively worse than the students in other disciplines. These results helped answer Research Question One and inform the analysis for Phases Two and Three.

Phase Two

After determining which disciplines stood out positively and negatively, the researchers moved on to determine how certain disciplines were doing better than others. Phase One found that Applied Science (AS) students were doing worse, and Rehabilitation Science (RS) students were doing better. Two new binary variables were introduced, and students were coded (1) if they were RS students and (0) if they were AS students (1 = RS students and 0 = non-RS students). Then, the researchers ran two rounds of t-tests (one for each discipline) to determine which assessment components were statistically significantly different from the other students. Table 2 below outlines all the assessment components for each writing assessment. Bonferroni correction was used for this analysis.

Table 2.

Marking criteria of the take-home assessments

Component	*Criteria*
Content	Task Fulfilment, Comprehensiveness, Relevance, Argumentation, etc.
Organization	Coherence, Use of Cohesive Device, Overall Structure, etc.
Language	Accuracy/Range of Grammatical Structures, Accuracy/Range of Vocabulary, Academic Style, etc.
Referencing	Accuracy of In-text Citations and Reference List, Integration of Citations, etc.

Ethical Approval

The ethical review for the teaching of/research involving human subjects of this project was approved by the Departmental Research Committee (Reference Number: HSEARS20160812002).

Results

Distinctive Disciplines

This first question was aimed to determine which disciplines stand out from other disciplines. To compare the two writing assessment component scores and overall scores (i.e. n = 9) across the 21 groups, 3,780 rounds of comparisons were made (i.e. 21 groups X 20 times X 9 scores). Of these, 466 were found to be statistically significant. Table 3 provides a summary. RS and AS stood out in these comparisons. Among the 466 statistically significant comparisons, AS students did 47 times worse than other disciplines (10.09%) and did not perform better than any other disciplines in any aspects. On the other hand, RS stood out in a positive manner. RS students did better in 97 aspects (20.82%) than the other disciplines. It is also important to note that these two disciplines (i.e. AS and RS) have always done better/worse than others, but not the opposite. Therefore, in this study, they were considered distinctive.

After examining Table 3 carefully, it was found that no other disciplines showed a more distinctive performance than any other disciplines. Still, some disciplines, including Logistics and Maritime Studies, performed better and others, including Design, performed worse. However, based on the number of statistically significant aspects, these disciplines may not have the most pressing need for special attention. Therefore, the remaining sections in this paper will focus only on RS and AS.

Table 3.

Comparison of student performance across disciplines

Discipline	Doing Worse		Doing Better	
	Freq.	*%*	*Freq.*	*%*
Accounting and Finance	17	3.65%	1	0.21%
Applied Sciences	**47**	**10.09%**	**0**	**0.00%**
Applied Social Sciences	7	1.50%	0	0.00%
Broad Discipline of Civil Engineering	5	1.07%	14	3.00%

Broad Discipline of Engineering	23	4.94%	5	1.07%
Broad Discipline of Health Sciences	3	0.64%	12	2.58%
Building and Real Estate	0	0.00%	9	1.93%
Building Services Engineering	4	0.86%	0	0.00%
Business	15	3.22%	4	0.86%
Civil and Environmental Engineering	10	2.15%	0	0.00%
Civil and Structural Engineering	1	0.21%	6	1.29%
Design	21	4.51%	0	0.00%
Health Technology and Informatics	7	1.50%	1	0.21%
Hotel and Tourism Management	5	1.07%	13	2.79%
Land Surveying and Geo-Informatics	17	3.65%	0	0.00%
Logistics and Maritime Studies	1	0.21%	46	9.87%
Mixed	11	2.36%	15	3.22%
Nursing	15	3.22%	10	2.15%
Optometry	2	0.43%	0	0.00%
Rehabilitation Sciences	**0**	**0.00%**	**97**	**20.82%**
Textiles and Clothing	22	4.72%	0	0.00%
Total	**233**		**233**	

Strengths/Weaknesses of AS and RS

To further understand the strengths of RS students and the weaknesses of AS students, two rounds of independent-sample t-tests were conducted. Due to the differences in sample size across the two groups (RS versus others and AS versus others), Welch statistics were used. Table 4 summarizes the results of the RS students. As expected, the RS students did significantly better in all assessment components. The actual differences ranged from 0.10 to 0.21 (out of 4.5). After considering the weight of each assessment component and each

assessment, RS students were already doing better by 0.11 (out of 4.5) in their final scores than other students.

Table 4

A comparison of the results between the Rehabilitation Science Students and other students

	Rehabilitation Sciences (n = 672)		Non-rehabilitation Sciences (n = 6,520)		Mean Diff.	Welch
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*		
A1 Content	2.83	0.58	2.65	0.60	0.19	**61.54
A1 Organization	2.79	0.58	2.64	0.57	0.15	**38.95
A1 Language	2.68	0.54	2.51	0.54	0.16	**56.65
A1 Referencing	2.78	0.61	2.68	0.65	0.10	**16.71
A2 Content	3.18	0.51	2.99	0.55	0.19	**83.19
A2 Organization	3.05	0.51	2.91	0.54	0.14	**48.51
A2 Language	2.92	0.50	2.71	0.52	0.21	**111.19
A2 Referencing	3.06	0.57	2.89	0.65	0.18	**58.27

**$p < 0.0625$: Bonferroni correction = 0.05/8 = 0.00625

It is important to note that Assessments One and Two were actually the First Draft and the Final Draft of the same essay. In addition to their general comparison, it was interesting to see whether there were differences between the two assessments. Based on Table 4, RS students maintained their advantages in Content (~0.19) and Organization (~0.15); i.e. the mean differences in these aspects are very similar across the two assessments. However, RS students were doing better than other students in the language (+0.05) and referencing (+0.08) of Assessment Two. This seems to suggest that RS students were making good progress in their course. The script analysis presented below may provide further details on why RS students could have done even better in these areas in Assessment Two.

A similar round of t-tests was conducted with the AS students, and Table 5 presents the details of this comparison. Regarding the assessment components, all were significantly different from the other students, except for the language and referencing in Assessment Two.

The differences for the statistically significant components ranged from 0.10 to 0.16. Also, unlike the RS students, the AS students had very similar Assessment One and Two differences. Even though the AS students' differences were not large (when compared to the RS students), the results required further detail in order to provide timely support to the AS students.

Table 5.

A comparison of the results between the Applied Science students and other students

	Applied Sciences (n = 346)		Non-Applied Science (n = 6,846)		Mean Diff	Welch
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*		
A1 Content	2.54	0.62	2.67	0.60	0.13	**15.05
A1 Organization	2.56	0.56	2.66	0.57	0.10	**11.39
A1 Language	2.41	0.58	2.53	0.54	0.13	**15.89
A1 Referencing	2.53	0.66	2.69	0.64	0.16	**18.98
A2 Content	2.90	0.57	3.01	0.54	0.11	**12.49
A2 Organization	2.81	0.53	2.93	0.54	0.12	**16.20
A2 Language	2.65	0.59	2.73	0.52	0.08	6.53
A2 Referencing	2.82	0.69	2.91	0.64	0.09	5.64

**p < 0.0625: Bonferroni correction = 0.05/8 = 0.00625

Discussion

Research Question One

The first aim of this study was to explore whether students perform differently across disciplines in FYC courses. The quantitative analysis of the assessment results supports the fact that there were significant results across disciplines. In particular, Health Sciences students did particularly well, while AS students did significantly worse. Other disciplines stood out as better (e.g., Logistics and Maritime Studies) or worse (e.g., Design). The reason behind and implications of this should be carefully considered.

Although this study could not make strong arguments for the reasons behind the differences, the need for communication in core disciplines may be one of them. RS students are often trained to be occupational therapists and physiotherapists. Communication is an important attribute of graduates in this discipline (Adam, Strong, Gibson, Lyle, & Chipchase, 2012), and this is reflected on the websites of these programmes as well (example of a Programme Website). It is possible that training in communication skills is well-embedded in their core courses; thus, these students are more conscious and competent in their communication. Therefore, they may do better in their writing assessments as a kind of human communication. However, AS students are required primarily to demonstrate their "analytical power" and "generic technical skills", as described in the programme's aims on the programme website. It is possible that communication may not be an important aspect in their core courses. Therefore, they may be weaker in their communication. All these factors support communication as being more important in some disciplines than others, and this can influence writing performance.

An important implication for higher education administrators is that an FYC course cannot be treated as a typical elective course with a mix of students. In an elective course in higher education, a true credit-based system allows students to choose whichever session of the same course on the registration system that they want, as long as there is no clash in their timetable. In such cases, this can lead to a mix of students from different disciplines. However, based on the differences found in the current study, it seems sensible to group students from the same disciplines together so that teachers can manage their differences more easily.

Research Question Two

Through the qualitative analysis, students' specific strengths and weaknesses were revealed, and the implications of the results for teachers are critical. For example, the RS students had already mastered basic skills in argumentation and only required strategies to enhance their skills; however, the AS students still struggled with the genre and needed more input. Teachers, unfortunately, need to deal with these differences with different groups of learners within the same curriculum even though this type of one-size-fits-all literacy curriculum is always being criticized (Rosenbloom & Way, 2004; Stuart, 2006; Zhang & Pelttari, 2014). One possible solution is for teachers to adjust their teaching activities (instead of their teaching plans/course schedules) to meet students' needs. Ziska (2018), in his study of

biology undergraduates, suggested that it is necessary to use suitable materials to cater to students' needs. For example, when a specific genre activity is being delivered to all students, teachers may feel the need to allow more time for the AS students to discuss features of the genre and offer more detailed feedback to each of these students. This would allow these students to acquire basic skills in genre knowledge. When RS students are working on the same activity in the genre, teachers may challenge them by giving them less support or allowing them to give feedback to their own peers. Similar peer-sharing activities have been shown to be effective strategies in writing classes (Atikah, 2018). These methods are sensible ways to cater to the diversity of students.

Conclusion

The current study is an enlightening one, as it has revealed the disciplinary differences in student FYC courses using a mixed-method design and a large dataset. Statistical and script analyses suggested that AS students are weaker and RS students are better at FYC courses. One possible explanation for this could be the training that students receive in their core courses. However, no matter the reasons, this study suggests that teachers can adapt their teaching activities to meet different needs, and administrators should avoid grouping students across disciplines into the same classes. The results presented in this study will make important contributions to frontline FYC teachers, administrators, course designers, and writing researchers.

Despite its use of large-scale data, the current study has two limitations. First, it is not easy to speculate the reasons behind these differences and to describe them in detail. Second, like any large-scale data, it is difficult to include all factors when conducting an analysis. It is possible for sampling biases to occur within one university. In fact, this study's research site was only one of the nine publicly-funded universities and students in the same discipline; thus, results from another university could be better or worse than those at this university. Therefore, this affects the reliability of the results in this study.

Future studies could focus on explaining the reasons behind disciplinary differences and explore whether other disciplines that were not included in this study (e.g., medical science) could generate different results.

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Instrument Construct to Evaluate the Competence of English Lecturers at State Islamic Institute in Indonesia

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Abstract

Lecturers are professional educators in college and have a duty to plan, implement, and evaluate the learning process. In line with this, the research was conducted to construct an instrument for evaluating lecturers' competence. In developing instruments, the researcher used Research and Development study consisting of five steps, i.e.: (1) preliminary investigation, (2) development, validation, and final product. The subjects of this study were lecturers at the Faculty of Education and Teaching Training IAIN Palopo (State Islamic Institute). The aim of this study is to produce instruments for evaluating lecturers' competencies. The instrument have covered lecturers' competency in preparing lesson plan, conducting teaching and learning processes, and evaluating the result of teaching and learning processes. The instruments were validated by experts and practitioners. Afterward, the validity of the instruments were analyzed Exploratory Factor Analysis and the reliability coefficient of instrument were analyzed by Genova (Generalizability of Variants). The instrument produced were : (1) competence in opening a teaching-learning process evaluated in four items; (2) competence in presenting teaching-learning materials evaluated in thirteen items; (3) competence in using teaching-learning media evaluated in six items; (4) competence in asking and involving students in a teaching-learning process evaluated in thirteen items; (5) competence in maintaining positive personality in a teaching-learning process evaluated in eleven items, (6) competence in motivating students to use English evaluated in ten items; (7)

competence in managing teaching-learning time evaluated in four items; (8) competence in closing a teaching-learning process evaluated with five items.

Keywords: Instruments Construct, Evaluate, Lecturer Competence

Introduction

The lecturer is one of the academic community members who greatly contributes to the advancement of the university. A professional and competent lecturer is needed to perform roles, obligations, and responsibilities. A lecturer is a professional educator and scientist whose main tasks are transforming, developing and disseminating science, technology and arts through education, research, and community service (Government Regulation 2005, Government Regulation 2009). Furthermore, the main task of a lecturer is to implement the Three Pillars of higher education with a workload of a minimum of twelve credits and a maximum of sixteen credits in each semester by following academic qualifications. Meanwhile, the professor is a lecturer with the highest academic position in the higher education unit and has the special task of writing scientific books and works and disseminating his/her ideas to enlighten the society.

The evaluation of the lecturer's competence is aimed at improving lecturer practice to improve student learning, so every lecturer must have adequate knowledge, especially mastery of pedagogical content knowledge. To find out these competencies, it is necessary to conduct an in-depth study to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of lecturers in the process of learning English through valid and reliable instruments.

There are several government policies related to the lecturer evaluation system such as lecturer certification (2014) and assessment of Lecturer Workload (Dirjen Pendik, 2010) which is conducted every semester, but the instruments used are not standardized and have not used detailed instruments to identify the competence of English lecturers. In addition, the components assessed are general in nature and only cover knowledge. Therefore, this research attempts to construct an instrument that can be used as a standard instrument to evaluate the competence of English lecturers in Indonesia to measure the achievement of the works of lecturers. The purposes of instrument evaluation is to promote an enhancement of professional practice in other to upgrade instruction, which has been directly linked to students achievement (McCaffrey et.al,2003). So, the results of the evaluations are beneficial in understanding the areas of possible improvement for the lecturer (Yeoh Sok-Foon Yeoh Sok-Foon, Jessica Ho

Sze-Yin, & Benjamin Chan Yin-Fah, 2012). In addition, lecturer evaluation can be made as materials for lecturers to introspect about their strengths and weaknesses in the learning process.

Literature Review

Lecturer's Competence Indicators

Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 14 of 2005 concerning Teachers and Lecturers states that Lecturers are professional educators and scientists whose main tasks are teaching, developing, and disseminating science, technology and arts through education, research and community service (Law No. 14 Year 2005 Article 1 Paragraph 2). This law the competence of lecturers can be developed in more detail as follows:

1. Competence in the field of study consists of sub-competencies of (a) understanding courses that have been prepared to teach, (b) understanding competences, curricula, and subject matter lectured in his/her respective college/university, (c) understanding the scientific structure, concepts and methods that deal with course materials, (d) understanding the relationship of concepts between related courses, (e) applying scientific concepts in daily life, (f) developing the field of study that he/she is undertaking.

2. Pedagogic competence consists of sub-competences of (a) contributing to curriculum development related to the courses taught, (b) developing syllabus based on developed competences, (c) planning lecture plans based on the syllabus that has been developed, (d) designing lecture management, class and laboratory management, (e) delivering lectures that are pro-change, (f) assessing student learning outcomes authentically, (g) guiding students in various aspects, (h) writing textbooks that are textually, actually, and factually synergic, (i) developing self-professionalism as a lecturer, and (j) developing e-learning as one of the learning methods to make studrnts active. Related to this, Arellano-Tamayo, Ria (2018) in the Asian EFL Journal December 2018, issue 12.3 found that to be an active ESL classroom, the teacher uses a language within their level of understanding.

3. Professional ethics competence consists of sub-competences of (a) understanding, fully comprehending and implementing lecturer ethics, (b) providing education services wholeheartedly, professionally and with high expectations for students, (c) respecting differences in student background and making high commitment to improve their learning achievement, (d) demonstrating and promoting values, norms, positive attitudes and behaviors, (e) contributing to the development of departments/study programs in general and lectures in particular, (f) making themselves an integral part of their

134

college/university, (g) being responsible for their achievements, (h) performing their duties in the corridors of prevailing laws and regulations, (i) developing self-professionalism through self-evaluation, reflection, and updating various matters related to their duties, and (j) understanding, fully comprehending, and implementing foundations of education: juridical, philosophical, and scientific.

4. Social competence consists of sub-competences of (a) understanding and respecting differences and having the ability to manage conflict and difference, (b) implementing harmonious cooperation with fellow lecturers, superiors and other relevant parties, (c) building a compact, intelligent, dynamic, and agile teamwork, (d) performing effective and pleasant communication with various parties, (e) having the ability to understand and internalize environmental changes that affect their duties, (f) being able to put themselves in the value system prevailing in the surrounding community, (g) implementing the principles of good governance (participation, transparency, accountability, law enforcement, and professionalism).

5. Research competence consists of sub-competences of (a) understanding the philosophy of science in the field of study, (b) mastering theories of the field that he/she is undertaking, (c) understanding approaches to develop science that he/she is undertaking, (d) understanding paradigms and research approaches in the field of science , (e) understanding research methodology, (f) understanding research methods in the field of study, (g) understanding quantitative and qualitative data analysis tools, (h) publishing scientific research findings or scientific articles, (i) attending scientific seminars or meetings, (j) understanding actual and factual matters in the field of study, (k) always developing research methodologies, research methods, and data analysis techniques, (l) understanding problems encountered by science, State and society in the field of study, (m) using the latest ICT to support the development of knowledge, (n) always progressively developing knowledge, (o) diligently conducting research, (p) being open to criticism, input, and suggestions for improvements to the results of his/her works, and (q) developing research on his campus.

6. Community service competence consists of sub-competencies of (a) understanding actual problems and offering proper solutions to solve problems encountered by the community, (b) establishing partnerships synergistically with the community in order to promote and develop one another, (c) establishing cooperation with local governments in order to promote their regions, (d) disseminating their knowledge to the community to participate in educating the nation, (e) facilitating the central government and regional governments

in order to implement decentralization and regional autonomy in their fields of expertise, (f) advocating for the community concerning the importance of improving life and the efforts that need to be taken in accordance with their fields of expertise, (g) conducting community surveys whose results can be used as consideration in preparing community service programs, (h) conducting various university promotions, (i) conducting field training practices that is able to improve conditions/situations, (j) providing open services to the community through consultation with lecturers related to the problems encountered.

Other authors (Tzu-Chia Chan (2015) conducted a research on the dimensions of teacher self-assessment in Intercultural Communicative Competency (ICC) consisting of four dimensions of ICC, namely: (a) communication skills, (b) ability to use cross-cultural strategies in ELT, (c) perspective to ELT, and (d) affective orientation in communicating between cultures. Meanwhile, Wolfhhagen, Scherpbier & Vleuten (2003) divide five dimensions in developing assessment instruments to evaluate the competence of English teachers or lecturers, namely active learning, self-directed learning, contextual learning, collaborative learning and interpersonal behavior.

To increase the competence of lecturers in performing their duties and responsibilities, Indonesian government has also implemented policies in the form of lecturer certification, both lecturers under the Ministry of National Education and under the Ministry of Religious Affairs. In the lecturer certification manual, it is stated that lecturer certification aims to assess the professionalism of lecturers, in order to improve the quality of education in the higher education system. Professionalism recognition is expressed in the form of giving education certificates to lecturers who have passed certification. Therefore, the certification of lecturers is intended to improve the quality, performance and professionalism of lecturers in performing their academic duties. Accordingly, a standardized assessment instrument is needed to find out whether the certified lecturer has actually carried out his duties and obligations.

Objectives of Lecturer Assessment

Lecturers play an important role in education, so that the success of education must be accompanied by adequate quality of lecturers. On the contrary, a qualified lecturer who is not supported by other supporters may not optimize their performance. Because lecturers are the spearhead in improving the quality and service of education in higher education, they are required to have adequate competence in achieving educational success.

In the Lecturer Workload textbook and evaluation of the implementation of the Three Pillar of Higher Education (2010), it is stated that lecturer evaluation aims to: (1) improve the

professionalism of lecturers, (2) improve educational processes and outcomes, (3) improve lecturer performance accountability, (4) improve the academic atmosphere at all levels of higher education, and (5) accelerating the realization of national education goals. It is further explained that the principle of determining Lecturer Workload and Evaluation of the Implementation of the Three Pillars of Higher Education is based on self-evaluation; mutual love, mutual improvement and mutual care; improving the professionalism of lecturers, improving the academic atmosphere; and promoting university independence.

Wilkerson & Lang (2007: 3) explain the importance of evaluating teachers or lecturers, which is to encourage lecturers to continuously reflect on the results of the learning process in order to improve the quality of learning in the classroom. The results of the Tzu-Chia Chao (2015) study show that the results of self-evaluation of English lecturers can be used to increase self-awareness in response to the development of English language learning. In addition, Isore (2009: 6) reveals two main objectives of teacher or lecturer evaluation, namely: first, to ensure that the lecturer shows his best performance to improve student learning; and second, looking for improvements in the teacher's own practice. Therefore, lecturers who reflect on their teaching will become a power to improve themselves for the advancement of their students (C.Ganga Lakshmi & R.Naganathan, 2019). Thus, the results of English language lecturer evaluations are needed (Young & Sachdev, 2011). From the various aforementioned opinions, it can be concluded that lecturer performance evaluation aims to: improve lecturer performance in teaching and learning activities in the classroom, improve the quality of learning and education services in accordance with the needs of all stakeholders, and ensure the best service to students.

Steps for Making Instrument Construct

The construct of the lecturer competence evaluation instrument is intended to obtain a standard instrument. The instrument is developed empirically through testing both through experts and field trials. Ebel and Prisbie (1991: 286) argue that a standard test is a test prepared by experts, always tested, analyzed and revised, including scoring techniques. From this standardization process, the instrument will be valid and reliable.

The success of an evaluation is determined by measuring instruments, methods, and human abilities using instruments. There are several theories proposed by experts related to the development of instruments, namely, the theory of Borich, Gronlund, and Lambert. Borich (1977: 57) states that four steps are taken in developing a valid assessment (instrument), namely: (1) identifying the underlying philosophy or meta theory as a guide to process

development, (2) selecting or compiling a basic theory based on that philosophy which describes the relationship between the behavior of teacher/lecturer and student, (3) planning a prototype model that combines selected theories to create a sequence of specific behavioral description, and (4) testing validation by trying and revising one or more rating systems.

Furthermore, Gronlund (1993: 115) argues that performance measurement includes methods, procedures, and data collection techniques. An instrument will be effective if it uses a systematic approach by: (1) specifying the results of the performance to be measured, (2) choosing the focus of the assessment, (3) choosing the level of realism, (4) choosing the performance situation, and (5) choosing method, investigating, recording, and scoring.

Meanwhile, Lambert Clark (1979: 23) proposes key elements in performance assessment, namely: (1) job analysis, (2) job description, (3) assessment area selection, (4) performance standard determination, (5) assessment performance review, (6) guidance and planning of actions, training, and (7) review of the performance assessment conducted. Based on the aforementioned studies, the steps taken in developing the instrument is to theoretically review the substance to be measured, namely determining the conceptual definition and the operational definition, translating operational definition into indicators and items, assembling instruments, conducting trials, and analyzing the results of trial items.

Methodology

This instrument development model used Research and Development by adopting a model design from Borg and Gall (1983: 771-787) with ten steps of development, namely: (1) preliminary study and data collection; (2) planning; (3) initial product development; (4) initial trial; (5) revisions to make main products; (6) main field trials; (7) revisions to make main product (8) operational product trials; (9) revisions of final product, and (10) dissemination and implementation of product development results. Furthermore, the researcher only modified the appropriate steps, namely (1) preliminary study/initial investigation stage, (2) development stage, (3) validation stage, (4) trial and revision stage, and (5) finalization of product.

In the Instrument Development Stage, the researcher conducted the following activities; (1) performing lecturer task analysis and lecturer competence, (2) identifying lecturer competences, (3) making lecturer competency recapitulation, (4) making lecturer competence standard draft and construct of instrument, (5) based on components and sub-components of lecturer competence, (6) making draft dimensions and indicators of lecturer competence, (7) conducting Validation and Reliability, and (8) formulating lecturer competences. Furthermore, at the Validation stage, validity of instrument products was tested

the through expert judgment and field trials. The subjects in this research were English lecturers of IAIN Palopo. Sampling was taken using purposive sampling with a sample size of 35 lecturers divided into three categories, namely lecturers with functional ranks of instructor, assistant professor, and associate professor.

The results of the instrument trial data were analyzed in two stages, namely small-scale (limited) trials and large-scale (expanded) trials. The purpose of the instrument trial was testing the validity and reliability of instrument. The validity of the instrument trial results was analyzed using Exploratory Factor Analysis, or EFA. The analysis using EFA resulted in data in the form of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO-MSA) index, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test, and significance level. In addition, it also produced item correlation index, loading factor cumulative, number of components formed, and Alpha coefficients.

The validity of the instrument was calculated using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Hair, et al. (2006: 115) state that the criteria required in factor analysis are Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy index $\geq$ .5, and Bartlett's of Sphericity test with a significance level $\leq$ .05. Furthermore, they categorized if the KMO-MSA index is $\geq$ .8 = meritorious, .7-0.8 = middling, .6-.7 = mediocre, .5-.6 = miserable, and less than .5 = unacceptable. Furthermore, items (whether an item is acceptable or not) are selected based on the total item correlation index (which can be seen in the output table of the results of SPSS analysis in the corrected item-total correlation column). Items are said to be unacceptable if the total item correlation index value is less than .3 (r_{it}< .3). Afterwards, the product implementation was tested to the English language lecturers at IAIN Palopo.

Findings

Data Analysis of Validation and Readability Test Results

1. Data of Instrument validation results

The instrument validation was conducted in two ways, namely panel expert (expert judgment) and field trials. The expert panel was conducted through FGD. several feedbacks from experts included: (1) the evaluator's name should not be mentioned on the assessment instrument sheet in order to prevent discomfort from both evaluators and teachers, especially from students, (2) examples of how to fill the instrument should be provided to make it easier for evaluators to fill out the instrument, (3) the number of instrument items should be reduced to avoid the boredom of evaluators in filling out the instrument sheets, (4) there were some

writing errors, inappropriate words, and (5) the instrument should be supplemented by an explanation of each indicator to guide the evaluator in the assessment.

2. **Data of the clarity test results for competency assessment in lecturers of IAIN Palopo by experts**

Table 1

Clarity of Instruments for Assessing Competence of English Lecturers

No	Assessment Aspect	Assessment and Average score
1	Clarity of instrument instructions	4.2
Indicator coverage:		
2	Instrument for the ability of English lecturers to plan lectures	4.4
3	Instruments for the ability of English lecturers to conduct the lecture process	4
4	Instrument for the ability of English lecturers to assess lecture results	4
Total		16.6
Average		**4.15**

From the results of expert assessment analysis on the construct of the instrument if it is confirmed in the table of clarity assessment categories of lecturer competence assessment instruments, all belong to the very good category. This means that according to the validator's assessment, the instrument design was stated to be very good. Therefore, the lecturer evaluation instrument was feasible to use.

Furthermore, the results of the Aiken's V coefficient analysis by experts regarding the clarity of the lecturer competence assessment instruments are as follows:

Table 2

Aiken's V Coefficient for Clarity of Lecturer Competence Assessment Instrument

No	Assessment Aspect	Aiken's V Coefficient

1	Clarity of instrument instructions	.71
Clarity and completeness of indicator coverage:		
2	instrument for planning learning	.67
3	Instruments for implementing learning process	.75
4	Instrument for assessing learning outcomes	.75
Language:		
5	Formulation of instrument statement	.71
6	Use of standard language	.75

The results of the coefficient analysis of content validity using Aiken's V if consulted with the criteria for the content validity are: .8 – 1.000: very high .6 - .799: high .4 - .599: fairly high .2 - .399: low < .200: very low. Therefore, the clarity of the lecturer competence assessment instrument for the Faculty of Tarbiyah of IAIN Palopo shows high value of the Aiken's V coefficient. Accordingly, the assessment of experts and practitioners on the three aspects of the assessment above has good content validity. In other words, the item has fulfilled the contents of the concept or the suitability of the item.

A. Analysis of Trial Result Data

There were three main dimensions that were tested both on limited scale trials and on extended scale trials, namely (1) lecturer competences in lecture planning, (2) lecturer competences in the implementation of the lecture process, and (3) lecturer competences in assessing lecture results. The instrument trials involved 3 evaluators, namely evaluators from fellow lecturers, lecturers themselves, and students taught by the lecturers concerned. The aspects assessed are the preparation for the implementation of lecture of English lecturers, the implementation of lecture, and the evaluation of lecture.

1. Results of Instrument Trial on a limited scale

The results of the trial using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) analysis showed that the number of items experienced a reduction while the number of dimensions did not change. The changes in the number of items can be seen in the following table:

Table 3

Changes in the Number of Items on Each Indicator on

Dimensions of Preparation for Lectures

Indicator	Change		Number of Unacceptable Items
	Before the trial	After the trial	
1. Preparation of course syllabus	5	2	3
2. Selection of course material	4	2	2
3. Selection of lecture strategies/ methods			
4. Selection and design of lecture media			
5. Plan for assessment of course material	5	4	1
Total	14	8	6

The data above show that the number of valid items on the lecture preparation dimension is 6. Reduction occurs in all indicators of that dimension. Furthermore, the test results data on the dimensions of lecture implementation can be seen in the following table.

Table 4

Changes in the Number of Items on Each Indicator on

Dimensions of Lecture Implementation

Indicator	Change		
	Before the trial	After the trial	Number of Unacceptable Items
1. Ability of lecturer to deliver course material	17	15	2

2. Ability of lecturer to use lecture methods/ strategies	4	4	0
3. Ability of lecturer to use lecture media	3	3	0
4. The discipline of lecturer in teaching and filling in the minutes of lectures	14	9	5
Total	38	31	7

Table 4 shows that there are 2 indicators, namely ability of lecturer to use lecture methods/strategies and ability of lecturer to use lecture media, that do not change. Meanwhile, the most changes in the number of instrument items are the discipline of lecturer in teaching and filling in the minutes, namely 5 items, then the ability of the lecturer to deliver course material by 2 items. Therefore, the dimensions of lecture implementation consist of 41 valid items. Furthermore, the data of the limited trial results to the dimensions of the lecturer' ability to evaluate the results of lectures are as follows.

Table 5

Changes in the Number of Items on Each Indicator on

Dimension of evaluation of lecture results

Indicator	Change		
	Before the trial	After the trial	Number of Unacceptable Items
The ability of lecturer to assess the results of evaluation of course material	12	10	2
Total	12	10	2

Table 5 shows that the dimension of the ability of the lecturer to evaluate the lecture results consisted of 10 items and only 2 items are unacceptable.

The analysis results of the limited trial using EFA indicate that the three dimensions consists of preparation of lecture containing 8 items, implementation or lecture process containing 31 items, and evaluation of the lecture results containing 10 items. Thus, the total number of the three dimensions is 49 items. Furthermore, the results of KMO-MSA (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) index, the *Bartlett's Test of Sphericity*, and the significance level for each dimension and indicator are as follows.

1. Dimension of Lecture Preparation

    The results of the trial using EFA analysis indicate the KMO index value of .60 (mediocre) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significance level of ≤ .05, i.e. .030. In addition, all items have a loading factor above .5, where the lowest factor is .720 and the highest is .830. The total item correlation index on this indicator shows that all items have a total item correlation index of above 0.3. Furthermore, the results of the reliability analysis show an Alpha coefficient of .74 with a loading factor cumulative of 76.5%. This means that the five indicators can be used to measure the dimension of lecture preparation.

2. Dimension of lecture implementation

    The Table of Component Matrix[a] in the results of EFA analysis shows the KMO index of .82 (middling). The results of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test with a significance level of ≤ .05 is, 000. All items have a factor loading above .5, where the lowest factor is .400 and the highest is .70. All indicators have a total item correlation index of above .3. The results of the reliability analysis also show the Alpha coefficient value of .802 with a factor cumulative loading of 46.30%. Based on the results of the EFA analysis, it can be stated that all items are considered valid to measure the dimension of lecture implementation.

3. Dimensions of evaluation of lecture results

    The results of the EFA analysis indicate that the factor formed in this indicator is one component, with the KMO index value of .82 (meritorious). The results of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with a significance level of ≤ .05 is ,000. All items have a factor loading above .5, with the lowest factor of .663 and the highest of .806. Similarly, the total item correlation index is above .3 and the Alpha coefficient value is .702, and the load factor cumulative is 61.50%. Thus, all items

can be used to measure the ability of lecturers in the dimension of lecture evaluation and considered acceptable.

The following are the results of the recapitulation of the three components of the instrument to evaluate the competence of English lecturers.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.793
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	102.963
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
2.508	84.524	84.524	2.508	84.524	84.524
.362	12.065	95.670			
.130	4.330	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component
	1
A1	.918
A2	.949
A3	.863

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.881	3

Extraction Method:
Principal Component
Analysis.
 a. 1 components
extracted.

The results of the recapitulation of the three components of the lecturer assessment are the KMO index value of .893 (good) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity test with a significance level of ≤ .05, namely .000. In addition, all items have a loading factor above .5, where the lowest factor is .863 and the highest is .949. The total item correlation index on this indicator also shows that all items have a total item correlation index above .3. Furthermore, the results of the reliability analysis showed an Alpha coefficient of .881 with a *cumulative loading factor* of 84.524%. Thus, all components can be used to measure the ability of English lecturers.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Based on the development and study of the final product, this research concludes that the lecturer competence assessment instrument consists of three components, namely ability of lecturer to plan lectures, ability of lecturer to implement the lecture process, and ability of lecturer to evaluate the lecture results. The dimension of lecture preparation consists of 4 indicators with 10 questionnaire items, the dimension of lecture implementation consist of 5 indicators with 27 questionnaire items, and the dimension of evaluation of the lecture results consists of 1 indicator with 10 questionnaire items. The instrument developed has met the requirements, that all indicators grouped on one factor (unidimensional) and the total item correlation index is below 0.3. Therefore, the instrument produced in this research have been deemed valid and reliable, so that they can be used by evaluators to measure the ability of English lecturers.

The findings contribute to encourage lecturers competence, because the impact of lecturer competence assessment instrument can have a positive influence on improving the quality of lecturers in teaching and learning. Moreover, it can identify the weaknesses and strengths to plan, to conduct, to assess lecture result.

Thus, it is suggested that instruments can be used as a reflection of lecturers to improve the quality of education for students. In addition, it can be used as material for consideration for higher education leaders to be used as lecturer competence assessment standards in Islamic

higher education institutions and in other higher education because this instrument has been scientifically examined and declared valid and reliable

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APPENDIX 1

Instrument for evaluating lecturer from Fellow Lecturer and lecturer concerned

1. Identity of the Lecturer assessed
    a. Name:
    b. Course:
    c. Semester:
2. Assessment instruction
    a. You are asked to assess the performance of the lecturer in implementing learning process in accordance with the course taught.
    b. Please put a checklist (√) based your assessment using the following rating scale

    1= Poor, 2= Fair, 3=Good, 4=Very Good

No	Aspect Assessed	Rating Scale			
A	**Preparation of Lecture**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	a. Preparation of Course Syllabus				
1	Preparing Lesson Plan, Syllabus, course material				
2	The syllabus made by the lecturer contains the objectives achieved in the course, the media used, the strategies or methods used, and the criteria assessed during the lecture				
3	The lecturer gives a syllabus and explains to students as a form of contract for one semester				
	b. Selection of Course Materials				
1	Materials /references prepared by the lecturers are up-to-date				
2	The Lecturer give lectures according to the lecture schedule				
	c. Selection and Design of Lecture Media				
1	Selection of media according to the objectives of the course taught				
2	The selected media is easy to use / helps students understand the course material				
	d. Plan for Learning Outcomes Assessment				
1	Instrument for assessing learning process and outcomes is clear				
2	Assessment criteria for learning outcomes are clearly written				

No	Description				
3	Instructions and timing of assignments are clear				
4	The number of meetings each semester is in accordance with the provisions of at least 12-16 times				
B	**Implementation of Lecture**				
	a. The Ability of the Lecturer to deliver course material				
1	At the first meeting of the lecture, the lecturer informs the lecture contract to students				
2	Delivering material in accordance with the course syllabus				
3	Mastering the material / subject matter of the lecture				
4	Completing all materials according to the contents of the course syllabus				
5	Not talking much outside the course material				
6	Using language that is easily understood by students				
7	Creating a communicative and harmonious classroom atmosphere				
8	The explanation of the lecturer is easily understood by students				
9	Delivering material according to the time allocation provided				
10	Giving concrete examples when explaining course material				
11	Giving assignments in a structured manner and in accordance with the syllabus to students				
12	Mastering current issues related to the courses taught				
13	Students feel satisfied after attending the lecture				
14	Lecturer's appearance in dress: neat, clean and harmonious				
	b. The ability of the lecturer to use learning methods/strategies				
1	Use teaching methods / strategies that are interesting to students				
2	The methods/ strategies used vary				
3	The methods / strategies used are relevant to the course material				
4	The methods/ strategies used encourages students to understand the course material				
	c. The ability of the lecturer to use learning media				
1	Skilled in using modern media / technology facilities in giving lectures				

2	Learning media used are interesting and help students to understand the course material				
3	The media used are relevant to the course material				
	d. The ability of the lecturer to ask questions and answer student questions				
1	Opening the question and answer session after delivering the course material				
2	Adjusting questions with the course material				
3	Accepting suggestions and criticism from students				
4	Questions given to students are not focused on certain students				
	e. Discipline in Teaching and filling in the Minutes of lecture				
	Always present to deliver lectures at each meeting				
	Not canceling the lecture schedule without reason				
	Starting and ending the lecture on time				
	Giving lectures according to the academic schedule				
	The number of meetings each semester is at least 14 times				
	Filling out student attendance at each meeting				
	Filling out and signing the minutes of the lecture at each meeting				
	Serving students if they need help outside of the course schedule				
C	**The Ability of the Lecturer to Evaluate Learning Outcomes**				
1	The Lecturer gives Midterm Examination and Final Semester Examination according to the academic schedule				
2	Assessing based on the assessment criteria that have been set in the lecture planning				
3	Assignments, midterm exam, final exam are according to the course syllabus				
4	Returning the evaluation results with notes or comments to students				
5	Conformity between the material tested and the course material given				
6	Objectivity in giving grades to students				
7	The examination is supervised directly by the lecturer				

8	The forms of exam questions given by the lecturer are not needlessly long				
9	If there are objections to the grades of the exam, students can express the objection to the lecturer				
10	The punctuality of the lecturer in submitting grades to study programs so that grades can be accessed by students				
11	Giving the opportunity / grace period to students to object if there are students who object to the evaluation results from the lecturer				

APPENDIX 2

Instrument for Assessing lecturer from students

1. **Identity of the Lecturer assessed**
   a. **Name:**
   b. **Course:**
   c. **Semester:**
2. **Assessment instruction**
   a. **You are asked to assess the performance of your lecturer in implementing learning process in accordance with the course taught**
   b. **Please put a checklist (√) based your assessment using the following rating scale**

1= Poor, 2= Fair, 3=Good, 4=Very Good

No	Aspect Assessed	Rating Scale			
		1	2	3	4
A	**Preparation of English Learning**	1	2	3	4
1	Preparing Lesson Plan, Syllabus, course material				
2	The syllabus made by the lecturer contains the objectives achieved in the course, the media used, the strategies or methods used, and the criteria assessed during the lecture				
3	The lecturer gives a syllabus and explains to students as a form of contract for one semester				
4	Materials /references prepared by the lecturers are up-to-date				
5	Lecturer give lectures according to the lecture schedule				
6	Filling out the minutes of the lecture at each meeting				
7	Filling out student attendance lists at each meeting				
8	The number of meetings every semester is in accordance with the provisions				
9	The lecturer sets or informs the academic rules and regulations that students must follow				
B	**Implementation of Lecture Process**				
1	The punctuality of the lecturer in starting and ending lectures				

2	The discipline of the lecturer in filling out the minutes of the lecture and all lecturers in charge of the course sign it				
3	In the first lecture, the lecturer informs the management of the lecture agenda, attendance, course objectives, assignment material, assessment, assignments				
4	The use of learning media/ tools at each meeting				
5	the use of course material by the lecturer when teaching				
6	The use of lecture methods that are in accordance with the course material and learning objectives				
7	The lecturer carries out student-centered learning				
8	The ability of lecturer to enforce regulations in lectures				
9	The lecturer provides structured assignments and independent assignments to students according to their credits and lecture objectives				
10	The lecturer gives structured assignments and independent assignments to students according to their credits and lecture objectives				
11	The lecturer gives additional meetings if the number of meetings has not reached 14 meetings				
12	The ability of the lecturer to create a conducive classroom atmosphere				
13	The ability of the lecturer to create conducive learning				
14	The ability to motivate students to be active in the learning process				
15	The ability of the lecturer, such as neatness, cleanliness, and harmony in dress				
16	The use of language in the lecture (clarity, politeness, and courtesy in language)				
17	The lecturer accepts suggestions and criticisms from students related to course material				
18	The ability of the lecturer to avoid using language that is insulting, harassing, mocking and offending others				
C	**Student Learning Outcomes Assessment**				
1	The Lecturer gives Midterm Examination and Final Semester Examination according to the academic schedule				

2	The lecturer allows students whose number of attendance in lectures is at least 80% of the meetings to take the final semester examination				
3	Conformity between the material tested and the course material given				
4	Objectivity in giving grades to students				
5	The examination is supervised directly by the lecturer				
6	The forms of exam questions given by the lecturer can be understood				
7	If there are objections to the grades of the exam, students can express the objection to the lecturer				
8	Transparency in determining the final grades of students and the announcement of final grades to students				
9	The punctuality of the lecturer in submitting grades to study programs so that grades can be accessed by students no later than 1 week after the exam				

Research Students' Anxiety

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Abstract

It is a common thing that students feel anxious or nervous in their language learning journey. There are so many factors which can trigger anxiousness or nervousness: class atmosphere, peer pressure, teachers' demanding characters, personal problems, and many others. Anxiety experienced by these students can further give negative impact on students' performance. The nervousness that students experience may affect their psychology and their academic performance may be greatly affected. This study presents anxiety experienced by research proposal students of English Language Education Program (ELEP), Faculty of Language and Arts (FLA), UKSW, Indonesia. The participants were ten students taking *Research Design* class in Semester I, 2018-2019 Academic Year, ranging from 2013 to 2015 class years. There were six female and four male students, aged between 21 and 23 years old. In this class, they were supposed to write a thesis proposal, and the final product was a proposal consisting of Chapter I up to III. Data for this study were mainly derived from direct observation in the classroom, four pieces of journals written throughout the semester, and a Focus Group Discussion (FGD) conducted at the end of the semester, in December 2018. Findings revealed that each student as language learner got different things as the trigger of their anxiety, and they all had various ways to overcome their anxiety and nervousness.

Key words: *research students, nervousness, teachers, anxiety*

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Introduction

Approaching the end of the college study, a student has to do research and write the report as his/her thesis. For some students who are really ready with their plans and have known what to do, this is not a big deal. However, for many others, this is really a big burden that they have to cope up with. Many problems may emerge, including psychological ones. Anxiety is one big problem that many students face during their research implementation. In some cases, these psychological problems are overlooked, and if teachers are not aware of this, mental breakdown may happen. Not only fear, but frustration might also happen make their study a failure.

This paper is thus aimed at presenting facts about anxiety problems encountered by research students in conducting their research projects, starting from the preparation, implementation, and finishing it. There are two questions to be answered in this study:

1. What factors triggered anxiety to research students?
2. What can teachers do to help?

This study hopefully can be useful for students facing anxiety and nervousness problems, and for giving new insights for lecturers so that they can help their students deal with their psychological problems. The findings of this research will hopefully also be useful for students doing or going to do their research, also for lecturers who are guiding their nervous students. Students' nervousness and anxiety can hereby be minimized, and much better results be attained.

Review of Literature

Affective Filter Hypothesis

In the journey of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), there are many things or events that a language learner faces, including successes and failures. About these two contradictory ends, there are also many factors which affect the SLA journey. One of the factors is affective factors. Affective factors involve emotions and feelings of language learners which may affect learning. Some of these affective variables are motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, attitude, and self-esteem. They are responsible in language acquisition in both children and adults. Talking about motivation will of course remind us of Krashen's theory of Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982), or AFH.

Affective Filter Hypothesis was first proposed by Stephen Krashen. In that theory, Krashen claims that one obstacle that manifests itself during language acquisition is the affective filter. It is a 'screen' which is influenced by emotional variables that can prevent learning. This hypothetical filter does not impact acquisition directly. However, this prevents

input from reaching the language acquisition part of the brain. According to Krashen, the affective filter can be prompted by many different variables including anxiety, self-confidence, motivation and stress (Bilash, 2009).

According to Shuck et al., 2007, as cited in Tsai et al. (2017), "affective filters" are the subjective negative affective factors. They may have a different impact on adult learning. Tsai et al. further explains that in science communication, for example, negative affective responses may cause adults to exhibit anxiety, mistrust of science, or beliefs that governmental or scientific organizations are inclined toward economic gain. Once adults are aware of the uncertain risk of science products, their interest in such products may increase and makes them obtain more information about the products and social movements may happen.

> Hui Ni (2012) adds that affective factors include certain emotions, such as motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, and so on in the process of acquiring a second language. These negative emotions can prevent the efficient processing of the language input. On the other hand, the positive emotions promote the efficiency of the process. When language learners have high motivation, good self-confidence and a low level of anxiety, it means that they have low filters and therefore can receive and take in plenty of input. Learners with low motivation, little self-confidence and a high level of anxiety have high filters. As a result, they obtain little input.

What is anxiety in foreign language learning?

Motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety are three interrelated things which seem to be the foundation of language learning success. Just like the name, affective filter hypothesis, these things become the filter whether a language learner will be successful or not entering the next phases of learning. Ellis (2012, p. 978) defines self-confidence as *a motivational factor consisting of one's belief in one's ability to learn an L2 successfully*. Ellis classifies self-confidence as a kind of motivational factors which determine the success of L2 learning.

There are several definitions of anxiety proposed by experts in psychology. Tasnimi (2009) defines anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system". Some symptoms of anxiety include self-belittling, feeling of apprehension, and even bodily responses such as a faster heartbeat (Tasnimi, 2009, citing from Mitchell and Myles, 2004).

According to Huberty (2012), as cited in Dobson (2012), anxiety is actually a normal reaction to certain situations. A small level of anxiety is normal, but severe anxiety can cause serious problems. Academic anxiety can even become more devastating as time goes by. As a

student's academic performance gets worse, his/her anxiety level dealing with academic tasks increases. In line with Huberty (2012), Ader & Erktin (as cited in Dobson, 2012) state that most teachers have students with both social and/ or academic anxiety. Social anxiety can also affect a student's academic performance. If a student has social anxiety, he/she may not be able to complete group tasks or do not feel comfortable asking for others' help in class. Social anxiety can go along with or lead to academic anxiety. Teaching students about self-regulation can reduce anxiety and increase academic performance.

Anxiety happening in learning a new language can be called *foreign language anxiety*, which can be defined as "*a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language-learning process*" (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, as cited in Anderson, 2018, p.1). Research has shown that debilitating foreign language anxiety can hinder learning, mainly because of feelings of fear, insecurity, and doubt. This will eventually cause students to perform poorly in the language classroom and gradually withdraw from the learning process (Guy & Radnovsky, 2001; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Saito & Samimy, 1996, in Anderson, 2018). Huang (as cited in Aderson, 2018) states that foreign language anxiety can be caused by several factors such as fear of making mistakes, having insufficient language skills, a lack of confidence, and a fear of receiving negative feedback.

Closely related to affective factors are feelings or emotions. Diaz-Ducca (2013) mention that in classroom setting, the emotions that students feel towards their teacher, program content, and evaluation are also relevant in SLA. If all these are positive, they enhance learning. Munsell, Rauen and Kinjo (as cited in Diaz-Ducca, 2013) further state that "*Language learning should be rich in a variety of stimuli, including but not limited to information, vision, sound, imagination and intuition, social interaction, movement and reasoning. These positive emotions are aroused by a comfortable classroom environment.*"

Related to classroom setting, Dornyei (as cited in Diaz-Ducca, 2013, p.70), mentions that there are three components of second language motivation. They are "appraisal of classroom environment", integrative motivation and linguistic self-confidence. Classroom environment involves the cohesion of the group, evaluation of the teacher like competence, rapport, personality, and other things related to teacher's evaluation, and the last aspect is the evaluation of the course itself like relevance, difficulty, appeal to students, and some other things. This all can be translated into "student predisposition". Dornyei, Clement and Noels' study (as cited in Diaz-Ducca, 2013) further confirm what they call as language teachers'

intuitive knowledge; what goes on in the classroom will considerably affect the learner's affective predisposition".

A form of negative emotion can be manifested as anxiety. A study by Elaine, Horwitz and Cope (as cited in Diaz-Ducca, 2013, p.71) concluded that "*teachers and students generally feel strongly that anxiety is a major obstacle to be overcome in learning to speak another language.*" Students were reported to have felt "*apprehension, worry, even dread*", and also to have "*difficulty concentrating, become forgetful, and have palpitations.*" Anxiety develops mainly in SLA performance in the classroom. Included in "performance anxieties" are communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. In other words, when anxiety happens, it means that the affective filter rises and motivation decreases which affects self-confidence. Yokochi, in Diaz-Ducca, 2013 (p. 71), points out that anxiety is not only experienced by introverted students. Personalities may change in the second language.

The causes of anxiety

Another researcher, Atma (2018), conducted a study on the aspects which triggered students' anxiety in speaking, revealed that "*speaking anxiety potentially stems from the students themselves who regard that lack of vocabulary, unfamiliar topic, others' negative judgment, and low-perceived ability are the triggers.*" The five student participants believed that teachers were in charge of reducing their speaking anxiety since they have a role as the organizer of the classroom activities. In line with Atma, Na (2007), conducted a similar study on high schoolers. In order to explore high school students' English learning anxiety in Chinese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms, this study surveyed and analyzed 115 students from a high school in Shandong Province, China. The results indicated that students indeed had comparatively high anxiety in English learning. Males have higher anxiety of English classes than females. And it was also found that high anxiety plays a somewhat debilitative role in high school students' language learning. Finally, the possible causes leading to such findings were discussed, and some suggestions for reducing students' anxiety in classrooms were proposed for teachers.

Lack of self-confidence which is caused by anxiety is also reported by Schmidt (as cited in Diaz-Ducca, 2013), in relation to adult EFL learners in Egypt. It was found that anxious students tended to avoid group activities and communication as well, they preferred teacher-centered activities that were "safe" for them, compared to student-centered learning. On the other hand, students with a low affective filter, meaning students with positive emotions, preferred communicative activities. Another important finding of the research is that anxiety is more frequently happening at basic levels. Students who were already in an advanced level

were less anxious and enjoyed classes more. Schmidt concludes that people who are engaged in activities that they enjoy do not arouse anxiety.

Du (2009) also states that there are at least three things - lack of confidence, fear of failure, and other negative thought processes - which may also contribute to anxiety. The pressure to perform well on exams can also be a great motivator, unless it is so extreme and becomes irrational. Du (2009, p.163) further states,

> *Perfectionism and feelings of unworthiness provide unreasonable goals to achieve through testing situations. When a student's self-esteem is too closely tied to the outcome of any one academic task, the results can be devastating.*

In this kind of situation, students will spend more time focusing on the negative consequences of failure, than preparing to succeed (Du, 2009, p. 163). This in turn may cause students to have low self-confidence. Du also claims that L2 acquirers' personality factors relate a lot to the learning effect. Among the personality factors, self-confidence is undeniably the most important one. Language learners who have enough self-confidence and positive personal image succeed more. Self-confident people dare to have adventures, communicating confidently in foreign language and these people can gain more. While those who lack self-confidence will lose chances to practice their target language. They are afraid of losing face and making mistakes (Du, 2009). Shyness and embarrassment seem to play a role in their language learning journey.

Self-image, self-confidence, and anxiety

The relationship between self-image, self-confidence and anxiety has been discussed by Bailey (1983), as cited by Ellis (1990, p. 102). Bailey proposes a model of how learners' self-image in comparison with other second language learners, can either impair or enhance second language acquisition. Unsuccessful self-image will impair or damage second language learning. While successful self-image will do vice versa. Language learners will be helped in their second language acquisition.

Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) also support this idea. They claim that a self-confident, secure person will be a more successful language learner. Self-confident person has the advantage of not being afraid of rejection. While people with high-anxiety level are more likely to feel rejected. They further explain that there are two measures of self-confidence: anxiety level and extroversion. They further mention that:

> *In nearly all studies conducted to determine the personality characters associated with successful L2 learning, researchers have concluded that lower anxiety level and a tendency to be outgoing were connected with the successful L1 acquisition (1982, p.75).*

The negative effects of anxiety

Bista (2008) supports this idea. Collier (1987), as cited by Bista (2008), mentions that the barrier of anxiety sometimes makes adults less successful in second language learning. Hui (2012) also states that anxiety is one the most prominent and pervasive emotions. In line with Hui is Ming (2007). He states that anxiety has a great effect on second language acquisition. Seeing how pervasive the impacts of learners' anxiety is on the journey of second language learning, I thus saw an urgent need to conduct research on this matter. Discovering students' attitudes about language will help both the teacher and students in the teaching learning process. (Tasnimi, 2009, p. 117).

From all the theories discussed, it can be concluded that among many psychological problems that a student may feel during his/her study, anxiety, if not properly handled, can lead to serious problems in second language learning. Many factors may contribute to the happening of anxiety. Conducive environment like supporting parents, teacher, as well as peer students are very much needed to help learners with anxiety in their language learning journey.

Methodology

All data for this research were derived from direct observation on Research Design class, at the English Language Education Program (ELEP), Faculty of Language and Arts (FLA), UKSW Salatiga, Indonesia. Besides observation, data also came from students' reflective journals, interview, and Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with research students. Altogether, there were 10 students who became the participants of this study. They were all selected from one Research Design class.

Approaching the end of Semester I/ 2018-2019, students were asked to write reflective journals about the psychological problems that they have faced since the beginning of their proposal writing their until this stage (Proposal writing for Research Design students, and finishing their thesis for Report Writing students). There were six journals altogether that they wrote with different guiding questions.

Besides writing reflective journals, these students were also gathered in a room for a Focus Group Discussion (FGD), which was conducted on December 3, 2018, in a classroom in Kartini campus. I have double-roles, as the researcher and facilitator of the FGD.

Besides that, some students were also interviewed. They were two students from Research Design class. These students were selected based on some criteria, that is, students with high anxiety level, as reflected in their reflective journals and seen in the direct observation. All interview data were then transcribed and themes were drawn. Finally, data were analyzed and interpreted. Underlying theories function as a parameter to compare and contrast the findings.

Locale of the Study

This study took place at the English Language Education Program (ELEP), Faculty of Language and Arts (FLA), UKSW Salatiga, Indonesia, in Semester I, 2018-2019 Academic Year.

Participants

The participants were ten 2015 class-year students from Research Design class. These students were one semester behind their other friends, who took the same class in the previous semester, that is, Semester III, 2017-2018 Academic Year. Altogether, there were 10 research students who became the participants of this study. There were six female students and four male students. One student was from batch 2013, and the other nine from batch 2015.

Data Collection Instruments and Analysis Procedures

Data were mainly taken from observation, documents, that is, students' reflective journals, interviews, and FGD. After findings were presented, data were then qualitatively interpreted. Finally, conclusions were drawn.

Findings

From the data collected throughout the semester, several things were found. Below is the findings of the research based on direct observation, students' journals, interviews, and FGD. The findings are described in form of narratives, just as what Halliday (2009) mentions, in a qualitative research, the participants are building or constructing their own world; they are sharing their stores, their opinions, as well as their perspectives with others. The researcher's

work is to reconstruct, to synthesize, and to organize all these perspectives, so that a new understanding is built. Students' journals were also written in form of narratives. Guiding questions were given before students were asked to narrate their opinions, feelings, attitudes towards something asked in the journal. Confidentiality was maintained, and the students were told to be honest, since the secrecy of their answers were guaranteed. They were free to write both in English or in Bahasa Indonesia.

From direct observation done throughout the semester, it was found out that all students had their own anxiety and the roots were different from one another. Each student was nervous with their own problems. This is elaborated further in the analysis of students' journals and FGD conducted on December 3, 2018.

Learners' Voices from journals

There were 4 guiding questions altogether which were raised to generate data from students. The journals were written on October 16, October 25, November 1, and November 13, 2018.

1. *The biggest fear in Research Design class*

Asked about the thing which caused the biggest fear in research class, Student A mentioned that it was her nervousness in finding the right topic for her research which bothered her and made her feel nervous, "*My biggest fear in research design class is about my topic, whether it is acceptable or not. Also, the way I write my research compared to other friends' makes me nervous.*" Student B also mentioned a similar thing. She was nervous because she often ran out of ideas and did not know what to write. She was too afraid if she could not develop her ideas. Student B also compared her writing with her friends' and she did not have self-confidence at all.

Different from the previous two classmates, Student C was afraid if she had not repeat Research Design class for the third time. The time she took this class, that is, in Semester I/ 2018-2019 was the second time she took the class. In other words, she was afraid of failing again in the same class. Student D had a similar problem to Student C, but he did not repeat the research class. He had previously taken *Academic Writing* course three times. *Academic Writing* course was a pre-requisite class for Research Design class. That is why, Student D was really nervous when he had to take this class.

Student E felt that his biggest fear in this Research Design class was because he was not familiar with his examiner, which had been appointed since the middle of the trimester. He felt that it was a big problem for him, since he did not now the examiner personally. This was also experienced by Student I and J. Student F had a different problem. He felt nervous mainly

because he felt he did not do all assignments given well. Student G explained that she was nervous because she did not know how to start writing the background of her study. This student faced problems which were like Student H's. She who was nervous because she was afraid if what she wrote was all wrong. Student G' and Student H shared a similar problem.

In conclusion, these students experienced different problems which became the trigger of their anxiety: lecturers, topics, trauma and difficulties in the previous classes, assignments, and fear of making mistakes in writing. There were six big causes of anxiety that students in this Research Design class faced. They are matters related to ideas generation, topics, examiners, past-time trauma, lecturers, and lack of self-confidence.

2. *Efforts to solve anxiety in research class*

Every learner has their own strategies to deal with any difficulty they face during their language learning journey, both in naturalistic and classroom setting. So did these ten students. Each of them tried to find a way out in order to cope with their own anxiety in Research Design class. Asked about the efforts she did so far, Student A mentioned that she tried to share her problems with her best friends. Secondly, she did some preparation before going to class. She downloaded and read the materials to be discussed in the class at least one day before. Another preparation is that she tried to do all assignments on time. She was also building her self-confidence and finally, she tried to keep focused on her research.

Student B also did several things to cope with her anxiety. First, she tried to stay focused on her research writing. Secondly, she had a talk with others, not to compare with work with others', but to get inspiration and ideas for her research. The next thing is that she tried to improve her own writing, and finally, just like what other students had done, she tried to increase her self-confidence.

Another student who experienced anxiety was Student C. Different from her classmates, the first thing she did was talking to her best friend or her sister. Secondly, she would play her classical guitar, "*Playing with my classical guitar can be a remedy my nervousness,*" she explained in her journal. The next student, Student D, had his own strategies to overcome his anxiety. He tried to keep himself diligent to write and do any tasks given. Similar to Student C, Student E also soothed himself by listening to the music, and had a talk with his parents. He states that in Extract 1:

Extract 1:

> *I am the person who believes in the word "the more mature, the more experiences they get, the wiser they will cover their problems." It was not easy*

for me to have a strong motivation and to wake up, but at least, I still have the

love and trust from my parents, and it is enough for me.

Student F had a similar way out like his other friends. He would consult his classmates whenever he felt anxious and did not know what to do. Student G also consulted her brother who had graduated from the same faculty as hers. Her brother always motivated her to do her best. Besides that, Student G liked to read as many articles as she could, since she thought that she could improve her writing in this way.

Getting closer to God can be another soothing remedy for students. Student H, for example, admitted that every time she felt nervous, she would pray, and pushed herself to be confident by working and studying harder. She read as many journal articles as she could, and every time she felt lazy, she would remember her parents who had worked so hard for her study. Student I would also try to calm himself down and prayed, while Student J did not say anything about how she handled her nervousness.

All in all, there were five ways that students did to overcome their anxiety. They are sharing problems with friends or family members. Next, they tried to pay or listen to the music, find spiritual comfort by getting closer to God, try to be focused, and try to increase their self-confidence.

3. *The contributing factors to anxiety*

Behind students' nervousness or anxiety, there must be one or some underlying reasons. Among other things, Student A felt that lecturers became the most prominent source of her nervousness. The second thing is materials which were very tough for her. However, having a caring lecturer could melt her nervousness. Similar to Student A, Student B also thought that lecturers who gave her difficult materials would make her nervous. The second thing came from herself. She often felt unconfident in doing her tasks. Student J's fear of lack of good ideas also made her nervous.

For Student C, the class situation often made her nervous. Looking at all friends doing their tasks seriously made her down and nervous. However, she felt that the lecturer's ways of melting the tense situation by giving some candies or treating some tea was a good ice breaker. She felt better when the teacher gave special attention to the students. Especially when some friends made jokes to make the situation better. She stated that in Extract 2.

Extract 2:

"All friends in my class look so busy and serious. This caused us to be sensitive

towards one another. However, our nervousness disappeared at once when our

lecturer gave us special attention, like giving us some candies, or treating us some iced tea. This could break down our nervousness, especially when one or two of my friends made jokes.”

Student D did not mention specifically about the factors which contributed to his anxiety; he just mentioned that he would not have been able to concentrate well if he had been in the same class as his former girlfriend. Different from Student D, Student E admitted that the only factor which contributed to his nervousness was himself. He claimed that if he could manage his own fear and nervousness, he would not feel anxiety anymore. For Student F, there were factors which contributed to his anxiety. Those factors are sitting at the front row, fear of getting a bad grade, and lack of self-confidence. For him, low self-confidence caused him to have miscommunication with his lecturer, and at the end, this caused him to get a low or bad grade, and finally he failed. Student F stated, “*I don’t feel comfortable in the front row. Besides self-confidence, I am afraid if my final grade is not like what I expected. Lack of self-confidence causes less communication, and less communication causes miscommunication, and finally, my grade is not good.*” Student I’s nervousness was also mainly due to his low self-confidence, especially in dealing with his perfectionistic examiner.

Different from the previous classmates, Student G had anxiety which was contributed by her difficulties in developing ideas. Student H also mentioned that the class situation was the thing which contributed most to her anxiety. Class situation that she meant was her classmates as well as lecturer. Asking the lecturer in front of the class made her nervous, and classmates which were very serious-looking and busy, added her nervousness. This is somewhat to Student C.

It can be concluded that there are at least five things that contributed to students’ anxiety: lecturers, students themselves, class atmosphere, low self-confidence, and fear of inability to develop ideas.

4. *The symptoms of anxiety*

Different students may experience different symptoms of anxiety. Student A for example, mentioned that she often stayed awake overnight before she had to submit her assignment the next day. She had a sleep disorder which showed that she was experiencing nervousness.

Another story came from Student B. (angel). She felt that she could not concentrate well, and often felt like her mind was torn apart. Similar symptoms were experienced by Student C. She often felt nervous, afraid, and migraine every time she had anxiety. Student D had different symptoms. He felt cold sweat, faster heartbeats, even withdrawal from society, that is, he

withdrew himself from his college friends. Student E, H and I also experienced faster heartbeats and forgot to eat regularly, when he was nervous. Student F stated that he felt confused and disoriented every time he felt nervous. Student G mentioned that every time she experienced anxiety, she would feel afraid, nervous, easily get afraid, and could not have a good sleep. Student H also mentioned that her heart would beat faster whenever she felt nervous, and she would go to the toilet more often.

In summary, student participants in this study experienced insomnia or difficulty to sleep, loss of concentration, feeling of fear, migraine, cold sweat, fast heartbeats, withdrawal from society and friends, forgetfulness, disorientation, and wanting to go to the toilet often.

Learners' Voices from focus group discussion (FGD)

On December 3, 2019, a focus group discussion (FGD) was conducted with one clear purpose, that is, to find support for students' perceptions about their anxiety. Data were derived from direct observation and journals that students wrote in their diary. Data derived from this FGD would enrich the data existing data. There was only one issue discussed in this FGD, students were asked to talk about their anxiety in Research Design class.

This FGD was to validate or triangulate data which had been derived from direct observation and journals. Student A mentioned in that particular event, that she was worried about three things. First, she was worried about her topic. Secondly, it was about the review of literature in which she had to read and write a lot. The last thing that made her worried was the examiner of her thesis. She was afraid if her topic was not approved. Different from Student A, Student B experienced more internal problems than the external ones. She admitted that she could not control her own inferiority. She felt that her friends could do better than she did, and she was really afraid and panic that she would be left behind her friends.

Student C had problems which were similar to Student B's. All problems centered to herself. She was unconfident and felt that her friends were better than she was. Student D had a somewhat similar problem as Student A's. He was particularly worried about his topic, review of literature, and his examiner. He was afraid if his examiner turned his topic down. Student E also felt that his examiner made him nervous, mainly because he was not familiar yet with his examiner. He did not know his examiner in person.

Student F also experienced anxiety due to his review of literature. Similar to her other classmates, Student G also felt that she was worried about her topic. It was actually not her passion, but she chose it anyway. Finally, she liked her topic. She was however worried about

her review of literature; she did not know how to develop her ideas about what to write in her review of literature.

Student H mentioned that the content of her study made her anxious. She was a type of a last-minute person, and she worried a lot about her review of literature as well. Student I, as highlighted above, was really afraid to face his idealistic and perfectionistic examiner. For Student J, nervousness centered around her feeling unready and unconfident to write good review of literature, despite the fact that actually she was a good student.

Seen from all problems that the research students mentioned in the Forum Group Discussion (FGD), there was one common problem that the students experienced: review of literature. They were worried about their review of literature; how they could get relevant theories, how they could synthesize all the theories that they had got. The second common thing was about their topics. They were worried if their topics were not liked by their examiners. And the last common fear was their examiner. They were afraid if their examiners did not approve or like their topics.

Discussion

People commonly associate different personalities with different tendencies to deal with problems. An extrovert who is endowed with an outgoing personality and more tolerance for risks would be a better language learner than their introverted peers who are more conservative and more self-conscious. According to Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), "*… in nearly all the studies conducted to determine the personality characteristics associated with successful L2 learning, researchers have concluded that lower anxiety levels and a tendency to be outgoing were connected with successful L2 acquisition*" (in Zafar, 2012).

In this present study, all students, though not all were introverted, experienced anxiety throughout their study. From direct observations done in the class, four seemed to be extroverted. Yet, all students underwent anxiety, and most of them experienced lack of self-confidence. As stated by Hui Ni (2012), self-confidence is considered to be a significant factor, which profoundly influences the learners" language performance. Students who lack confidence are usually found to be extremely fearful and timid, reluctant to express their opinions and even unable to utter a complete meaningful sentence in class. What is stated by Hui Ni was what exactly happened to the student participants of this study. They did not have self-confidence, felt fearful, and unable to write well.

Brown (2001, p. 23), as cited in Hui Ni (2012) further explains that this is often phrased as "I can do it" or self-esteem principle. It means that learners believe in their own ability(ies)

to accomplish the task. "*The eventual success that learners attain in a task is at least partially a factor of their belief that they indeed are fully capable of accomplishing the task.*" Self-confidence, in summary, determines the success of a language learner. Among the characteristics which may affect language learning process, self-confidence is significant due to some reasons. First, because self-confidence will encourage learning. The second reason is confident students will be successful in their language learning. Lastly, studies on self-confidence has significant implications on language teachers. Students should be helped to establish their self-confidence when learning a second language. This is what a lecturer should persistently do to their students, let alone in a research class which has very high level of tension and anxiety. In this research class, as the researcher and lecturer, I tried my best to create this kind of atmosphere, because successful language learning only takes place in an environment where learners' values and positive attitudes are promoted, where learners approach learning with confidence and joy, where learners can use the target language at ease. Therefore, teachers should make efforts to create conditions that can be conducive to students' self-confidence. Another task for lecturers is creating a conducive atmosphere for their students. In this way, language learners can feel comfortable and motivated.

Anxiety is another particular affective factor besides class atmosphere. It is one of the most prominent and pervasive emotions. Citing from Arnold (2000, P. 59), Hui Ni (2012) claims that language anxiety "ranks high among factors influencing language learning, regardless of whether the setting is informal (learning language „on the streets") or formal (in the classroom)". Students with anxiety attending the class will feel nervous and afraid to cooperate with teachers and then they cannot concentrate on the learning points and waste their energy or they just want to flee the learning task. According to Krashen (1981, P. 23), as cited by Hui Ni (2012), "*The student who feels at ease in the classroom and likes the teacher may seek out more intake by volunteering ... and may not be more accepting of the teacher as a source of input.*" This is what happened to the student participants in this study. From the direct observation done throughout the semester, it was clear that students who had good self-confidence tended to be volunteering in many aspects like answering the lecturer's questions, submitting assignments faster than their friends did, sitting at the front row to get closer to the lecturer's explanations, and some other responses.

Ellis (1994) divided anxiety into three kinds, i.e., trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Situation-specific anxiety has got a great attention in the study of SLA. This kind of anxiety is a kind of anxiety generated by a special type of situation or event like public speaking, class participation, or examination. Studies indicate that second language

learners undergo language anxiety. It is a situation-specific anxiety which is associated with their efforts to learn a second language and communicate in that language. This anxiety emerges due to the competitive natures in learning the second language. These learners will become anxious when they are comparing themselves with other learners and they find themselves less competent than others. This is what happened to some of the student participants in this study. They always compared themselves to others, and finally ended up feeling inferior to others. Student C and Student H experienced this, as they wrote in their journals. The anxiety will gradually decrease when they perceive themselves becoming more proficient, and therefore were better able to compete. This has been highlighted by some researchers who found that teachers' questions and feedbacks to students' answers could also be threatening (in Hui Ni, 2012).

In addition, if a student chooses to avoid the situation by acting out or refusing to participate, the anxious student can be perceived as being disruptive, uncooperative, or incapable of performing the task. Such situations can definitely impede the student's confidence level, self-esteem, and self-concept (Figueora, 2013). Some student participants in this study experienced this. They were often absent from class meetings and seemed so reluctant to go on. The contrary happened to students with good confidence level, who was always active, diligent to come to class, and diligent in consultation.

Related to the symptoms of anxiety, learners may experience self-belittling, feeling of apprehension, and even bodily responses such as a faster heartbeat (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, as cited in Tasmini, 2009). To many scholars and researchers, anxiety is one of the affective factors which plays an important role in second language acquisition and L2 performance (Brown, 2000; Dornyei, 2005; Ellis, 1994; Horwitz, 2001, in Tasnimi, 2009).

Symptoms mentioned above like fast heartbeats, anxiety, withdrawal from regular classes, laziness, and hyperactivity were experienced by the student participants in this study and could be seen in this researched class. Based on direct observation during the teaching/learning process, Student D, for example, liked to seek for others' attention by making jokes and being mischievous to his friends like changing their names with different names. Another student, Student F and Student C seemed reluctant and had not spirit to go on in this research class. Student H, having a different case from her friends, admitted that she could not concentrate well on her research, while Student A often cried when she had to face difficult problems in her research. In conclusion, all student participants in this study experienced anxiety in different degrees with different symptoms. This is also highlighted by Ogundele (2018, p.12):

Common manifestations of Anxiety disorders include physical symptoms such as increased heart rate, shortness of breath, sweating, trembling, shaking, chest pain, abdominal discomfort and nausea. Other symptoms include worries about things before they happen, constant concerns about family, school, friends, or activities, repetitive, unwanted thoughts (obsessions) or actions (compulsions), fears of embarrassment or making mistakes, low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence.

Conclusions and Recommendations

From the discussion above, it can be concluded that all students, in various degrees, experience anxiety. Peer students and teachers can take roles to help students minimize their anxiety. However, this may not be easy to realize. Layne, et al (2006) reported that while teachers are aware of anxiety symptoms in students who are experiencing symptoms of physiological anxiety, social anxiety, and high overall anxiety, teachers are less likely to identify students with generalized anxiety disorder, such as perfectionism and striving to please others.

In addition, teachers and others may misread students' anxious behaviors, such as refusal to complete challenging tasks, students' being deliberately annoying, lazy, attention seeking, defiant, or manipulative (Hanie & Stanard, 2009). While some teachers may have some knowledge of the symptoms of anxiety, they may continue to depend on mental-health workers, like school psychologists or guidance counselors, to provide additional professional support in form of conducting developmental workshops and literature (Fugieroa, 2013, p.2).

Pedagogical Implications

In regard to this, there are some pedagogical implications that come along with this research. First, teachers of second language learners should try their best to provide a nesting pattern (Ellis, 1990). This is related to providing a comfortable atmosphere where learning happens, so that learners feel safe and comfortable in that zone of learning. Secondly, having the roles as a facilitator, teacher, educator, as well as motivator, lecturers should always motivate their students to feel comfortable and motivated all the time.

As research indicates, self-confidence plays an important role in the success of second language learning. Motivating and encouraging their students to learn with their utmost efforts are two things that teachers should do in second language classrooms. The last pedagogical

implication is that teachers dealing with research students should encourage learners to be cooperative with one another and make them less competitive. Wherever possible, group work among research students should be initiated and maximized. Students should be advised to find partners who are compatible to them. This will result in creating a secure atmosphere among the students. They will feel less competitive and think that they can help one another, find solutions to their problems, and finally, build better self-confidence.

Acknowledgements

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Appendices:

A. Guiding questions for students' journals

1. What is your biggest fear in Research Design class?
2. What were/ are your efforts you have done so far to solve your fear?
3. Have you ever shared your anxiety/ fear to your parents? Advisor? Classmates? Psychologists?
4. Does the learning environment (your class situation, your lecturer, your classmates) contribute to your anxiety? Please explain.
5. What kinds of symptoms do you think you experience that show you are anxious/ nervous?
6. What things/ thoughts help you decrease or eliminate your anxiety/ fear in this research class?

B. Interview questions

What is your biggest fear in this research class?

Why did you feel that way?

What was/were your solution(s) to that problem?

The Influence of CTL in Teaching English Speaking Skill for Adult Learners: A Case in Islamic Mataram State University- Indonesia

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Abstract

The current research was a descriptive quantitative study that aimed at analyzing how *Contextual Teaching and Learning* (CTL) impact English speaking learning, especially for adult learners. It was a kind of case study that categorized as classroom action research which was conducted in University of Islamic State Mataram, Indonesia. The current research is believed to have a contribution in filling a gap of teaching-learning English in Indonesia. Indonesia itself is a country with a big challenge of teaching-learning English activity (Marcellino, 2015). It is hoped that the findings can be proposed for answering the challenge. Next, this study applied a quasi-experiment post-test experimental design. The sample was selected randomly, and placed in the experimental group (n=37) as well as a control group (n= 36). In the process of teaching-learning, the experimental group was taught using CTL approach, while the control group was taught using the conventional approach. Next, the current study used learning achievement post-test for knowing the effectiveness of teaching English speaking. It was the instruments for collecting the data. The results have shown that CTL has got a significant impact on improving learners' speaking ability. Therefore, it is concluded that the model of English learning with the CTL approach, in Indonesia context, is more effective than the model of the conventional model.

Keywords: *Influence of CTL, TEFL, Speaking, Adult Learners*

Introduction

English, nowadays, is acknowledged as an international language. English, as an International language, has become an important language. It is used not only as communication tools but also as a transfer-knowledge tool. It is also used to understand technology and cross-culture. That is why, in Indonesia, as an Asian country, English is learnt from kindergarten level to university level (SiRicord & Yunus, 2016).

English is considered as a dominant and acceptable tool for global communication. The use of English has played a significant role in the globalization era (Nazri et al., 2017). Speaking skill itself is placed in the first rank of education field (Thornbury, 2005; Batu et al., 2018). Furthermore, it is undeniable that the speaking activity is very essential. Therefore, learners try their best to know better methods, and of course, some theories, that applicable for studying speaking skills (Bahrani & Rahmatullah, 2008: Pan, 2010). It is needed in order to have successful and influential speaking to the audience

English, as has been known, basically, has two majors. They are (1) skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and (2) components. Skill is important since students do not need to know about the foreign language, but they need to develop their ability to use language (Byrne, 1984). In other words, it can be pointed out that the importance of language is how to use it, not how to know about it. The *howness* to use English is related to the four basic skills as mentioned above.

Richards (1990) states that the most used skill is speaking. According to Richards (1990), learners evaluate their success in language learning consequently. Furthermore, they evaluate how effective their learning. It is important to improve their English speaking proficiency. Based on the idea, it is stated that language learners, mostly, learn English to develop the skill of speaking.

In Indonesia, which English is not the first language, it is difficult to encourage EFL students to speak English (Latupeirissa & Sayd, 2019). This can be caused by many backgrounds. Related to the problem, teachers are supposed to motivate as well as to try their best in constructing the teaching-learning process (Bin Tahir, 2017). Moreover, teachers have to apply an appropriate method. This will raise a good class and, of course, developing skills of the students, including speaking. The current research is believed to have a contribution in filling a gap of teaching-learning English method in Indonesia since Indonesia itself is a country with a big challenge of teaching-learning English activity (Marcellino, 2015). It is hoped that the findings can be proposed for answering the challenge.

Related to the method of teaching, in this case, teaching speaking, CLT has been a suitable approach since the real-world situation content is very related to the approach (Flora, 2003). Teaching speaking in English using CTL is proposed in order to make learners be more active. According to CTL theory, when students gain new information that makes sense to their own situation, the students will be more motivated to study. It assumes that the cognitive system of learners will seek meaning when there is context connectivity. Related to the content discussed in this paper, in Indonesia, CTL is proposed as an alternative in English teaching approach (Depdiknas, 2002).

Murni Wahyanti (2003) states that the approach of CTL considers learning as a complex process. It has been found that the interest of learners, as well as their language ability improvement, will be achieved when learners are connected between new knowledge and experiences they have. In other words, CTL helps learners to gain foreign language meaning by relating the subject with the real social world and cultural circumstance of learners (US. Department of Educational, 2001).

CTL itself proposes learners to build knowledge based on their own experience. Furthermore, it can be used to apply ideas to a new situation, as well as to stimulate the new understanding (Imel, 2000; Berns & Erickson, 2001). Counting such concepts above, and realizing that CTL is important to improve the ability of learners' speaking skill, since learners themselves are put at the centre of *Teaching English as a Foreigner Language* (TEFL), the researcher has been interested to conduct research that implementing CTL in teaching speaking the for the adult learners in Indonesia. The aims of this study were (1) to analyze the student's improvement in English speaking skill, and (2) to analyze the difference between the experimental and control groups.

Method

The current research was conducted in Indonesia, at *Universitas Islam Negeri* (UIN) Mataram. It applied a quasi-experimental-control group design, involving post-test. Theoretically, the real experimentation and the nature of human language behaviour have been compromised in the design (Hatch & Hossein,1982). It manipulated an independent variable. Next, the participants were examined in order to reveal a condition (Gravetter and Forzano, 2012). Selected groups, that examined, were involved without any random sampling. This kind of procedure reduced the time needed for experimentation (Shuttleworth, 2008). A pre-test was administered to the groups before treatment.

The sample of the current research was taken from the students of the second semester, in the academic year 2018 / 2019. They were divided into two classes/ groups (*BKI*). They were taken through a purposive random sampling technique. Each group consisted of 37 students, that were grouped in the experimental groups and 36 students, that were grouped in the control group.

The researcher applied pre-test and post-test for gaining data. Firstly, the pre-test was conducted to examine the validity of the instrument (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). After that, the post-test was conducted to examine the treatments (Assapari et al., 2019). Assapari et al (2019) state that by treating that examination, there will be determined whether there is a difference between the control and experimental groups after receiving treatments, or not.

Moreover, in collecting the data, the questionnaires were also delivered as the other instrument. From the questionnaires, the researcher has got an explanatory description of TEFL method in presenting English speaking material at Islamic State Mataram University. The questionnaires, also, were applied for validating data and for finding the learners' perception about TEFL process.

Finally, the collected data were analyzed through SPSS software version 21.0. Moreover, the current research applied several techniques, namely Normality Test, Levene Test, Hypothesis Test using a one-sample t-test, and Learning Result Improvement Test. After that, they were calculated by the formula:

$$G = \frac{post\ test\ score - pre\ test}{max\ score - pre\ test\ score} \times 100$$

Validating the Test

In the current research, content validity was applied. The procedures were *first*, created the test blueprint, *second,* created the test itself, and *third,* analyzed the test. As Budiyono (2003, p.59) states, that the instruments must be also validated by the experts, this research employed two experts who assessed the validation of the test. Furthermore, there were some examination criteria namely, (1) the test is in accordance with the blueprint, (2) the material is understandable, (3) the diction is simple, (4) the question is clear, and (5) the test is not too easy or too difficult.

Test Reliability

The technique that can be utilized to understand the test reliability was the test-retest method (*see* Storm, 1969). This was applied in the current research. The researcher collected data after students were given a post-test. In the first session of the class, a pre-test was given to check students' knowledge and ability to speak in English. After that, as has been stated, the post-test was given to check students' improvement.

Based on the calculation of the reliability of learning outcomes using the Alpha Cronbach Formula, it was obtained the value of $r11 = 0.73$. According to Sugiyono (2013), such total value means that the reliability of the instruments that the researcher used was high.

Findings

In this section, the researcher presents the finding of his research. It consists of the results of pre-test and post-test of both experimental and control group, comparison of pre-test, post-test and score gain results between experiment group and control group, as well as the statistical test results.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test of Experimental Group

The results of pre-test and post-test of the experimental group are presented in the following table.

Table 1. Pre-test and Post-test of Experimental Group

No	Aspect of	Experiment Class		
		Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain Score
1	Number of Respondents	37	37	-
2	Highest score	40	92	0.90
3	Lowest value	10	56	0.45
4	Average score	23.08	77.51	0.71

The table above shows the number of students who participated in both pre-test and post-test, that was held in the experimental group. There were 37 people. The highest pre-test value was 40 and the highest post-test score was 92. The lowest pre-test value was 10, while the lowest post-test score was 56. The highest gained score was 0.90, and the lowest gained score was 0.45. The average of pre-test value was 23.08 while the post-test average value was 77.51 and the average score gain was 0. 71.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test of Control Group

The results of pre-test and post-test of the control group are shown in the following table (Table 2).

Table 2. Pre-test and Post-test of Control Group

No.	Aspect	Control Class		
		Pre-Test	Post-Test	Score
1	Number of respondents	36	36	-
2	Highest value	38	81	0.77
3	Lowest value	6	58	0.48
4	Average value	19.08	68.70	0.61

The table above shows that the number of students participating in the pre-test and post-test in the control group was 36 people. The highest pre-test value was 38 and the highest post-test value was 81. The lowest pre-test value was 6, and the lowest post-test value was 58. The highest gain score was 0.77, and the lowest gain score was 0.48. The average of pre-test value is 19.08 while the average of post-test value was 68.70.

Furthermore, to find the difference of learning outcomes between the experimental group and the control group, further calculations were performed using the statistical method, namely SPSS 21. The stages that were passed were (1) prerequisite tests which included homogeneity and normality tests, (2) hypothesis tests, and (3) t-tests.

Comparison of Pre-Test, Post-Test and Score Gain between Experimental Group and Control Group

The purpose of this comparison was to find out how much the difference between the results of pre-test and post-test in the experimental class. Results of pre-test compared with the results post-test in each class can be seen in the following table.

Table 3. Comparison of Pre-test and Post-test Results

No	Descriptors	Experimental Groups			Control Groups		
		Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain Score	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain Score
1	Number of respondents	37	37		6	36	
2	Highest value	40	92	0.90	38	81	0.77
3	Lowest value	10	56	0.45	6	58	0.48
4	Average value	23.08	77.51	0.71	19.08	68.70	0.61

From the table above, it is known that the average score of the pre-test and post-test in the experimental group class was higher than the control group. This indicated that the experimental group learning outcomes were better than the learning outcomes of the control group. Thus, it is concluded that English language learning devices with the contextual approach are able to improve student learning outcomes.

Since the analysis above was an analysis with descriptive statistics, the difference in learning outcomes between the experimental group and the control group is only seen descriptively. It cannot be believed whether the difference is significant or not. Therefore, to ascertain whether the average values of the two groups differ significantly or not, statistical tests were conducted.

Results of Statistical Test

Before conducting a calculation of *t-test,* firstly, the prerequisite test was conducted. Calculation of the prerequisite tests was conducted in the current study included homogeneity tests and normality tests.

Normality Test Data

The normality test was applied in order to examine whether the data collected in this study was obtained in a normal distribution or not. Data normality test was carried out using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov technique. The results have shown that alpha (α), sig. 0.093> 0.05, and 0.119> 0.05, (or α value). It means H0 is accepted. It is concluded that the sample of the population is normally distributed**.**

Homogeneity Test

Homogeneity test was intended to determine whether samples taken from populations with the same variance. The homogeneity test of the two groups was carried out using the Levene technique. The test shows that the variance of the two groups is the same**.**

Hypothesis Test

Before hypothesis testing was conducted, a test of analysis requirements has been carried out which included a homogeneity and normality test. This requirement test was carried out to determine hypothesis testing using parametric or nonparametric statistics.

This hypothesis test was conducted to find statistical evidence, which is about the difference in the influence of the use of different teaching materials on learning achievement. The aim of the current testing was to reveal the differences in the average of learning achievement, both in the control group and in the experimental group.

Next, the hypothesis testing was based on the results of the research and test requirements analysis. The stages of hypothesis testing are presented as follows. First, H0: Between the experimental group and the control group, there was no difference in students' learning outcomes. Second, H1: students' learning outcomes in the experimental group was higher than the control group. H0: $\mu_A = \mu_B$ (average of the two groups together); H1: $\mu_A>$ μ_B(Average experimental group is higher than control); Real Level (α) = 0.05.

The result of the homogeneity test and normality test of data is presented in Table 4 as follows.

Table 4. Tests of Normality

	Class	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Values	1	.134	37	.093	.953	37	.118
	2	.130	37	.119	.969	37	.378

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The output of The SPSS 21.00, as shown above, shows that the result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was 0.093. Being compared with alpha (α), sig. 0.093> 0.05, and 0.119> 0.05, (or α value), it can be stated that H0 is accepted. In other words, the sample of the population has been normally distributed.

Next, the average pre-test, post-test, and standard deviation value, as well as students learning result improvement are presented in the following table.

Table 5. Average Learning Result

No	Descriptor	Experiment Group			Control Group		
		Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain Score	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain Score
1	Responders	37	37		36	36	
2	high value	40	92	0.90	38	81	0.77
3	low value	10	56	0.45	6	58	0.48
4	Average value	23,08	77,51	0.71	19,08	68,70	0.61

Based on the table, it is seen that the experimental group obtained an average score of 23.08 in the pre-test, while in the post-test it obtained 77.51. The average score for the control class' pre-test was 19.08, while the average score for the control class' post-test was 68.70. Next, the average score of the experiment class was 0.77 with the average square deviation of 0.01.

Since both samples were distributed in a normal distribution and had the same variance or homogeneous, then the next examination could be processed, that is by testing with t-test. This test was to determine whether or not this hypothesis is accepted. The criteria for testing is as follows. If the value of t-count> t-table then Ha is accepted and H0 is rejected.

From the calculations, the value of t-count is 2.1 and t-table is 2.356, at *dk* = 66, and the real level α = 0.05, *ie* 2.356. Furthermore, the t-count is consulted with the t-table values, then t-count > t-table (2.1>2.356). This indicates that Ha is accepted. English learning outcomes of students who were taught using *CTL* in class was better.

Another finding of the current research shows that the probability value (Sig.) = 0,000 is smaller than alpha (α) = 0.05. Thus, it is stated that H0 is rejected (there is no difference in student learning outcomes in the experimental group with the control group). Next, H1, based on the results of statistical calculation, is accepted (the learning outcomes of the experimental group is higher than the control group).

Discussion

Based on the results above, it is discussed several important points as follows. *First*, it can be stated that the contextual approach is more effective than the conventional approach. This approach, as the data have been presented above, has proved that students' learning activities and their independence in interacting with other students have been improved. Furthermore, like the other important thing, they were not fully dependent upon the lecturers.

The finding in the current research is in line with the results of research conducted by Chaer & Muliastuti (2014) and Sidu's (2012). Their research shows that the approach of CLT may be used as an effort to improve the students' independence and ability in understanding the English materials (Fadilah, 2018). However, in the approach, the element of mutual cooperation is not accentuated, so that the results may not be perfect yet.

Next, it also supports the research result conducted by Sister (2004). Her research is related to students' ability in English speaking class using CLT. She states that practice based on CLT approach is needed in speaking class. It can be delivered by distributing short guided dialogue for students in improving students' speaking achievement. In the research, Sister (2004) applies the teaching of the language patterns in speaking class, which were then observed, analyzed, and finally concluded. Its conclusion states that the students have found the benefit of the usage of material they learned.

Second, In the current research, it also has been proven that CTL, besides can improve students' English speaking achievement, it can also improve the teaching-learning process of English speaking class. Following table (Table 6) shows how the results of speaking pre-test have been increased in the post-test.

Table 5. Students' Speaking Score of Pre-Test and Post -Test

| No | Value | | N-Gain |
	Pre-test	Post-test	(The Value-Gain)
1	18	75	0.81
2	40	70	0.56
3	30	75	0.71
4	30	76	0.73
5	26	85	0.88
6	26	70	0.65
7	22	65	0.60
8	18	65	0.62
9	24	62	0.55
10	30	75	0.71
11	30	75	0.71
12	11	66	0.67
13	16	80	0.83
14	18	50	0.42
15	20	70	0.68
16	28	70	0.64
17	16	85	0.89
18	18	92	0.98
19	20	93	0.10
20	26	91	0.97
21	16	80	0.83
22	16	72	0.72
23	15	71	0.71
24	15	64	0.62
25	34	90	0.94
26	32	80	0.78
27	28	64	0.55
28	24	70	0.66
29	22	78	0.78

30	24	58	0.49
31	10	70	0.72
32	20	56	0.49
33	20	80	0.82
34	37	82	0.97
35	24	75	0.73
36	18	64	0.61
37	32	70	0.62
38	10	75	0.78
39	20	78	0.79
40	22	78	0.78
41	10	88	0.65
42	10	64	0.65
43	34	60	0.44
44	38	64	0.47
45	8	75	0.78
46	8	78	0.82
47	25	78	0.77
48	20	80	0.82
Average Score			0.81

Furthermore, From the data, the researcher has found that with CTL the university students of Islamic Mataram State University- Indonesia have got more interest in the learning speaking. Furthermore, the classroom situation has also become more interesting. The fact, that has been found, shows that the students attended the class happily and they were active in the learning process.

Conclusion

Based on the results of the current research, it is concluded several points as follows. First, CTL is appropriate to be applied in TEFL, especially to improve the students' English skill of speaking. Problems faced by the learners in studying English, especially in speaking class, can be solved when CTL is implemented. Second, the implementation of CTL has made

the learners more active in joining English class. Furthermore, learners become more comfortable in studying English.

Next, CTL also impacts a positive effect on the teaching performance of lecturers because it motivates lecturer to create a new strategy that is to make students active in the teaching-learning process. Moreover, the lecturer, through CTL, is demanded to create interesting materials since this will attract students' attention and participation. Finally, the researcher suggests English lecturers applies CTL in speaking class since it motivates and enables learners to be more involved in classroom activities.

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Refusals among Yemeni EFL Learners: A Study of Negative Pragmatic Transfer and Its Relation to Proficiency

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship between negative pragmatic transfer and language proficiency with reference to the refusal speech acts as realized by Yemeni learners of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth referred to as YLEs). Forty Yemeni learners of English (20 of low proficiency level and 20 of high proficiency level) and 2 baseline groups (20 native

speakers of American English and 20 native speakers of Arabic) participated in this study. The data were collected using a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) which consisted of twelve scenarios employed to elicit refusals, namely, three offers, three suggestions, three requests and three invitations. Collecting these three sets of data made it possible to determine the extent to which YLEs' performance differs from native-speaker performance and whether the differences that exist are traceable to transfer from L1. The TOEFL proficiency test was used to determine the proficiency level of Yemeni learners of English. The findings of the study clearly revealed that there was evidence of negative pragmatic transfer from L1 especially with regard to the overall frequency and order of some semantic formulas used. However, the findings of the study indicated that both Yemeni learner groups showed evidence of pragmatic transfer; low proficient learners showed a greater tendency towards L1 pragmatic norms than their high proficient learners.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Pragmatic Transfer, Yemeni learners, Speech Acts, Refusal.

Introduction

Pragmatic competence has recently occupied a prominent place in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Increasing attention has been paid to it due to the fact that many learners may have good knowledge of grammar and a wide range of vocabulary but they still fail in real interaction with native speakers (Almansoob, Patil & Alrefaee, 2019). The English as foreign learners (henceforth referred to as EFL) mastery over formal properties of a language does not guarantee the appropriate use of the target language (Hashemian, 2012). Besides mastering language properties, EFL learners must have sociocultural knowledge of L2 in order to use the language appropriately. Lacking this knowledge on the part of L2 learners, even those with good proficiency levels, are expected to restore to their L1 sociocultural rules (pragmatic transfer) that may bring about intercultural misunderstanding and consequently lead to serious consequences.

This pragmatic failure caused by pragmatic transfer is said to be more detrimental than linguistic errors. Nelson, Carson, Al Bata, & El Bakary (2002) reported that "While native speakers often forgive the phonological, syntactic, and lexical errors made by L2 speakers, they are less likely to forgive pragmatic errors. Native speakers typically interpret pragmatic errors negatively as arrogance, impatience, rudeness, and so forth" (p.164).

Negative pragmatic transfer takes place when learners use L1 speech act norms that are inappropriate in the corresponding L2 setting (Alrefaee, Al-Ghamadi & Almansoob; 2019).

The proper contextual use of speech acts represents the criterion by which L2 learners' pragmatic competence is evaluated. For this purpose, in the course of this study, the speech act of refusal is selected to investigate the extent of pragmatic transfer among Yemeni EFL university learners. That is because refusal speech act is considered to be complex and it implies face-threatening acts. Furthermore, both negative and positive faces of the interlocutors are risked and refusal requires a high level of pragmatic competence for L2 speakers to perform successfully. Some researchers have found that L2 learners with high proficiency level showed a greater failure to perform this speech act when interacting in the L2 (Kim & Kwon, 2010, Morkus, 2009 and Morkus, 2018). They found that learners, instead, utilized their L1 pragmatic strategies when realizing refusals which may lead to pragmatic failure. However, other researchers have found that L2 learners with a low proficiency level have shown a tendency toward their L1 (Wannaruk, 2008). Generally, this kind of relationship between pragmatic transfer and L2 proficiency is still debatable. The current study is meant to find evidences of pragmatic transfer; it attempts to figure out the relationship between pragmatic transfer and L2 proficiency among Yemeni EFL learners.

Statement of the Problem

Communicative competence is commonly recognized by practitioners in the field of language teaching as a major pedagogical goal. Thus, pragmatic instruction has become a necessity and an important component in English as a Second Language or English as a Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) curricula (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). This simply means that EFL/ESL learners should be exposed to the actual use of the target language in order to acquire the pragmatic norms of L2. That is, besides the acquisition of grammatical abilities, EFL learners have to be familiar with the appropriate use of the language within a sociocultural context.

However, Yemeni EFL university learners are left unexposed to the actual use of the target language as the focus in curricula is on promoting learners' grammatical competence. This is summarized in Al-Sanhani's (2007) study in which it was found that pragmatic competence remains marginal in the Yemeni EFL instruction and the emphasis of language teaching lies on promoting learners' grammatical competence.

Thereupon, it is assumed that Yemeni learners of English may resort to their L1 pragmatic norms, which do not necessarily correspond with L2, when interacting in the target language. For example, they would invoke the name of God in the speech act of refusal in order to mitigate the illocutionary force of their refusals and to save the face e.g., "I swear by God that I don't have money." or they would say "I divorce my wife that I don't have money".

Americans are not familiar with these expressions as they are religiously oriented and culture-specific expressions. This kind of pragmatic transfer results in communication breakdown. The pragmatic transfer of Yemeni EFL learners could be attributed to the lack of exposure to the L2 use in social contexts and to their unfamiliarity of the appropriate utterances used in different social contexts.

This study seeks to find out evidences of the negative pragmatic transfer among Yemeni EFL learners as reflected in their performance of the speech act of refusal, and more specifically, it investigates the relationship between YLEs' pragmatic transfer, if any, and their L2 proficiency.

Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the most frequently used refusal strategies among English native speakers (henceforth referred to as ENSs), Arabic native speakers (henceforth referred to as ANSs) and YLEs.
2. How differently/similarly do Yemeni and Americans respond to refusals?
3. What is the relationship between pragmatic transfer and proficiency?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in many points; initially, its findings substantiating the relationship between pragmatic transfer and L2 learners' proficiency level are expected to yield a better understanding of the developmental aspects of L2 pragmatic competence. Second, identifying the general patterns of pragmatic transfer produced by a group of subjects from Arabic language background could also be helpful to the EFL teachers and curriculum designers. The EFL teachers are hopefully expected to make use of such findings to predict situations in which Yemeni EFL learners are likely to commit some pragmatic errors. In the light of such predictions, EFL teachers will emphasize the use of L2 pragmatic patterns to illuminate situations in which students fail pragmatically whereas curriculum designers would turn to develop curriculum to address these problematic areas.

Finally, the findings of such an empirical study can provide cross-cultural communication experts and those highly involved in teaching and learning English and Arabic as a second/foreign language with solid data to better understand communication patterns and styles in both English and Arabic languages.

Literature Review

Speech Act Theory

The study of speech acts goes back to Austin's (1962) How to do Things with Words, a monograph consisting of the collection of his lectures at Harvard in 1955. In this work, Austin (1962) proposes that some sentences such as "I now pronounce you husband and wife" are used by the speakers to do something. Such sentences are named as performatives by Austin. On the other hand, descriptive sentences such as "New York is a large city" are identified as constatives. The main point behind his work is that "saying something is also doing something. The speech act of refusal, the focus of the present study, falls under the category of expressives according to this taxonomy.

Arabic interlanguage refusal studies

There are few Arabic interlanguage refusal studies if compared with those of Japanese, Korean, and Chinese. One important interlanguage Arabic speech act study that looked at refusals is that of Al-Issa (1998), as mentioned by Morkus (2009, p. 58), in which he examined the realization of this speech act by Jordanian EFL learners as well as native speakers of Jordanian Arabic and native speakers of American English. He tries to find out evidences of pragmatic transfer and possible cause of such transfer. He collected his data from Jordanian ESL learners, American and Jordanian native speakers. The researchers have found evidences of pragmatic transfer in terms of frequency and content of semantic formulas. A similar interlanguage study of refusals was conducted by Al-Eryani (2007). He found out that Americans are more direct in their refusal than Arabs.

Another important interlanguage refusal study is that of Morkus (2009) in which he investigated how the speech act of refusal is realized in Egyptian Arabic by intermediate and advanced American learners of Arabic as a foreign language. Results show that there were important differences between the two learner groups and the native speakers of Egyptian Arabic with regard to the frequency of direct and indirect strategies and individual strategy use. Similarly, Abed (2011) tries to investigate evidence of pragmatic transfer among EFL Iraqis in their use of the speech act of refusal. One important finding of this study was that refusals of Iraqi learners of English are different from those of Native Americans and native Iraqi Arabic speakers, though they do share some similarities.

Pragmatic Transfer

Interlanguage transfer is not pragmatic specific; in fact, early transfer studies in second language acquisition were centered largely on linguistic aspects such as grammar, phonology, and lexicon. The advent of pragmatics as a major component of communicative competence called for expanding the scope of interlanguage transfer research to include transfer at the pragmatic level. Currently, the nature of pragmatic transfer and its influence on second language acquisition is a major area of investigation in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) research. Its popularity is based on two well-established assumptions: language learners' comprehension and production of linguistic action.

Pragmatic transfer is defined by Kasper (1992) as "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production, and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (p. 207). Within this framework, Kasper differentiates between positive pragmatic transfer and negative pragmatic transfer. Positive pragmatic transfer facilitates language acquisition such that "language specific conventions of usage and use are demonstrably non-universal yet shared between L1 and L2" (p. 212). For instance, learners have been shown to successfully transfer their refusal pragmatic patterns and convention into English from Arabic (Al-Issa, 1998 and Abed, 2011), Korean (Kim, 2004 and Kim & Kwon, 2010), Japanese (Beebe et al., 1990), Thai (Wannaruk, 2008) and Persian (Hashemian, 2012). Negative pragmatic transfer, on the other hand, often leads to miscommunication when L1-based pragmatic conventions are "being projected into L2 contexts and differing from the pragmatic perceptions and behaviours of the target community" (Kasper, 1992, p. 213). The focus of this study is mainly on the negative pragmatic transfer that may bring about a pragmatic failure.

Methods

Participants

The investigation of EFL learners' L1 pragmatic transfer should involve the collection of three comparable sets of data: (a) samples of the target language as performed by L2 learners, (b) samples of the target language as performed by native speakers, and (c) samples of the native language as performed by L1 native speakers (Ellis, 1994). It was argued that collecting these three sets of data allows the researcher "to determine to what extent learner performance differs from native-speaker performance and whether the differences are traceable to transfer from the L1" (ibid. p. 162).

Adopting this canonical design, the current study includes 20 English native speakers (ENSs) representing the sample of the target language, 20 Arabic native speakers (ANSs) representing the sample of the native language of L2 learners and 40 Yemeni learners of English (YLE) representing the sample of the target language. The 40YLE participants are divided into two groups based on their proficiency levels as shown below in Figure 3-1 below.

Yemeni Learners of English (YLEs)

The YLE participants, who are the main subjects of this study, were students of English in the Faculty of Education, Sana'a University in the academic year 2018-2019.

The researcher took permission from the department to administer the study instrument and asked the students to participate in the study. They were told about the study and what they were supposed to do. They were notified that they were required to undergo two phases in the course of this study. Phase one is to sit for a proficiency test and the other is to fill in a questionnaire. Sixty students from A and B groups agreed to participate. After taking their consent, they were given a proficiency test, TOEFL, on the first day. Based on their scores, only 40 students were selected to participate in the second phase, 20 students from those who scored above 75 and 20 students from those who scored less than 75. The former group represents the high proficient (HP) learners and the latter represents the low proficient learners. The HP leaner group includes 10 males and 10 females between the ages of 20 and 25 with an average age of 24, whereas the LP learner group consists of 9 males and 11 females between the ages of 19 and 24 with a mean age of 23. All participants of these two groups have been studying English, as their university major for four years. None of them has traveled abroad where English is used as a medium of communication. Their exposure to the language is only through school and college teaching. On the second day, the DCT was administered to the participants.

English Native Speakers (ENSs)

The ENS participants were recruited from the Journalism Department, Ohio University, USA. The participants who were selected randomly are undergraduate students between the ages of 19 and 27, consisting of 7 males and 13 females with an average age of 24.

Arabic Native Speakers (ANSs)

The ANS participants were selected randomly from the Arabic department, Education College, Sana'a University in Yemen. All the participants were undergraduate students between

the ages of 19 and 25 with a mean age of 23. This group consisted of 8 males and 12 females. The participants in this group have no knowledge of English culture and language.

Instruments

To elicit the performance of the speech act under consideration, refusal, from the three group participants, a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) was administered. The DCT consists of situational descriptions that specified a social setting. Each situation is clearly followed by a blank space in which the participants are asked to provide the appropriate linguistic form of refusal speech act as though they are the speakers engaging in real-life interaction.

The DCT utilized in this study was originally used by Beebe et al. (1990). DCT is used by Kim and Kwon (2010) and Genc & Tekyildiz (2009). It included 12 DCT situations and they were classified into four stimulus types that were designed to elicit refusals: three requests, three invitations, three offers, and three suggestions as clearly shown in Table 1 above. Many studies investigating L1 pragmatic transfer on refusals have employed the aforementioned four stimulus types (e.g., Kim, 2004; Kim & Kwon, 2010 & Abed, 2011).

Table 1 provides a clear description of the 12 DCTs used in this study.

Table 1. A description of DCT situations

Stimulus Type	Situation	Status
Requests	A friend's request to borrow money	Equal
	A worker asks for an increase in pay from his boss	Higher
	A boss' request from his employee to stay for extra hours to do some work	Lower
Invitations	A friend's invitation for dinner	Equal
	A salesman's invitation to his client, president of an advertising company	Higher
	A senior manager's invitation to his/wife's birthday party	Lower
Offers	An employee's offer to pay for damages sustained to his/her boss's car	Higher
	A friend's part-time job offer	Equal
	A boss' offer for a raise	Lower
Suggestions	An employee's suggestion to change	Higher

	the date of a meeting	
	A friend's suggestion to exercise rather than dieting	Equal
	A boss' suggestion to take memos	Lower

In each of the stimulus type groups, the subjects were required to refuse three different interlocutors: a refusal to the request of a higher status person, a refusal to the request of equal status, and a refusal to the request of a lower status. Such differences in position between the refusee and the refuser are based on the refuser's social status, which incorporates the disparity between their power, distance, and position.

With respect to ANS participants, they were given an Arabic translated version of the DCT. The researchers have translated the DCT into Arabic, a native speaker of Arabic.

Data Collection Procedures

The DCT was given to the three groups of participants: ENSs, ANSs and YLES of both proficiency levels to elicit their performance of the speech act of refusal. Ms. Lindsay Boyle, an Editorial Intern at Cleveland Magazine in the USA, administered the study instrument to the ENSs at Ohio University in America. The researcher ensured that Ms. Boyle understood the data collection protocol. After asking for permission to visit classes, she visited Journalism classes at Ohio University. She requested them to participate in the study and to write their natural responses to the situations given in the DCT as if they would say in natural conversations.

On the other hand, the students at Sana'a University Faculty of Education, Arabic department were asked to fill in the DCTs of Arabic. They were told about the nature of the research and how important their participation is. English classes of 4th level students at Sana'a University, Faculty of Education were kindly invited to participate in an interlanguage pragmatic study. The subjects were given DCTs questionnaire and were instructed orally in the mother tongue in how to conduct DCTs. Moreover, they were given written instructions, emphasizing that they should not give their ideal responses but rather responses that reflected those that they use in everyday interaction. After ensuring that all the participants understood the nature of the task, they were asked to complete DCTs.

Data Analysis

After the data were collected from the three group participants, refusals were coded into semantic formulas. A semantic formula refers to 'a word, phrase or sentence that meets a particular semantic criterion or strategy; any one or more of these can be used to perform the act in question (Cohen, 1996, p. 265). The terms "semantic formula" and "strategy" have been used interchangeably to refer to the same concept.

In coding the refusal data in terms of semantic formulas, the refusal taxonomy developed by Beebe et al. (1990) was used. For example, a respondent refused an invitation to a friend's house for dinner, saying 'I'm sorry; I'm going to a concert on Sunday night. Maybe next time.' This was coded as [expression of regret] [reason] and [alternative]. This classification system has been widely used and adopted to examine refusals among native and non-native speakers in different languages (Morkus, 2009).

For reliable coding, four raters, two Arabic native speakers and two English language teachers, were selected to code the DCTs data independently. The two Arabic coders were teachers of English, Translation Department, Faculty of Languages, Yemeni Jordanian University, whereas the two English coders were master students at Sana'a University.

After codifying refusals, YLEs' refusal semantic formulas were compared with those of ENSs and ANSs in terms of the overall strategy use. To compare the frequency use of the semantic formulas of the four groups, the total number of each semantic formula used by each group in the 12 situations was calculated and was shown in tables. The tables would help compare the overall frequency use of each of the semantic formulas. The statistical process was performed via Excel program.

As for the types of mitigating formulas used by the two language groups, it can be seen that the ways in which refusals are mitigated have a major impact on the overall tone of the refusals. For example, one might refuse directly by using negative willingness, but the refusal effect can be greatly softened by providing various mitigations such as a statement of positive opinion (e.g. I'd love to, but…), a regret (e.g. I'm sorry) or a statement of alternative (e.g. Why don't we get together next Saturday?).

Results and Discussion

The results are presented and discussed into sections. One deals with the overall strategy use and the other discusses the relationship between pragmatic transfer and proficiency.
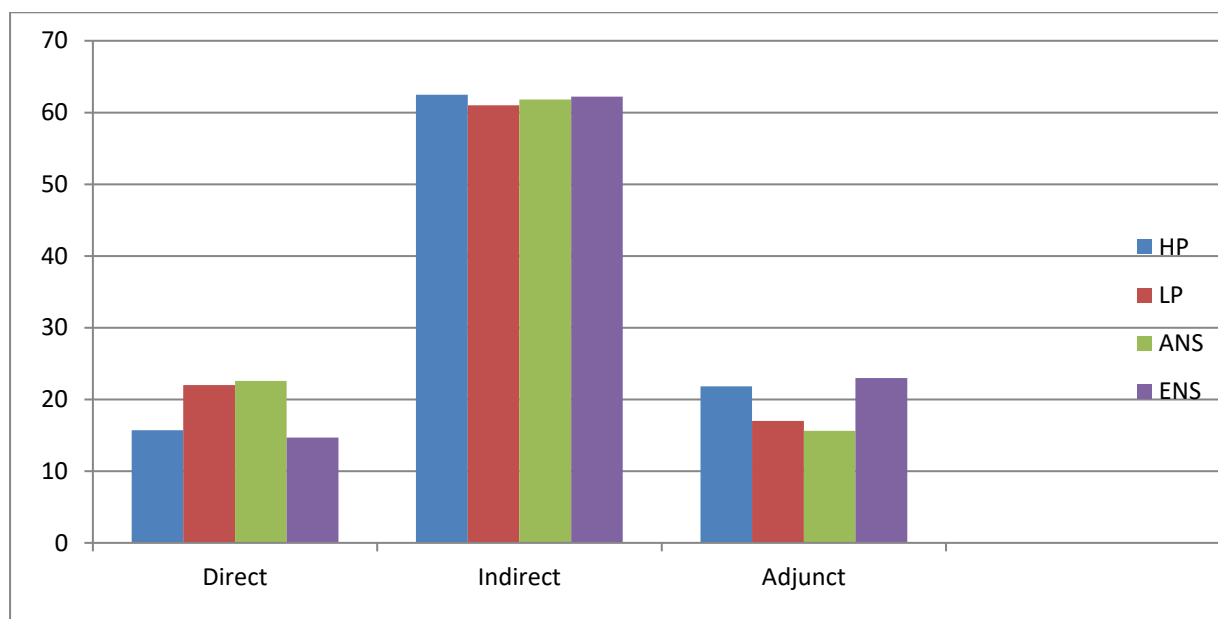
The Overall Strategy Use

This section presents and compares the YLEs' overall strategy use with that of L1 and L2. The total number of each refusal strategy utilized in the 12 scenarios was calculated for each group.

A total of 24 strategies were found in the data collected from the participants of the four groups. These strategies are distributed to 3 direct strategies, 15 indirect strategies, and 6 adjuncts to refusal as shown in table 2, 3, 5 respectively. The overall frequency use of each refusal strategy used by each group will be analyzed below. A special emphasis was paid to those strategies in which YLEs differ from ENSs in terms of the frequency use and strategies were ordered accordingly. The L1 frequency use of such strategies was examined in order to find out if YLEs' deviation from the target language norm is due to pragmatic transfer from the L1.

Direct strategies

According to Table 2, direct strategies represented 14.75% of all strategies used by four group participants. However, there was a substantial difference with regard to the total number of direct strategies. American participants utilized a lower percentage of direct strategies than Yemenis. Direct strategies accounted for 22.60%, and 14.75% of the overall strategy use for ANSs and ENSs respectively. For YLEs, high proficient (henceforth referred to as HP) learners showed a good level of pragmatic competence as they employed a frequency closer to that of Americans whereas the low proficient (henceforth referred to as LP) learners transferred L1 pragmatic pattern in utilizing more direct strategies in a way similar to native speakers of Arabic.

Figure 1. Overall Frequency Use of Direct, Indirect Strategies and Adjuncts by Group

As for the individual direct strategy use, Negative willingness was the most frequently used strategy for the four groups. However, there was a substantial difference in the frequency count. According to Table 2, this strategy occurred 64, 87, 98, and 54 times in the data of HP, LP, ANS, ENS groups respectively. Based on these occurrences, it can be argued that HP learners showed a good level of pragmatic competence employing a frequency closer to ENSs while LP learners transferred L1 pragmatic pattern employing a higher frequency similar to ANSs, providing another example of negative pragmatic transfer.

Table 2: Direct Overall Strategy Use by Group

No	Strategy	YLEs				ANSs		ENSs	
		HP		LP					
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	Negative Ability	64	13.0%	87	17.9%	98	19.6%	54	10.9%
2	Flat No	12	2.4%	19	3.9%	14	2.8%	19	3.8%
3	Performative	1	0.2%	1	0.2%	1	0.2%	0	0.0%

Flat no was the second most popular direct strategy deployed by the four groups. However, there was also a substantial difference in the frequency use. According to Table 2

above, the ENS participants utilized this strategy more commonly than ANS participants. This strategy accounted for 3.8% and 2.8% of the overall strategy use for ENSs and ENSs respectively. For YLEs, HP learners resembled L1 pragmatic pattern employing this strategy less frequently, whereas LP leaner group showed L2 pragmatic pattern as they utilized this strategy more frequently in a way similar to their ENSs counterparts. This could be attributed to low proficiency level of LP learners as it is easy for them to construct this strategy.

Finally, the least frequently used direct strategy was Performative. It was only found for once in each of the HP learners, LP learners, and ANS data. Table 2 above provides a comprehensive frequency counts and percentages of the overall direct strategy use by each group.

Indirect Strategies

The four groups showed a similar tendency towards the use of more indirect strategies. Of all refusal strategies utilized by the four group participants in this study, indirect strategies represented 62%. There was no substantial difference with regard to the total number of indirect strategies between the group participants. Although the YLEs and ENSs shared most of indirect semantic formulas, they differ substantially in the frequency use of some refusal strategies as shown in Table 3 below.

One major difference between YLEs of both proficiency levels and ENSs was the frequency use of wish strategy. This strategy was commonly used by YLEs and it was ranked the third most popular strategy for both HP and LP learner groups as shown in Table 3. For Americans, this strategy was employed only 8 times and it registered the seventh most frequently used strategy. By looking at ANSs' frequency use of this strategy, it was clearly shown that YLEs' preference for this strategy was transferred from the L1.

Another example where YLEs of both proficiency levels deviated from the L2 pragmatic pattern and resembled L1 was the frequency use of alternative strategy. Just contrary to wish strategy, this strategy was more commonly used by ENSs and less frequently used by YLEs of both proficiency levels. This strategy was ranked third in terms of their use by ENS, occurring 38 times, while it only occurred 11 times in the HP learner group data and 9 times in the LP learner group data. Furthermore, ANSs employed this strategy only 4 times

Table 3: Indirect Overall Strategy Use by Group

No	Strategy	HP		LP		ANSs		ENSs	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.	Wish	24	4.9%	20	4.1%	26	5.2%	8	1.6%
2.	Alternative	11	2.2%	9	1.8%	4	0.8%	38	7.7%
3.	Regret	84	17.1%	74	15.2%	66	13.2%	83	16.8%
4.	Excuse	129	26.3%	151	31.0%	162	32.4%	121	24.4%
5.	Postponement	11	2.2%	4	0.8%	9	1.8%	6	1.2%
6.	Promise	3	0.6%	4	0.8%	12	2.4%	0	0.0%
7.	Unspecific	0	0.0%	2	0.4%	1	0.2%	0	0.0%
8.	Hedging	2	0.4%	4	0.8%	3	0.6%	7	1.4%
9.	Self-Defense	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	2	0.4%	2	0.4%
10	Criticism	5	1.0%	1	0.2%	1	0.2%	9	1.8%
11	L Empathy	5	1.0%	4	0.8%	1	0.2%	3	0.6%
12	Off the Hook	10	2.0%	16	3.3%	15	3.0%	13	2.6%
13	Lecturing	5	1.0%	3	0.6%	1	0.2%	3	0.6%
14	Principle	17	3.5%	5	1.0%	6	1.2%	8	1.6%
15	condition	1	0.2%		0.0%	0	0.0%	7	1.4%

The frequency use of regret strategy also provides another example of pragmatic transfer, but only by LP learners. On the other hand, HP learners resembled L2 pattern. They used a higher frequency of this strategy in a way similar to ENSs, whereas, LP learners exhibited a pattern similar to L1 employing this strategy less frequently.

A minor difference in the frequency use was the employment of excuse strategy which was found to be the most frequently used strategy of the three group participants. According to Table 4, LP learners employed a higher frequency closer to L1 whereas the HP learners exhibited almost a similar pattern to L2.

Table 4: Most Frequently Used Indirect Strategies by Group

Ranking	HP	LP	ANSs	ENSs
First	Excuses	Excuses	Excuses	Excuses
Second	Regret	Regret	Regret	Regret

Third	Wish	Wish	Wish	Alternative
Fourth	Principle	Off the hook	Off the hook	Off the hook
Fifth	Alternative	Alternative	Promise	Criticism

As seen above in Table 4, evidence of pragmatic transfer was found in the frequency counts of refusal strategies shared by the four groups. It is worth mentioning that negative pragmatic transfer was also evident with regard to the strategy selection. It is clearly shown that strategies were employed only by Yemenis and never found in the data of Americans and there were other strategies utilized by Americans and never used by Yemenis. For example, although the promise of future acceptance strategy was not employed by ENS participants at all, YLEs of both proficiency levels utilized this strategy. They transferred this strategy from L1. In a reverse pattern, native speakers of English commonly used the strategy of future acceptance, occurring 7 times. Yemeni learners of English, just like their ANS counterparts, never used this strategy. These findings are good evidences of negative pragmatic transfer in terms of strategy selection.

Adjuncts to Refusal

Of all strategies used, adjuncts to refusal represented 24% of the overall strategy use. According to Table 5 below, though adjuncts to refusal were commonly employed by both Yemenis and Americans, there was a substantial difference in the overall strategy use. ENSs have utilized a higher number of adjuncts to refusal than did their ANS counterparts. Results in Table 5 shows that adjuncts to refusal accounted for 23% and 15.6% of the overall strategy use for ENSs and ANSs groups respectively. For Yemeni EFL learners, HP learners showed a good level of pragmatic competence employing a frequency closer to that of ENSs whereas LP showed evidence of negative pragmatic transfer employing a lower frequency similar to that of ANSs.

With respect to the individual overall strategy use, out of six adjuncts employed by participants of this study, the gratitude adjunct strategy was found to be the most popular adjunct to refusals for all the four groups. However, there was a substantial difference with regard to the frequency use. American participants used this strategy more commonly than Arabic speaker participants. According to Table 5 below, while this strategy occurred 59 times in the data of ENSs, it occurred only 26 times in ANS's data. For YLEs, HP learners utilized a higher frequency than ANS, closer to that of ENSs whereas LP learners, on the other hand,

employed a lower percentage of this strategy similar to their ANSs, showing another evidence of negative pragmatic transfer. The frequency use occurred 39 times for HP and 20 times for LP learners.

Table 5: Overall Strategy Use of Adjunct by Group

N	Strategy	YLEs				ANSs		ENSs	
		HP		LP					
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	Positive Idea	36	7%	25	5%	19	4%	35	7%
2	Empathy	2	0%	2	0%	3	1%	6	1%
3	Pause Filler	24	5%	13	3%	5	1%	14	3%
4	Gratitude	39	8%	26	5%	26	5%	59	12%
5	Invoking the name of God	4	1%	13	3%	25	5%	0	0%
6	Attention	2	0%	4	1%	0	0%	0	0%

The second most popular Adjunct to refusal was the statement of positive feeling for all groups except for ANS group, for which this strategy was the third most frequently used strategy. HP learner group and ENS group used a similar overall percentage accounting for 7.3% and 7.1% respectively and LP and ANS groups accounted for 5.1% and 3.8% of their overall strategy use respectively. Table 5 indicates that HP learners were similar to ENS while LP, as usual, exhibited a frequency similar to that of ANS counterparts.

Invoking the name of God was the second most frequently used strategy for ANS. This strategy seems to be culturally specific, as it was never used by Americans. Both learner groups of participants commonly employed this strategy resembling their ANS participants. This was indicated in Table 6 in which this strategy was found to be the second most popular strategy for ANS; it was the third most frequently used strategy for LP learners and the fourth most popular strategy for HP learners. This is good evidence of negative pragmatic transfer by both Yemeni EFL learner groups.

Table 6: Most Frequently Used Adjuncts   by Group

Ranking	HP	LP	ANSs	ENSs
First	Gratitude	Gratitude	Gratitude	Gratitude

Second	Positive idea	Positive idea	Invoking	Positive idea
Third	Pause filler	Invoking	Positive idea	Pause filler
Fourth	Invoking the name of God	Pause filler	Pause filler	Empathy

Pause filler adjunct to refusal was commonly used by native speakers of English and was rarely found in the data of native speakers of Arabic, occurring only 5 times. Interestingly, both learner groups exhibited a pattern similar to ENSs group in the use of this strategy, occurring 13 times for LP leaner group and 24 times for HP learner group.

Evidence of Pragmatic Transfer

With respect to the overall strategy use, the analysis of the data reveals that LP learners showed evidence of negative pragmatic transfer in the overall strategy use of direct strategies and adjuncts to refusal. LP learners utilized more direct strategies and fewer adjuncts to refusal resembling their L1 pragmatic pattern. HP learners showed a good level of pragmatic competence resembling L2 pragmatic patterns in the overall strategy use of direct, indirect and adjuncts to refusal. It can be argued that LP learners' preference for more direct strategies and less adjuncts to refusals is attributed to their low linguistic proficiency. Direct strategies are easily constructed and they do not require a high level of proficiency, unlike adjuncts to refusal which require a good linguistic competence to construct.

This finding is similar to that of Abed (2011) who found that Iraqi native speakers of Arabic use more direct strategies than native speakers of American English. It is also congruent with the finding of Al-Momani (2012) who found that Arabs are more direct than Americans. However, this finding is inconsistent with that of Morkus' (2009) and Jiang (2015) who found that Americans use a higher percentage of direct strategies than Arabic speakers. This also contradicts the findings from the literature that Arabic communication style tends towards verbosity (Al-Issa, 1998 & Al-Shalawi, 1997). Moreover, the finding that Arabs use less adjuncts to refusal than Americans comes in congruence with that of Abed (2011) who found that Americans tend to use more adjuncts than Arabic native speakers do.

Data analysis revealed the YLEs' tendency toward their L1 pragmatic patterns and their deviation from the L2 ones in the frequency count of some refusal strategies. For instance, in the frequency use of wish strategy, YLEs generally followed their native speakers of Arabic pragmatic norm, deviating from that of L2. That is clearly shown in Table 3 which shows their

preference of this strategy which is not commonly used in the L2. This finding is consistent with that of Abed (2011) who found that Iraqi learners of English used a higher frequency of this strategy similar to their native speakers of Arabic.

The frequency count of the statement of regret strategy also provided another good evidence of negative pragmatic transfer. Only LP learners utilized this strategy less frequently resembling L1. It seems that this strategy is commonly preferred by Americans who were found to use this strategy in all equal status relationships. To show their concern, Americans usually initiate their refusals with regrets. A similar finding was provided by Morkus (2009) and Kim and Kwon (2010). However, this finding contradicts the findings of Al-Shalawi (1997) and Abed (2011) who found that Saudis and Iraqis used more expressions of regrets than American participants. This demonstrates that Arabs realize this speech act differently which entails the need for more interlanguage studies investigating the realization of the speech acts in different Arab countries.

Another example of negative pragmatic transfer was evident in the frequency use of the offer of alternative strategy. While this strategy was the third most frequently used strategy for the American group, it was the ninth most popular strategy by ANSs. Both Yemeni leaner groups exhibited a pattern similar to native speakers of Arabic. This finding is very important as it reveals that Americans commonly used this strategy which is used to mitigate in illusionary force of the refusal and to show respect and solidarity. It is important to note that even Yemeni advanced learners of English lack the knowledge of the appropriate use of this speech act. This entails the necessity for the insertion of the pragmatic component into language instruction and future curricula. This finding is consistent with that of Abed (2011) who found that Americans use offer of alternative strategy more commonly than their native Arabic speaker counterparts.

Furthermore, pragmatic transfer was evident in the frequency use of adjuncts. For example, though the gratitude and the positive feeling adjuncts were commonly used by ENSs, Yemeni EFL learners followed L1 pragmatic norms utilizing these adjuncts less frequently.

It is worth mentioning that evidence of pragmatic transfer was also present with regard to the strategy selection. The findings showed that there were some refusal strategies that occurred only in the refusal responses given by the ANS group and were never utilized by the ENS group. For example, the adjunct of invoking the name of God was commonly used by the ANS participants and never found in the data of ENSs. However, YLEs of both proficiency levels have utilized this strategy, providing another evidence of negative pragmatic transfer.

The use of this formula was found to imply and reflect an Arabic cultural-specific norm or value.

Another refusal strategy that was only utilized by ANSs and never found in the data of ENSs is the indirect strategy of promise of future acceptance. YLEs of both proficiency levels utilize this strategy in a way similar to their L1, providing another evidence of negative pragmatic transfer. Transfer of this strategy by both learner groups reveals that this strategy is cultural-specific. Yemenis use this strategy to show respect and politeness to their interlocutors, especially when refusing someone of a higher status. By using this strategy, Yemenis show their willingness to comply if the situation was different and in the future events they will certainly accept.

Interestingly, as Yemenis tended to modify the illocutionary force of their refusal with promise of acceptance, Americans appeared to be more specific than Yemenis. They specify certain conditions under which they would accept requests, offers or invitations. Instead of promising without clearly stating the future context, they specifically mention conditions under which they would accept the request or offer if the situation was different. For example, I would increase your salary if you worked harder (situation 5), I will give you money if I have got the scholarship (situation4). In contrast, Yemenis directly give their promise without mentioning any future condition, for example "I don't have money right now, but I will give you next time" (Situation 4) or "I wish I could come to your wife' party today, but I am very busy, Insallah (God willing) next time" (Situation 1). Yemeni learners of English never utilized condition for future acceptance strategy at all in a way identical to their native speakers of Arabic. This finding refutes the claim of Morkus (2009) who attributed the absence of this strategy to the low proficiency level because, according to him, it is very difficult for low proficient learners to construct conditionals. In this study, the absence of this strategy was found to be related to cultural norms rather than language proficiency because even HP learners who have the ability to construct such complex strategies tended to follow their L1 norms.

As illustrated above, pragmatic transfer was evident in terms of the total number of refusal strategies, frequency count of some refusal strategies and the strategy selection, where some strategies were employed only by one language group. The results of the study also reveal evidence of pragmatic transfer with respect to the distribution of some refusal strategies. For example, though Yemeni EFL learners resemble L2 in the frequency use of negative ability strategy in some situations, they differed in the way this strategy was ordered or distributed in an utterance. Just like native speakers of Arabic, YLEs tended to initiate their refusal with this strategy, especially when refusing someone equal or lower in status as found in situations 1, 3,

5, and 12. Americans consider this refusal as offensive and impolite. They started their refusal with gratitude, positive feeling adjuncts to mitigate the illocutionary force before giving the direct strategy.

Another striking evidence of negative pragmatic transfer regarding the order of the refusal strategy is the placement of reason/excuse strategy. Unlike Americans, Yemeni native speakers gave reasons for their refusal right from the beginning like in situation 4 of request and 2 of invitation. Americans initiated their refusal with statement of regret strategy or gratitude adjunct before stating an excuse or giving an explanation. It can be concluded that Americans start with strategies that would soften the illocutionary force to show their unwillingness to refuse if situations were different. To them, it seems impolite to start just with stating reasons. YLEs of both proficiency levels resemble their L1 by using the strategy of excuse right from the beginning of their refusal, providing a good evidence of negative pragmatic transfer.

Furthermore, the order of the gratitude adjuncts showed interesting findings. Americans were found to be interested to start their refusals with this adjunct, especially in situation 7 where the participant was asked to refuse a suggestion from his friend advising him to make exercises to reduce his weight instead of not eating. In contrast, Arabic native speakers never initiated their refusal with this strategy in this situation and rarely utilize it in the other situations.

As demonstrated above, pragmatic transfer was evident in terms of the overall strategy use, frequency and order of refusal strategies. Interestingly enough, it was also evident with regard to the content of some refusal strategies. Though certain strategies like excuses/reasons are widely used by both Yemenis and Americans, the ways they are constructed differ. Yemeni's excuses/reasons were more general and less specific. Yemenis just state the excuses of their inability without specifically mentioning the exact reasons. Americans, on the other hand, give more direct, plain and specific reasons. YLEs transferred this tendency of vague general reasons when interacting in English. That was found when they refuse a colleague's invitation to his wife's party (situation 1) and when refusing a dinner invitation from his senior manager (situation3).

This finding comes in congruence with the findings of that of Al-Issa (1998), Al-Shalawi (1997), Abed (2011) who found that Jordanian, Saudi and Iraqi Arabs give general excuses/ reasons while Americans provide specific excuses. Other interlanguage studies conducted in other languages have also come to such a conclusion; Beebe et. al (1990) in Japanese language, Kim and Kwon (2010) in Korean also found that Americans' reasons are

specific. However, when Yemeni participants were in similar situations that involved refusing an invitation from someone higher in status than their own, their excuses were slightly more concrete than the ones used for refusees in a lower or equal status. Kim & Kwon (2010) observed a very similar finding in their study of Korean refusals.

YLEs of both proficiency levels resembled their L1 in the utilization of the intensifier really just before their excuses, especially in situation 4. It seems that Yemenis are inclined to use this expression when they need to confirm what they have heard from the interlocutors and/or they need some time to think about how they might answer. In addition, due to the fact that this statement is considered informal, Yemenis tend to use 'really' when they are engaged in conversation with someone who is close to them as it appears in situation 4.

The overuse of the honorific title Sir showed also another evidence of pragmatic transfer. YLEs of both proficiency levels started their refusal in situation 3 and 12 with this title when refusing someone higher in status. It seems that Arabic participants use the honorific title 'Sir' to show respect to the interlocutor.

Conclusion

The findings of this study indicate that pragmatic transfer is indeed present in the English used by the Yemeni EFL learners. The analysis of the data reveals that negative pragmatic transfer in the refusal responses given by YLEs was evident in terms of the overall strategy use as well as the frequency, order and content of refusal semantic formulas. Moreover, pragmatic transfer was also evident with regard to strategy selection; while invoking the name of God formula was frequently used by YLEs and native speakers of Arabic, it was never employed by American participants. However, the findings of the study indicate that both Yemeni learner groups showed evidence of pragmatic transfer, low proficient (LP) learners showed a greater tendency towards L1 pragmatic norms than high proficient (HP) learners' counterparts.

Pedagogical Implications

The fact that even the advanced learners of the study lack pragmatic competence has raised a matter for language teaching. The learners' pragmatic competence does not match their linguistic competence. Therefore, it is assumed that language teachers should pay more attention to improving L2 learners' pragmatic competence in the process of teaching. The following are some implications.

Firstly, in order to help the learners to communicate effectively in the L2, they need to acquire the strategies which are used most frequently by native speakers as well as the rules for implementing these strategies. This can be done with the help of the teachers' designing task-based activities which expose learners to ample pragmatic input and elicit learners' appropriate output.

Additionally, the differences in content and order of the semantic formulas suggest that the learners do not have enough socio-cultural knowledge of the target community. Therefore, socio-cultural information should be incorporated into language curricula or textbooks.

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Intelligibility of Philippine English to Young International Students

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Abstract

The use of the English language is fast becoming a necessity among nations. However, its undeniable spread and worldwide use have given birth to the emergence of non-native varieties of English across the globe. Thus, the concept of intelligibility has gained continued inquiry of different scholars and researchers. This study examines the intelligibility of Philippine English to 21 grade school pupils attending an international school, specifically focusing on the relationship between intelligibility and speaker's *lectal* category; listener's English proficiency level, gender and L1 background; and Philippine English segmental features. Using intelligibility cloze tests, the findings of the study revealed that mesolectal speaker of Philippine English is more intelligible than the acrolectal speaker and that Philippine English has higher intelligibility to young international students with high English proficiency level. In addition, segmental features of Philippine English are characterized by more vowel sound deviations from General American English than in consonants. Therefore, it occurs that for Philippine English to be intelligible to young international students, the speaker must learn to modify and adjust his/her speech by using syllable-time rhythm and slower speech rate.

Likewise, improving the listeners' English proficiency level could promote higher Philippine English intelligibility.

Introduction

Over the past decades, world-wide globalization has spread English into a global language and made it as a medium for intellectual pursuits, for international communication and for economic advancement. According to Mufwene (2010), much of this evolution can be attributed as much to the prescription of English as a second or foreign language in secondary schools of almost every country of the outer and expanding circles. Svartvik (1999) as cited by Lundahl (2009) summarized the undeniable spread and worldwide use of the English language, these are: a) more than 70 countries have English as the official or co-official language; b) a ratio of one in five persons in the world has some knowledge of the English language; c) around one billion people study the language; d) a majority of all electronics manuals are in English, and most importantly; e) it is the dominant language used in media, business, science and technology.

The extent of use of the English language has earned it a status being the first language (L1) or second language (L2) to around 75 countries (Jenkins, 2003), with an estimated number of English L1 users of about 330 million, and L2 users of about 430 million, excluding learners of English (Crystal, 2003). Therefore, the increasing use of English for communication fuels the demands for English teachers (Crystal, 2003). However, the increase in the number of learners does not match the global demands for native English- speaking teachers (NEST). Graddol (2006) reported that the majority of trained ESL/EFL teachers in the world are non-native speakers (NNSs) of English and that the demand for native English-speaking teachers is greater than the supply of native English-speaking teachers (Bayyurt, 2006). Thus, non-native English-speaking teachers (NNEST) are needed.

However, although people from around the world are investing a huge amount of money to learn English (British Council, 2013), one could not overlook the fact that with more people learning English, more varieties of the language are developed, and these variations have features of their own due to nativization (de Leon, 2016). Thus, as Filipino ESL teachers assume the role of spreading the English language, they carry with them their own English, that is, the Philippine English.

Philippine English

 The English language is deeply rooted in the Philippines. The English language was initially introduced into the Philippines' formal educational system when the United States of America colonized the country in 1898. There were several reasons for adapting the English language into the Philippines' formal educational system. Martin (1999) suggested that the American colonial government used the language as a unifying tool to harmonize Filipinos with different languages and dialects. Also, the English language was seen as a "language that would provide the Filipinos access to civilization…the life of reason and prudence" (p. 134). Since then, Gonzalez (2004) remarked that the English language had found a favourable climate and soil for transplantation in the new colony. Gonzalez' (2004) observation is clearly manifested by the fact that the English language became the second language which is widely spoken by Filipinos. It is also undeniable that the English language holds a prominent status in the country's media, law, business, and academe. However, the English language which was later learned by generations of Filipino learners from Filipino second-language learners trained by other Filipino language learners had developed its own linguistic features, currently known as Philippine English.

 In 1969, Llamzon's landmark study Standard Filipino English served as a starting point for investigating the different linguistic features of Philippine English. Llamzon (1969) claimed that "there is a standard variety of English which has arisen in the Philippines [and it] stands or falls short on the premise that there is a sizeable number of native and near-native speakers of English in the country" (p. 84). Although several Filipino researchers contradicted his claim at that time, Bautista (2000) commented that "30 years after Llamzon proclaimed the existence of a Standard Filipino English, such a claim now has a basis in reality" (p. 17). In lieu of this, Gustilo, Tocalo, and Calingasan (2019) even argued that Philippine English lexicon has been acquiring positive acceptance from young PE users who are also the teachers of the said language. Hence, it could be argued that amidst the criticisms that were thrown against the bold proposal of Llamzon in 1969, Philippine English came to be among the most pursued study in linguistics in the Philippines.

Intelligibility

Increase in the number of English users in the world and growing acceptance of indigenized varieties of English ('Englishes') have given rise to concerns that speakers of different English dialects will cease being intelligible to each other, resulting in failures in communication, especially in cross-cultural encounters (Matsuura, 2007). 'Intelligibility' is therefore a relevant concept; however, it is a contested construct which has proved difficult to define and measure. For instance, Catford (1950) defined intelligibility as the effectiveness of communication in an exchange. In this definition, the emphasis on understanding the words by the hearer was given premium value. For Catford (1950), an utterance is only intelligible if it is effective, that is, if the hearer's response is appropriate to the linguistic forms of the utterance. Another definition was forwarded by Munro and Derwing (1995) who conceptualized intelligibility in relation to comprehensibility and accentedness. They operationalize intelligibility as the extent to which the speaker's intended utterance is actually understood by a listener, whereas comprehensibility as the listener's perception of the degree of difficulty encountered when trying to understand an utterance, while accentedness is defined as the listener's perception of how different a second language (L2) accent is from the variety of English commonly spoken in the community. Following Munro and Derwing's definition, one could deduce that while intelligibility refers to the listeners' actual understanding, comprehensibility and accentedness relate to the listeners' perceptions. Consequently, the significance of the linguistic and sociocultural backgrounds from which hearers as well as speakers come from is highlighted this definition. Likewise, Smith (1992) and Smith and Nelson (1985; 2006) defined intelligibility as the listener's ability to recognize words and utterances of a speech. In this definition, there are two concepts related to intelligibility, namely comprehensibility and interpretability. These three concepts constitute the Smith paradigm, also known as the tripartite definition. In Smith paradigm, comprehensibility refers to the ability of the listener to understand the meaning of words in a given context, while interpretability refers to the ability of the listener to understand the intended meaning or the implicature behind the words of the speaker (Smith and Nelson, 1985). Furthermore, Smith (1992) remarked that although the three concepts are very much related with one another, being able to do well with one does not ensure that one will do well with others.

For this paper, the researcher followed the Smith paradigm, but focused on the concept of intelligibility alone. In a sense, it is the listener's ability to understand the word or recognize the utterance.

Review of Related Literature and Studies

There are numerous international studies conducted along the line of intelligibility, but studies which primarily focus on intelligibility of Philippine English are relatively few. Recent studies conducted along Philippine English intelligibility can be traced back to Dayag (2007), Dita (2013), Mendoza et al. (2014) and de Leon (2016) studies. Dayag's (2007) study on intelligibility of Philippine English to other speakers of English involved listeners from inner, outer, and expanding circles (Kachruvian circles) and mesolect Filipino speakers (following Llamzon's (1997) and Tayao's (2004) lectal approach). The study revealed that Philippine English spoken by mesolect speakers is more or less 80% intelligible to outer and inner circles, while it is only 50% intelligible to expanding circle listeners. Moreover, the study described the two critical phonological features of Philippine English. These phonological features include the substitution of /e/ or /θ/ by /t/, and of /ð/ by /d/, another is the dropping of final sounds in consonant clusters.

On the other hand, Dita (2013) investigates the intelligibility and comprehensibility of Philippine English to EFL students using the tripartite definition of intelligibility by Smith and Nelson (1985). Findings of the study indicated that the speaker with average language proficiency appears to be more intelligible than the speaker with high language proficiency due to the rate of speaking and the effort of the less proficient speaker. Also, Dita's (2013) findings along phonology contradicted the results presented in Smith's (1992) study, wherein according to Dita (2013), pronunciation does not affect intelligibility, but speed or pacing of speech could be critical in intelligibility.

In another study, Mendoza et al. (2014) explored the intelligibility of Philippine English to Korean students using Smith paradigm. Results show that English major Korean students find Philippine English 61% intelligible, while it is rated 40% intelligible by non-English major Korean students. In general, Philippine English is found to be 51% intelligible to Korean students. Moreover, 60% of the participants find the Filipino speaker of English difficult to understand, which is contrary to the speakers' high intelligibility rating.

Lastly, the comprehensive study conducted by de Leon (2016) on the intelligibility of Philippine English to selected ASEAN countries showed that Philippine English is almost 90% intelligible to the Filipinos and around 65% intelligible to Malaysians. However, for other ASEAN member countries included in the study like Vietnam, Indonesia, Laos, Thailand and Cambodia, the intelligibility rate of Philippine English is less than 50%. de Leon (2016) reported that the factors that strongly affect the low intelligibility rate to this set of listeners include the familiarity towards the Philippine English variety, the speakers' effort, choice of

words, rate and pronunciation since English in these countries is a foreign language.

Moreover, the study revealed that the listeners' perception of Philippine English did not affect intelligibility. Finally, it was found that the mesolectal speaker of Philippine English is more intelligible compared to the acrolectal speaker, and to the basilectal speaker.

As indicated by the studies above, although a handful of international and foreign studies were already conducted along intelligibility of different English varieties there is still an observed scarcity of intelligibility studies with respect to Philippine English which involves ESL teachers as speakers and children aged 10-11 years old as listeners. It can be observed that typical intelligibility studies made usually include young adult (e.g. university students) and adult (working class) as participants. Thus, given these narrowly explored areas of intelligibility, the researcher hoped that investigating these factors would generate new knowledge and would contribute to further shed light to existing literature. Hence, this paper dealt with the intelligibility of Philippine English to international students which specifically sought to answer the following questions: (1) How intelligible is the Philippine English used by experienced and novice ESL teachers to international students? (2) How intelligible PE is according to the listener's: a. English proficiency level; b. gender; and c. L1? and (3) What are the segmental features of PE that affect intelligibility?

Conceptual Framework

The framework employed in the study indicates the relationship between the notions of World Englishes, intelligibility following Smith paradigm (1985), and other concepts (speakers' lectal category represented by novice and experienced ESL teacher, listener's gender, L1 background, and English proficiency level, segmental features of PE) envisioned to bring about the expected output of this study. The input consists of World Englishes theory, Philippine English, and intelligibility of PE to international students as basis of conceptualization.

Intelligibility tests using cloze tests served as tools in gathering the data. The process covered the analysis of the intelligibility levels and its relationship to other variables such as speaker's factors and listeners' factors. The output includes the identification of intelligibility of PE to international students, in general and of intelligibility of PE when speakers' and listeners variables were investigated, in particular. Segmental features of PE that affect intelligibility are also identified.

Significance of the Study

The current study can contribute to English language teaching in general and to language research in particular. In Philippine context, since the country is experiencing rapid increase in overseas students coming to learn English or study in English-speaking universities, Filipino language teachers must be aware of the diversity of their listeners in the academic context. Sensitivity to the listeners' diverse language backgrounds, personal characteristics (age and gender), and language proficiency levels will allow ESL/EFL teachers to adjust their method of speaking, taking into consideration their speech rate and pronunciation. Likewise, in the advent of ASEAN integration and globalization, teaching English to countries in Outer and Expanding circles and even in Inner circle is inevitable, thus Filipinos being coined as the world's low cost English language teacher must take extra effort to consider their listeners' ability to understand Philippine English and should strive hard to use teaching strategies that could make their utterances more understandable to ensure quality language learning. The same applies to international students who must take equal responsibility on adjusting and accepting the linguistic features of Philippine English. This two-way and equal sharing of responsibilities can be the key to improve mutual intelligibility.

Lastly, the present study aimed to reaffirm what Bautista (2000) stated regarding the status of Philippine English which does not fall short of the norms of Standard American English, thus not a badly learned English. Embracing and recognizing Philippine English as a variety of English advocates World Englishes and diminish linguistic discrimination against non-native speakers of English.

Methodology

This section presents the methods and procedures used in the study. Research design, participants, data collection materials, procedure and analysis or treatment of data are discussed as methodology of the study.

Research Design

In this paper, cloze tests were used in the scope of both qualitative and quantitative approach to answer the research questions. The quantitative type of research design is utilized by the researcher in presenting the results gathered from the tests through tabulation and presentation of results in rates and percentages. Qualitative discussion was then made for to describe and interpret the quantitative data.

Participants

Following de Leon's (2016) study, this study also had two sets of participants, the speakers and the listeners. The speakers were pure Filipinos ESL teachers who received education in the Philippines and with different linguistic, academic, and teaching backgrounds. The listeners, on the other hand, have different language backgrounds and of different nationalities, but are attending an international school in Thailand.

Speakers

There were two speakers in this study, both are female ESL teachers who were born and raised in the Philippines. Also, they both had baccalaureate degrees from Philippine universities. Both are licensed teacher, but differ in years of teaching experience. The former has 7 years of teaching experience, while the latter has only 4 months of ESL teaching experience. The researcher purposively selected ESL teachers who had experience teaching English, for it is the aim of this paper to specifically identify the intelligibility of the Philippine English used by Filipino ESL teachers to international students.

The two speakers were classified using lectal approach, one is an acrolectal speaker, while the other, is a mesolectal speaker. Two types of tasks were conducted to verify the preconceived classification of the two speakers. The pronunciation task and stress task used in the study were adapted from de Leon (2016). The results gathered from these two tasks were used to identify their lectal classification based on Tayao's (2004) and Dayag's description of lectal speakers.

Listeners

The listeners chosen in this study were twenty-one (21) grade six pupils attending an international school in Thailand. The listeners came from different countries and with different language backgrounds. There were 5 listeners from England, 4 from Thailand, 4 from Russia, 2 from Korea, 2 from France, and 1 from China, Nepal, Canada and Switzerland. Their age ranges from 10 to 11 years old. Moreover, the listeners were also grouped according to their English proficiency levels, the basis of which is the result of their English primary checkpoint. Since the school follows the Cambridge Curriculum, at the end of each Key Stages 2 and 3, the students are examined in English, Mathematics and Science using the Cambridge Checkpoint Examinations. These exams are written and assessed externally and provide an international benchmark of the student's performance (https://headstartphuket.com/school/academic-results). Those students who got 6.0 – 5.0 were considered as having high English proficiency

level and those who earned 4.9 – 3.0 were classified under low English proficiency. Table 1 below shows the listeners' English primary checkpoint result. As seen in the table, there were 11 students who constitute the high proficiency group, while 10 students comprised the low proficiency group.

Table 1

Summary of the listeners' English proficiency level

Student	Total Raw	English Primary Checkpoint Average	Level
1	68	6.0	High
2	66	6.0	High
3	76	6.0	High
4	42	4.1	Low
5	71	6.0	High
6	41	4.0	Low
7	51	5.0	High
8	39	3.8	Low
9	47	4.6	Low
10	44	4.3	Low
11	56	5.5	High
12	55	5.4	High
13	45	4.4	Low
14	53	5.2	High
15	39	3.8	Low
16	63	6.0	High
17	35	3.4	Low
18	39	3.8	Low
19	38	3.7	Low
20	56	5.5	High
21	63	6.0	High

Materials

Two sets of tests were utilized in this study. There were two cloze tests (one for audio one – experienced/acrolect speaker and one for audio two – novel/mesolect speaker) given to

the listeners, while the two speakers were given two speaking tests – pronunciation task and the stress task. The speaking tests used in this study were adapted from de Leon's (2016) study. Thus, a total of four tests were employed in the current study.

Speaking Tasks

As mentioned, the two speaking tasks – pronunciation test and stress test were employed following de Leon's (2016) scripts. The two speaking tasks are shown in appendix A and B. The aim of conducting the speaking tasks is to identify the lectal category of the two speakers. As for the checking of the results of the two tasks, one point was given for correct pronunciation and stress, while zero point was given for every inaccurate pronunciation and stress.

Listening Scripts

The listening script was taken from http://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/skills/listening-skills-practice entitled Advice for Exams, composed of 29 sentences, a total of 259 words with 23 test words. The criteria set for the selection of the listening script follows the recommendations made by Dita (2013) wherein language used in classrooms is preferred and actual, realistic, authentic texts should be used. The listening text is suitable to the age range of the listeners for it is rated B1 (threshold or intermediate) by British Council following Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR). Lastly, listeners will be able to relate to the topic since they were preparing for their Cambridge Checkpoint Exam during the conduct of this study.

The acrolect speaker/experienced ESL teacher made the recording for 1 minute and 50 seconds, while the mesolect speaker/novice ESL teacher read the text for 1 minute and 52 seconds.

Cloze Tests

Two cloze tests were utilized following the study made by De Leon (2016), Dita (2013), Matsuura (2007), Smith (1992). The two cloze tests were made by deleting every 6th, 7th or 8th words in the text. A total of 23 words were removed from the passage.

Procedure

        The speaking tests (pronunciation and stress tests) for the speakers were conducted. This step enabled the researcher to confirm the initial perceived lectal categorization of the two speakers. The analysis of the data gathered through the speaking tests was then made following Tayao (2004, 2008) description on the pronunciation and word stress of different lectal varieties. Next, the two speakers who were then identified as acrolect and mesolect speaker were given 30 minutes to record the listening script in an enclosed room to avoid external noise. Also, the speakers were allowed to record the script for at least three times. Then from the three recordings, the researcher chose the best audio clip to be used for the intelligibility test. Third, after the materials for intelligibility test (cloze tests and audio files) were prepared the procedure for the listeners was initiated.

        The actual data gathering was not personally conducted by the researcher due to several factors such as geographic difference of the Philippines and Thailand, time and budget. Thus, a former student of the researcher who is currently employed in Headstart International School in Phuket, Thailand was asked to gather the data. Prior to the actual data gathering, the researcher ensured thorough background orientation about the study and elaborate discussions regarding the procedures to be made were established to her former student to avoid problems that could arise regarding the reliability and validity of the results. Before the intelligibility tests were given to the participants, the researcher secured a copy of the results of the students' English primary checkpoint. This was done to check whether the students have varying English proficiency levels. For the actual data gathering procedure, the students were given explicit instructions as to how to answer the cloze tests. They were informed about the objectives of the study, but the nature of the English variety and the nationality of the speakers were not disclosed. Subsequently, the students were asked to listen to audio one only once while completing the accompanied cloze test. After a day, they were then again asked to listen to another recording, this time the audio two. The same process was made both for audio one and audio two. After the two sets of tests were completed, the materials were scanned and emailed to the researcher.

Data Analysis

        The data gathered from the cloze tests were subjected to analysis. Correct words in the fill-in-the blank test were set as 100% accurate. Minimal discrepancy like fruits for fruit was not considered. However, capitalization was not taken as a basis for wrong answer. The intelligibility scoring employed in this study was patterned on the previous studies on

intelligibility. Thus, data analysis was made by counting the correct words in the cloze tests and assigning percentage for the correct words through computing the total number of correct transcriptions over the total number of test words.

The scores were tallied and divided according to Audio 1 (acrolect speaker) and Audio 2 (mesolect speaker), also the mean scores for each category were computed in order to answer research question 1. To answer research question 2, the scores generated from the cloze tests (Audio 1 and 2) in general without distinction of its lectal variety were again tallied and mean scores were determined according to gender, L1 and English proficiency level of the listeners. Finally, to answer research question number three, the researcher adapted Hardman's (2010) data analysis procedure for segmental error patterns.

The researcher initially identified the set of key words which the listeners misidentified in Audio 1 – acrolect speaker and in Audio 2 - mesolect speaker. The key words of which at least 45% of all listeners did not identify correctly in Audio 1 and 2 were analysed for their segmental features. The key words for each lectal category were sorted in decreasing order of error frequency. Then, transcription of the speakers' key words was compared to standard IPA American English and from these IPA transcriptions, phonemic error type was identified. Phonemic error type includes V for vowel, C for consonant and VC for both. In cases where segmental phoneme boundary had not been traversed, an asterisk was used. This only suggests that a prosodic issue or other speaker's factors may have led to the breakdown in intelligibility which was not covered in the present study.

Results and Discussion

Intelligibility of Philippine English to International Students

Table 2

Intelligibility test scores of Philippine English according to lectal variety

Listener	Correct Answer	%	Acrolect Mean	Correct Answer	%	Mesolect Mean
1	18	78.3		15	65.2	
2	15	65.2		21	91.3	
3	19	82.6		15	65.2	
4	12	52.2		15	65.2	
5	20	86.9		21	91.3	

6	13	56.5		12	52.2	
7	18	78.3		16	69.6	
8	13	56.5		18	78.3	
9	5	21.7		5	21.7	
10	7	30.4		6	26.1	
11	17	73.9	**63.35%**	17	73.9	**83.85%**
12	17	73.9		16	69.6	
13	17	73.9		11	47.8	
14	20	86.9		21	91.3	
15	7	30.4		1	4.3	
16	16	69.6		12	52.2	
17	11	47.8		14	60.9	
18	11	47.8		16	69.6	
19	14	60.9		18	78.3	
20	18	78.3		19	82.6	
21	18	78.3		18	78.3	

Table 2 shows the mesolect speaker has 83.85% intelligibility mean, whereas the acrolect speaker has only 63.35% mean. This indicates that the mesolect speaker represented by the novice ESL teacher is more intelligible than the acrolect speaker as represented by the experienced ESL teacher. Also, it should be noted that there is a significant difference between the two speakers, that is, 20.5% difference.

The result of the study is consistent with de Leon's (2016) findings where mesolectal speaker was found to be the most intelligible among the three types of lectal speakers. Likewise, it supports Dita's (2013) report that the less proficient speaker has higher intelligibility as compared to the more proficient speaker.　One reason for this is the use of syllable-time rhythm by the mesolect speaker as opposed to acrolectal speaker who utilized stress-time rhythm. Stress-time rhythm is spoken in a faster rate than the syllable-time rhythm. In the study made by Daniloff and Hamarbarg (1973), they affirmed the importance of reducing the rate of speech of the speakers to enable them to articulate sounds more clearly. Likewise, according to Anderson Hsieh and Koehler (1988) the increase in speaking rate is generally associated with a decrease in comprehension and their investigations to non-native speech revealed the same results. On the same note, Munro and Derwing's (1995) research showed that a slower speech rate could act as a compensatory strategy when normal speech met with

reduced comprehensibility.

However, result of this study somehow contradicts that of Bent and Bradlow's (2001) report that for non-native listeners, the intelligibility of non-native speakers, particularly proficient ones, can surpass intelligibility of native speakers. This claim is somewhat contrary to the results presented above, wherein the more an acrolect speaker sounds like the native Engish speaker the lower is its intelligibility rating. The same applies to the results of Derwing and Munro's (1997) study which showed that the speaker's proficiency level did not appear to affect the quasi-independent relationships among intelligibility, perceived comprehensibility, and accentedness.

Intelligibility of Philippine English according to Listeners' English Proficiency

Table 3

Intelligibility of Philippine English according to Listeners' English Proficiency

Proficiency Level	Correct Utter	Mean
High	385	76.1%
Low	226	49.1%

As indicated in the table, the High Proficiency group with 76.1% mean scored higher than the Low Proficiency group with 49.1% mean. There is a 27% marked mean difference between the two proficiency groups. Thus, it only shows that proficiency level is indeed a sizeable component that could affect intelligibility. This finding supports Smith's (1992) study where it was found that there is higher intelligibility if proficiency is high and vice versa. Furthermore, Lee (2008) study also revealed that in terms of listening proficiency, students with higher listening proficiency used implicit listening strategies more frequently than those with low listening proficiency. Also, results of this study coincide with Dita's (2013) findings that one of the factors that could impede or enhance the intelligibility of a particular variety of English is English proficiency. In contrast, findings of this study contradict that of De Leon's (2016) study which showed that language proficiency is not a predicting factor of intelligibility. In her study it was revealed that although the listeners from countries whose English is a foreign language have a superior perceived proficiency level, these listeners rated Philippine English to be not highly intelligible.

Intelligibility of Philippine English according to Listeners' Gender

Table 4

Intelligibility of Philippine English according to Listeners' Gender

Male Listener	%	Male Mean	Female Listener	%	Female Mean
1	89.1		1	71.7	
2	54.3		2	78.3	
3	28.3		3	73.9	
4	73.9		4	58.7	
5	71.7	**62.4%**	5	73.9	**64.4%**
6	60.9		6	67.4	
7	89.1		7	21.7	
8	17.4		8	54.3	
9	60.9		9	58.7	
10	78.3		10	69.7	
			11	80.4	

Table 4 reveals the percentage rates and mean difference between male listeners and female listeners. With respect to intelligibility of Philippine English as regards to the 10 male participants, the overall intelligibility mean is 62.4%, whereas for the 11 female listeners, the intelligibility mean of PE is 64.4%. It was further revealed that there is a minimal mean difference of 2% between male and female intelligibility mean scores. Although the difference is minimal, it is still worth noting that female listeners had higher intelligibility scores as compared to male listeners.

Finding of this study can be related to the study conducted by Lee (2008) on listening strategies, listening proficiency and gender. In this study, Lee (2008) reported that there was no significant difference between the male and female students in the use of behavioural and implicit listening strategies. This finding goes against other different studies conducted along these lines where females were found to use more strategies than males. In contrary, these findings refute that of Boyle's (1987) study on sex differences in listening vocabulary, where it was found that although females were superior in general language proficiency, males had

higher mean scores in two tests of listening vocabulary.

Intelligibility of Philippine English according to Listeners' L1

Table 5

Intelligibility of Philippine English according to Listeners' L1

L1	Proficiency Level	Correct Answer	%	Mean	Rank
British					
1	High	36	78.3		
2	Low	10	21.7		
3	Low	13	28.3	41.3%	9
4	Low	28	60.9		
5	Low	8	17.4		
Thai					
1	Low	25	54.3		
2	High	33	71.7	69%	5
3	High	41	89.1		
4	High	28	60.9		
Russian					
1	High	34	73.9		
2	Low	27	58.7	75%	2
3	High	41	89.1		
4	High	36	78.3		
Korean					
1	High	34	73.9	64.1%	7
2	Low	25	54.3		
French					
1	High	33	71.7	70.6%	4
2	Low	32	69.6		
Canadian					
1	Low	27	58.7	58.7%	8

Chinese					
1	High	34	73.9	73.9%	3
Nepalese					
1	Low	31	67.4	67.4%	6
Swiss					
1	High	37	80.4	80.4%	1

As observed from Table 5, the intelligibility rating of Philippine English varies according to the listeners' L1 background. The intelligibility mean scores for each group were ranked: first, Swiss with 80.4%; second, Russian with 75%; third, Chinese with 73.9%; fourth, French with 70.6%; fifth, Thai with 69%; sixth, Nepalese with 67.4%; seventh, Korean with 64.1%; eighth, Canadian with 58.7%; and ninth, British with only 41.3%. The data show that PE is more intelligible to countries belonging in the Expanding Circle like Switzerland, Russia, China, France, Thailand, Nepal and Korea than to native English speaker countries or Inner circle countries like Canada and Great Britain.

However, through further analysis of results when English language proficiency of the listeners was considered, it was found out that although listeners from the Inner Circle (British and Canadian) were expected to have higher intelligibility scores since English is their native language, opposite results were recorded. One reason for this is the low English proficiency level of the Canadian and British listeners. In the case of the British listeners, four of them have low proficiency level and only one has a high proficiency level. Meanwhile, the sole Canadian listener has been classified under the low language proficiency group which is consistent with the low intelligibility result. In contrast, the Swiss student who has high proficiency level was found to also have high intelligibility score. The same case applies with the Russian listeners with three students having high proficiency level, with only one student having low proficiency level.

Thus, it can be deduced from the above findings that different factors may contribute to the intelligibility of Philippine English but first language background does not significantly correlate to intelligibility scores, rather vocabulary and proficiency levels of the listeners can be attributed to intelligibility.

Table 6

Segmental features of Philippine English: Acrolect speaker

Key Word	Error Count %	Error Type	Transcription	IPA Transcription
hour	95%	v	**ar**	auər
questions	86%	c	kwɛstʃə**ns**	kwɛstʃənz
stretch	81%	*	strɛtʃ	strɛtʃ
papers	71%	v,c	p**ei**pər**s**	pepərz
around	71%	v	**a**rawnd	ərawnd
can	48%	v	k**a**n	kæn
studying	48%	v	st**U**diiŋ	stədiiŋ

The key words which at least 45% of all listeners did not identify correctly were sorted in decreasing order of error frequency. The most frequently misidentified by the listeners for the acrolect speaker or experienced ESL teacher is first, the word hour with 95% error count; second, questions with 86% error count; third, stretch with 81%; fourth, papers and around both with 71% error count; sixth, the words can and studying with 48% error count. Notice that there were more vowel errors than consonant errors. There were 5 occurrences of vowel errors, while there were only 2 cases for consonant errors. Also, the word stretch which was accurately produced by the acrolect speaker was interestingly missed by the listeners. Factors like

suprasegmental features (stress) and familiarity of the listener to the word can be seen as the source of breakdown in intelligibility of this particular word. On the other hand, the two cases for consonant errors are observed in the keywords with sibilant /z/ which were coalesced with /s/ in word-final position like the /z/ in papers and questions. This finding reaffirms Tayao's (2008) claim that all the three groups, acrolect, mesolect, and basilect group, do not use /z/ in the plural –s or –es morpheme.

In terms of vowel sounds, it was found that vowel sounds are the most problematic, as well as the most frequent error of the acrolect speaker. Keywords with the vowels /e/, /ə/, and /æ/ were found to be substituted with vowel sounds /ei/ for /e/ in papers, /a/ for /ə/ in around, /a/ for /æ/ in the word can, and /ʊ/ for /ə/ in studying. Again, these findings coincide with the results found by Tayao (2008) wherein for acrolectal group, although it closely approximates the vowel phoneme of General American English, there seem to be difficulty producing the phoneme /æ/ which is pronounced as /æ/, /ɛ/ or /a/. Tayao (2008) further explained that pronunciation of this phoneme somewhat depends on the attention paid by the speaker. Similarly, according to Gonzalez in Bautista's and Bolton's (2008) book on Philippine English: Linguistic and Literary Perspectives, the linguistic features of Philippine English in terms of segmental phonemes are characterized by the vowel inventory being reduced, with the tendency to substitute /a/ for /ə/ and there is an absence of the voiced /z/, which is rendered as /s/, and the absence of /š/ and /ž/.

Moreover, another factor that can contribute to the segmental features of Philippine English can be the similarity and the dissimilarity of L1 and L2 vowel inventory. In this case, since L2 vowels like /æ/ and /ə/ have no phonetic counterparts or allophones in Philippine L1, it is more difficult to produce them correctly. The Philippine vowel systems has only five vowels /a, e, i, o, ʊ/, while there are 12 monophthongs in the English language. Another observed segmental feature in the acrolect utterance is a case of substitution for diphthong /au/ of monophthong /a/ as in the word hour. It appears that there was confusion as to the pronunciation of the word hour leading to the production of the sounds /ar/ as in the word are. This particular segmental feature of Philippine English can be traced to the fact that Filipinos lack the nasal twang, thus producing some English sounds in a way distinct from the American or British pronunciation (Regala, 2016). As Llamzon (1997) stated that although "Filipinos are willing to copy GAE, they retain something of their identity—in their lack of nasal twang, in the careful articulation of individual syllables, and in their refusal to use the 'reduced signals' of the informal conversational style of GAE" (p. 43).

233

Table 7

Segmental features of Philippine English: Mesolect speaker

Key Word	Error Count %	Error Type	Transcription	IPA Transcription
questions	76%	v,c	kwɛstʃ**ions**	kwɛstʃənz
papers	76%	v,c	p**ei**p**ɛr**s	pepərz
fruit	67%	v	fr**u**t	frut
repetition	62%	v	rɛp**iti**ʃən	rɛpətɪʃən
studying	57%	v	st**a**diɪŋ	stədiɪŋ
hour	57%	v	**ar**	auər
stretch	57%	*	strɛtʃ	strɛtʃ

Table 7 reveals similar key words found in the acrolect speaker like questions, papers, studying, hour and stretch, but these key words differ in error count percentage. The table shows 6 cases of vowel sound deviation from American English sound system and 2 occurrences of consonant sound deviation. In the case of consonant sounds, key words with sibilant /z/ which were coalesced with /s/ in word-final position like the /z/ in "papers" and "questions" were reported to have high error ratings and were frequently mistranscribed by 76%.

In contrast, key words with the monophthong vowels /ə/, /I/, /u/ and /e/ were found to be unintelligible for listeners of mesolect speaker. The segmental features of vowel sound by the mesolect speaker involve substitution for /ə/ of /i/ like in "repetition" with 62% error count

and /ə/ of /a/ in the key word "studying" with 57% error count percentage and monophthong /ə/ of diphthong /io/ like in "questions". Likewise, substitution for short /I/ of long /i/ in the word "repetition" can also be observed, while the short /U/ for the key word "fruit" is pronounced with long /u/ with 67% of the listeners mistranscribed the word and lastly, the vowel sound /e/ is substituted with diphthong sound /ei/ in "papers." It is also noticeable that the word stretch does not have any segmental deviations but was found to be unintelligible by the listeners, such as the case for the acrolect speaker. Like the previous discussion in the acrolect speaker, these findings support Tayao (2008) claims that with the mesolectal group, there is only one high front vowel /i/ is used for both /I/ and /i/. This also applies to high back tense vowel /u/ which is used for /u/ and /U/. Thus, the vowels in the mesolectal group only include the /i/, /e/, /ɛ/, /a/, /o/, /u/ and the stressed schwa /ʌ/.

Conclusion

First, the novice ESL teacher (mesolect) is more intelligible than the experienced ESL teacher (acrolect). One reason for this is the use of syllable-time rhythm by the mesolect speaker as opposed to acrolectal speaker who follows stress-time rhythm. Another factor is the difference in the speech rate difference between the two groups. The acrolect speaker speaks faster than the mesolect speaker. Second, high language proficiency level is a sizeable component that could affect Philippine intelligibility to young international students. This finding suggests that the listeners' high language proficiency level enables them to utilize different listening strategies like the use of context, collocations and wider vocabulary that lead to their higher intelligibility results. As Lee (2008) emphasized, students with higher listening proficiency used implicit listening strategies more frequently than those with low listening proficiency. Next, there is only a minimal difference in the intelligibility of Philippine English between male and female. Nonetheless, it found that Philippine English is more intelligible to female listeners than to male listeners. Therefore, it suggests that the listener's gender does not have significant effect to the intelligibility of Philippine English. Meanwhile, in terms of listener's L1 background, it was found that Philippine English is more intelligible to EFL speakers (Switzerland, Russia, China, France, Thailand, Nepal and Korea) who are part of the expanding circle than to native speakers of English (Canada and Great Britain). These findings further revealed that first language background does not significantly correlate to intelligibility scores, rather vocabulary and proficiency levels of the listeners can be attributed to intelligibility. Another factor to consider is the familiarity of the listeners to the target variety of English, which is Philippine English. Philippine English was highly influenced by the

American English, while the listeners are exposed to British English due to the curriculum being followed by the school. Moreover, listeners are not exposed with Philippine English for they do not have direct contact with Filipinos using the variety. Third, the segmental features of Philippine English that affect intelligibility are found in more vowel sound deviations than in consonant sounds. One factor to consider as to the result of this study can be the similarity and the dissimilarity of L1 and L2 vowel inventory which according to Best (1995) and Flegeetal (1997), the intelligibility of L2 vowels (English) seems to be affected by similarity between L1 and L2 vowel inventory. In this case, since L2 vowels like /æ/ and /ə/ have no phonetic counterparts or allophones in Philippine L1, it is more difficult to produce them correctly. The Philippine vowel systems has only five vowels /a, e, i, o, ʊ/, while there are 12 monophthongs in the English language. Another reason for these features is what Regala (2016) pointed out that since Filipinos lack the nasal twang; they produce some English sounds in a way distinct from the American or British pronunciation.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are forwarded:

1. More speakers, both male and female speakers and from three lectal groups should be considered for future study.

2. Research must be done which will involve set of listeners of equal representation and will include listeners from countries in the inner, outer, and expanding circles to gain conclusive results.

3. Further study is also needed to address the role of other speaker's and listener's factors on Philippine English intelligibility.

4. Research on the other two intelligibility concepts – comprehensibility and interpretability have to be done among young listeners.

Pedagogical Implications

Pre-service language teachers, ESL teachers and/or Philippine English speakers must be trained in vowel production to help improve their Philippine English intelligibility among international students. Tonio and Ella (2019) even argued that understanding the interrelated concepts of language learning and concept learning will enable language teachers, in general and pre-service teachers, in particular to construct effective learning goals for language learning and for concept learning. Likewise, syllable-timed rhythm and slower speech rate must

be employed by speakers of Philippine English when speaking to young international students. Also, acrolect ESL teachers should modify and adapt their speech to sound more of a mesolect speaker than of an acrolect speaker when speaking to young international listeners, while language teachers should include strategy training through listening tasks to hone their students' listening skills. Lastly, English language teachers in the country and in abroad and even ESL online tutors must aim to increase the language proficiency level of their students, for higher proficiency levels of the students can lead to higher intelligibility.

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The Use and Overuse of Transitional Conjuncts in Written Asian Englishes

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Abstract

This paper surveys the use of connective adverbials or conjuncts in students' essays and selected professional articles. Drawing on the corpora of the International Corpus of English (ICE) particularly from the components of ICE-PHI, ICE-SIN, ICE-HK, and ICE IND, the study focused on the use and overuse of the transitional conjuncts *now, eventually, originally, and subsequently* in written texts. Specifically, it aimed at answering the following questions: What transitional conjuncts are commonly used? In what context do transitional conjuncts tend to be overused? The data was collected from the target transitional conjuncts chosen from students' essays (Students' Untimed Essays and Students' Examination Essays) and selected professional articles (Humanities Learned Articles and Social Sciences Learned Articles). The results revealed that *now* (discoursal, informal) is the most frequently used conjunct among all other types found in written texts with 2,042 occurrences, followed by eventually (temporal-transitional) with 123 occurrences, and *meanwhile (*temporal-transitional) with 114 occurrences.

Introduction

Studies related to World Englishes (henceforth *WE*) have evolved for a number of decades now despite the fact that the plural form of 'Englishes', appears to be unacceptable especially among non-linguists. Bolton (2004) suggests three conceivable explanations for the term *World Englishes*. First, it functions as a general label encompassing all varieties of English globally and/or the varied methods used to explain and probe them. Second, it is used to distinguish and characterize the supposed Englishes (as described in Kachru's outer circle) in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean. Lastly, "it is used to represent the pluricentric approach to the study of English associated with Kachru and his collaborators, and frequently referred to as the *Kachruvian* approach" (p. 367).

While many studies related to WE focus on varieties of English use among the inner and outer circles in different social interactions, the present study hopes to contribute to existing studies focusing on academic writing. It specifically focused on transitional devices, i.e. transitional conjuncts, used in writing.

According to Naibaho (2018), the ability to write is especially crucial not only for EFL learners but also to all learners whose first language is not English. Similarly, Nazri, Yunus, and Shukor (2018) contend that because writing necessitate an exceptionally complex skill, it can pose difficulties among ESL writers. They argue that, "writing can possibly be a challenging task as the ideas should be integrated well with all language elements in order to produce a piece of good writing. To become a good writer…one needs to be able to sequence the ideas logically and produce a coherent text by using appropriate cohesive devices such as logical connectors and sequence markers (p.65)."

Undeniably, one of the main difficulties of composing a coherent text or an essay emanates from learners' inability to use cohesive devices for sentence organization. Cohesion in a written genre is considered an essential feature since the very purpose of a written text is to communicate ideas of writers to the intended audience or readers. As may be generally established among writers, the lack of cohesion and coherence in writing may not be only triggered by disorganized thoughts and ideas but similarly by the misuse of transition devices such as connectives or linking words. These words are indispensable in connecting sentences because they are fundamental to sense-making units (paragraphs) in terms of getting the reader's attention in the introductory paragraph, developing and supporting their ideas in the

main text, and reaffirming or restating the main idea in the concluding paragraph. When appropriately used, transition words will let an unrestricted reading process – a natural movement back or forward throughout paragraphs of the text. Additionally, cohesiveness of a text, as first initiated by Halliday and Hassan (1976), can be accomplished through the use of 'logical connectors' or in Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) terminology 'conjunct'. Quirk, et al.'s (1985) categorized adverbials into adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts. They further subdivided the conjuncts as listing, summative, appositional, resultive, inferential, contrastive and transitional. The importance of this type of connectors has also been highlighted in Liu's (2008) study where he emphasizes that this type of connector plays an imperative role in discourse cohesion. Realizing this situation, the researcher was encouraged to conduct a study on this topic having in mind that the outcome will be beneficial for second language learners and probably emerging writers in understanding the use of conjuncts especially in their writing.

The researcher purposely attempted to describe and analyze the use and overuse of the transitional conjuncts *now, eventually, originally, and subsequently* particularly found in students' untimed essays, students' examination essays, Humanities learned articles, and Social Science learned articles. They were analyzed both syntactically and semantically. In this study, the corpus used is taken from the larger data bank of the four Asian components of the International Corpus of English (ICE) namely ICE-PHIL, ICE-SIN, ICE-HK, and ICE-IND.

Review of Literature

A number of existing studies have focused on logical connectors or conjuncts as what Quirk et. al. (1985) call them. Particularly, problems relating to overuse and underuse of these conjuncts have been found in different genres of writing. For instance, Narita, Sato & Sugiura (2017) in their on *Connector Usage in the English Essay Writing of Japanese EFL Learners* examined the logical connectors in advanced Japanese university students' essay writing and compare them with the use in comparable types of native English writing. The results showed that Japanese EFL learners significantly overuse these logical connectors in sentence-initial position and that they significantly overuse such connectors as 'for example,' 'of course,' and 'first,' whereas they significantly underuse connectors like 'then,' 'yet,' and 'instead.' The findings also showed that there exist certain similarities and differences among the four learner groups in the use of logical connectors.

In another study, Ucar & Yukselir (2017) in their paper *A Corpus-Based Study on the Use*

of the Logical Connector 'Thus' in the Academic Writing of Turkish EFL Learners explored on how recurrently Turkish advanced learners of English use the logical connector 'thus' in their academic prose, and further examined whether it was overused, underused or misused semantically in comparison to English native speakers. They found that the Turkish learners of English exhibited underuse the connector 'thus' in their academic prose paralleled to native speakers. Also, they did not demonstrate misuse in the use of the connector 'thus'. Nevertheless, non-native learners of English are inclined to use this connector in a *resultative* role, i.e. cause-effect relation, more often while native speakers used it in *appositional* and *summative* roles more together with its *resultative* role. The study also revealed that the most frequent occurrences of 'thus' have been in academic genre.

Interestingly, in the study of Ojetunde and Okanlawon (2011) *The Usage of English Conjuncts by Students in Selected Tertiary Institutions in Southwestern Nigeria,* they surveyed the use of conjuncts by college students in chosen tertiary institutions in Southwestern Nigeria, and examined the problems related to the use of conjuncts among the selected respondents determining their level of mastery of conjuncts and the effect of this on their acquisition of English. The findings revealed that out of the nine semantic classes of conjuncts examined in this study, enumerative conjuncts 855 (41.93%) were mostly used by the students in their essay writing out of 2039 instances of conjuncts used by the students followed by appositive conjuncts 477 (23.39%), resultative conjuncts 236 (11.57%), summative conjuncts 210 (10.30%), contrastive conjuncts 160 (7.85%), inferential conjuncts 52 (2.55%), transitional conjuncts 49 (2.40%) while replacive and reformatory conjuncts were not used at all. Understandably, the use of conjuncts largely was limited to certain semantic classes, which the students were acquainted with. This accounted for a unvaried use of the conjuncts. Despite the high frequency and correct usage of the common conjuncts, there were redundant, monotonous and random usage of conjuncts, inappropriate choice of conjuncts and semantic errors which were least expected of advanced learners of English as the ones used in this study. It concluded that the students had poor mastery of conjuncts in terms of the monotony shown in their usage of conjuncts and the errors they committed.

On the other hand, Povolná (2016) in her study *A cross cultural analysis of conjuncts as indicators of the interaction and negotiation of meaning in research articles* investigated the cross-cultural difference in usage of essential text-organizing methods as it is thought that conjuncts could help improve the interaction and negotiation of meaning between the author and potential readers of academic texts. The findings revealed that Czech and Slovak writers endeavor to adopt the academic style conventions typical of the dominant Anglophone

discourse community, such as linear organization of text through clear division into paragraphs and sections and application of overt guiding signals on form and content that, quite naturally, contain a suitable use of text-organizing means, comprising conjuncts. The adoption of Anglophone style conventions by non-native speakers of English can be caused not only by instructions provided in academic writing style manuals (Bennett, 2009) and university courses, but also by the fact that Slavonic writers attempt to adopt and use "model" academic English and therefore seem to suppress intentionally any culture-specific aspects when writing scholarly texts in English.

Additionally, the study of Chen (2014) entitled *The Comparison of Intermediate and Advanced Chinese Learner's Use of English Adverbials Connectors in Academic Writing,* revealed that the Chinese learners are less diversified in the use of adverbial connectors, i.e. they tend to rely on a common set of connectors in general. The tendency to overuse adverbial connectors is stronger among the intermediate CGU Chinese learners who nevertheless exhibit a more native-like pattern of usage in the individual connectors. But unexpectedly the advanced NTNU Chinese learners adopt a more informal style in their English academic writing.

In a similar study, Park (2013) in her article "How Korean EFL Students Use Conjunctive Adverbials in Argumentative Writing" investigated Korean university EFL students' use of conjunctive adverbials (CAs) in argumentative writing. The findings revealed that the nonnative writers in all three groups greatly overused CAs. Examination of their overuse patterns according to different taxonomic types indicated that sequential and additive types were mostly overused, as much as six times more than those by the native writers. In addition, several characteristics of the nonnative writers' CA usage are discussed, including their heavy dependence on sentence-initial positioning, and both form-related and usage-related misuses of CAs, especially among the lowest-level learners.

Similarly, Qing & Jiansheng (2010) reported that Chinese undergraduates overuse additional statement and progressive relations at the expense of listing, summary and opposite relations. Chinese students' logical-semantic use *of* and *also* diverged from that of NESs. Similarly, Ying (2009) compared the use of contrastive LCs in expository essays by NESs, Chinese, and Japanese students, found that Japanese and Chinese students recurrently used *but* as a substitute for *however*. Furthermore, this substitution frequently occurred in the initial position.

Also, Jie (2008) piloted a corpus- based study on logical connectors use by non-English-major Chinese students, which revealed that these students tend to overuse and underuse certain relations compared with native speakers linked to mother tongue transfer, learners' lack of

stylistic awareness and the deficiency in the width and depth of lexical knowledge.

The current study on the *use and overuse of transitional conjuncts* somehow is similar to the study of Chen (2006) particularly in terms of participants. It employed two types of students' essays and two articles written by professional writers, while Chen studied the use of linking adverbials in Taiwanese MA students' academic writing and that in professional writers' writing. It was found that the MA student writers used more linking adverbials than the professional writers.

Furthermore, Yaochen (2006) analyzed adverbial LC in 200 argumentative essays of sophomore and junior Chinese students compared to those of Canadian NESs as a reference corpus. The results showed Chinese students' overuse of resultative and listing adverbial LCs for linking purposes, which according to the researcher reflected stylistic uncertainty about adverbial LC use.

Likewise, Bolton, K., Nelson, G., & Hung, J. (2002) compared the use of linking adverbials in Hong Kong EFL students' and native British students' writing to that in a control corpus of published academic writing. The data were extracted from the International Corpus of English (ICE). They found that both the Hong Kong EFL students and the British native students used linking adverbials negligibly in their writing. Both groups of students overused certain adverbials. The Hong Kong students were inclined to overuse the conjuncts *so, and, also, thus* and *but* while the in British counterpart, students overused *however, so, therefore, thus and furthermore*.

Correspondingly, in the study of Meisuo (2000) on cohesive features in 107 expository essays written by Chinese undergraduates revealed that Chinese students overuse additives and sequentials and they significantly misuse adversatives such as but, however, and on the other hand. The researcher attributed LC overuse in sentence-initial position (e.g., moreover, however, and therefore) to first language transfer.

Altenberg and Tapper (1998) examined the use of adverbial connectors by advanced Swedish EFL learners' written English, comparing it with similar types of native Swedish and English writing. The general results revealed that Swedish learners used fewer connectors in their essays than the native English students. According to the researchers, their finding supports the impression of Swedish learners' tendency to underuse connectors in written English. Another finding was that of a variation in connectors used per essay, signifying that connector use is closely associated to individual writer's style and compositional technique rather than mere EFL proficiency.

Finally, Hamed (2014) in her study, *Conjunctions in Argumentative Writing of Libyan*

Tertiary Students examined the use of conjunctions in argumentative essays written by English as a Foreign Language fourth-year undergraduate Libyan students specializing in English at Omar Al-Mukhtar University in Libya. She found that the Libyan EFL students used conjunctions improperly, and that they had difficulties in using adversative conjunctions followed by additives and causals conjuncts. Specifically, the adversative *on the other hand* was the most problematic conjunct for the student respondents, followed by *but* and *in fact*. With the use of additive conjunctions, *moreover* was the most difficult, followed by the conjuncts *and* and *furthermore*. Moreover, among the causals, the conjunct *so* was the most challenging, followed by *because*. The findings of this study have validated results from previous studies that EFL learners have difficulty in using conjunct in their writing. The difficulties encountered by participants in employing the conjuncts can be attributed to three reasons: first language (Arabic) negative transfer; second, overgeneralization in the second language (English); and third the presentation of conjuncts in lists in ESL/EFL textbooks without showing the subtle differences between them in terms of semantic functions.

Research Gap

Noticeably, most of the conjuncts investigated in the different studies above fall under the categories of listing, summative, appositional, resultive, inferential and contrastive conjuncts, following Quirk, et.al.'s (1985) classification. Not one study seems to focus on transitional conjuncts, which are supposed to be considerably important in terms of cohesion and coherence in writing well-organized articles and/or essays. Hence, the significance of the present study. Quirk et al. (1985) explain that the main functions of transitional conjuncts are to interrupt a present topic and start another one in the next sentence, providing smooth transition of ideas from sentence to sentence and paragraph to paragraph. Ting (2003) asserts that conjunctions are important elements for creating organic text connectivity; their presence hence should create unity and contribute to the quality of the text. Some examples of transitional conjuncts include the following: *incidentally, now, by the way., meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile, eventually ,and subsequently.*

All in all, the existing literature offers little account of transitional conjuncts.

This study, therefore, attempted to set a basis to fill the gap by comparing occurrences on the *use and overuse* of the transitional conjuncts *now, eventually, originally, and subsequently* by analyzing texts coming from students and those coming from the professional writers in Asia (Philippines, Singapore, Hong Kong, and India) through the ICE-Asia corpora.

Research Questions

The study aimed at presenting a descriptive analysis of the transitional conjuncts found in students' essays and learned articles using the ICE-ASIA corpora. Specifically, it sought to answer the following questions:

1. What transitional conjuncts are commonly used?
2. In what context do transitional conjuncts tend to be overused?

Theoretical Framework

Different terms to 'adverbial connectors' have been used in previous studies. Researchers brand and classify these connectors differently. Adverbial connectors, in different ways, are referred to as 'connectives' (Crewe 1990; Pander and Sanders 2006), 'conjunctive adverbials' (Chen 2006) or 'conjuncts' (Quirk et al. 1985). Some grammarians also use the term 'sentence adverbials' in the case of 'conjuncts' since they can concern a sentence as a whole and relate one sentence to another (Quirk et al. 1985: 632). In this study, the term conjunct (transitional) or 'adverbial connector' is used throughout.

Conjuncts or adverbial connectors conjoin linguistic units, such as sentences, paragraphs and even larger parts of a text (Quirk et al. 1985). They are either one word items (e.g. *however, therefore)* or fixed word combinations (e.g. *on the other hand).*

In this study, the classification of adverbial connectors is based on Quirk et al. (1985), while the syntactic realization of conjuncts is based on Biber et al. (1999).

Quirk et al.'s (1985) Classification of Adverbial Connectors is divided into the following seven semantic roles:

❖ Listing connectors (e.g. *firstly, secondly)*
❖ Summative connectors (e.g. *(all) in all, in conclusion)*
❖ Appositive connectors (e.g. *for example, that is)*
❖ Resultive connectors (e.g. *hence, in consequence)*
❖ Inferential connectors (e.g. *in that case, otherwise)*
❖ Contrastive connectors (e.g. *however, on the other hand)*
❖ Transitional connectors (e.g. *originally, eventually)*

Listing connectors ascribe numerical labels to the items listed (e.g. first, second, third). Furthermore, they specify relative importance and create integral structure to a text. They can also hint that an item has a similar force to a prior one (e.g. equally, similarly) or, instead, assess an item as adding greater weight to a preceding one (e.g. above all) (Quirk et al. 1985:

634–637).

Next, summative connectors precede an item that is to be viewed in relation to particular items that have gone before. The same pertains also to appositive conjuncts, but while summative conjuncts introduce an item that comprises the preceding one (e.g. all in all), the appositive conjuncts rather express the content of the preceding item/s (e.g. for instance) (Quirk et al. 1985: 637).

While, resultive connectors indicate a conclusion, summary, a result, etc. (e.g. as a result, in conclusion).

Comparably, inferential conjuncts signpost a conclusion that is founded on logic and supposition (e.g. *in other words*) (Quirk et al. 1985).

Then, contrastive connectors "present either contrastive words or contrastive matter in relation to what has preceded" (Quirk et al. 1985: 638) (e.g. *on the other hand, in contrast, however*).

Eventually, transitional connectors are used to "shift attention to another topic to a temporally related event" (Quirk et al. 1985: 639). *By the way* and i*n the eventually* are examples of this type of connectors.

On the other hand, Biber, et al.'s (1999) Syntactic Realizations of Conjuncts are illustrated below.

- ❖ Single adverbs: now, however, nevertheless, so, though and therefore.
- ❖ Adverb phrases: even so, first and foremost and more precisely.
- ❖ Prepositional phrases: by the way, in conclusion, and on the other hand.
- ❖ Finite clauses: that is and that is to say
- ❖ Non-finite clauses: added to that and to conclude

Methodology

The researcher was initially interested only in analyzing the use and overuse of transitional conjuncts in student essays. However, the need to somehow compare the occurrences to much-established written texts prompted the researcher to analyze articles written by supposedly more experienced writers as compared to the essays written by students. Since there are only two (2) categories of student essays (Students' Untimed Essays and Students' Examination Essays) available in the ICE text types, 2 articles (Humanities Learned Articles and Social Sciences Learned Articles) coming from those written by more experienced writers were selected. Both sources of data (students' essays and the selected articles) have the same number of texts drawn from the ICE corpora – Students' Untimed Essays (W1A-001 -

W1A-010); Students' Examination Essays (W1A-011 - W1A-020); Humanities Learned Articles (W2A-001 to W2A-010); and Social Sciences Learned Articles (W2A-011 to W2A-020).

Humanities learned articles and Social Science articles, in this study, were purposely selected among other writing genres found in the ICE-Asia corpora to be used as the basis of comparison when describing occurrences of transitional conjuncts in students' essays. First, the basis for selecting the two learned articles is on observable similarities in terms of text features inherent in the students' essays and in the learned articles. Some of the features referred to include vocabulary type, topics or themes, mode of development or text organization, etc.

Students' Essays

(1) <ICE-PHI:W1A-001#27:1>As for *now*, post-modernism remains unconnected set of ideas in my mind

(2) <ICE-PHI:W1A-002#14:1>*Now* if this linguistic community were to adopt those initials as a sign, they would have an onomatopoeic signifier that yields a whole slew of signifieds, from a frog vocalizing on a lilypad, to a puddle of <foreign> vomitus </foreign>.

(3) <ICE-PHI:W1B-024#174:10> In this year 's congress, you will have the opportunity to discover the secrets behind the success of multinational companies which reinvented themselves with the help of research, and to better understand the factors that contributed to the growth of small businesses that are now giants in their respective fields.

(4) <ICE-SIN:W1A-001#37:1> By this time, Gulliver is totally unreliable as a narrator because he is now irrational and we just cannot accept his views.

(5) <ICE-SIN:W1A-004#22:1> Now that the Cambodia conflict actually appears to be heading towards some kind of settlement, Japan may be better placed to regain an initiative and play a more active role in the promotion of peace and stability in the region.

(6) <ICE-HK:W1A-001#38:1>
According to Jackson &obrack; 1988 , 19 &cbrack; , the Angles settled in the areas of England to the north of the River Thames whereas the Jutes settled in what is now Kent and the remaining part was occupied by Saxons .

(7) <ICE-HK:W1A-008#60:1>

By *now*, more and more women participate in work , but the truth is that , many people still think men are more rational and thinking , they seem to be more able to do the higher position job .

(8) <ICE-IND:W1A-001#76:2>

Now, there is no work which can perform only by <w> man's </w> but it is impossible for woman. </p>

(9) <ICE-IND:W1A-002#38:1>

And *now* we discuss below the <}> <-> impacts </-> <+> impact </+> </}> of science <+> on human life </+> which <}> <-> are </-> <+> is </+> </}> great or boon as well as bad or damage for human life. </p>

The topics, which may be clearly seen in the occurrences taken from the students' essay in the four corpora, and the vocabulary used revolve around the Humanities and Social Sciences. Examples (1) <ICE-PHI:W1A-001#27:1> and (4) (4) <ICE-SIN:W1A-001#37:1> talk about Literary Criticism using post-modern approach, and example (6) <ICE-HK:W1A-001#38:1> talks about History. These topics in examples (1), (4), and (6) belong to Humanities. Examples (3) <ICE-PHI:W1B-024#174:10>, (5) <ICE-SIN:W1A-004#22:1> talk about international communities and conflicts, which topics originate from Social Sciences.

Second and last basis for choosing the texts, Humanities and Social Sciences are two of the core courses or subject areas fundamental in secondary and tertiary curricula, which students are presumably studying or at least students are exposed to reading materials related to Humanities and Social Sciences. Thus, the occurrences of the transitional conjuncts in students' essays may be compared to the learned articles.

Corpus

This study is based on the Asian component of the International Corpus of English (ICE-ASIA). The list of the transitional conjuncts was drawn from Quirk et.al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999). The items in the list are the frequently used transitional conjuncts found in ICE-PHI, ICE-SIN, ICE-HK, and ICE-IND.

Table 1

Overall Frequency of transitional conjuncts found in the ICE-PHI, ICE-SIN, ICE-HK, and ICE-IND corpora

Transitional Conjuncts	ICE-PHI	ICE-SIN	ICE-HK	ICE-IND	Total
Incidentally	6	8	0	12	**26**
Now	553	490	546	453	**2,042**
By the way	18	21	22	3	**64**
By the by	0	0	0	0	**0**
Meantime	12	3	15	4	**34**
Meanwhile	33	26	39	16	**114**
In the meantime	9	2	15	3	**29**
In the meanwhile	0	1	0	2	**3**
Originally	17	13	18	6	**54**
Eventually	43	32	37	11	**123**
Subsequently	5	17	16	12	**50**

Table 1 shows the common transitional conjuncts found in ICE-ASIA. This list is based on Quirk et. al.'s (1985) semantic roles. It shows that *now* (discoursal, informal) is the most frequently used conjunct among all other types found in written texts with 2,042 occurrences, followed by eventually (temporal-transitional) with 123 occurrences, and *meanwhile (*temporal-transitional) with 114 occurrences. But since the main objective was to analyze written texts in the academic setting, the researcher purposely segregated the data needed for the study and ranked them again based on the frequency of occurrences. The tables showing the data, which are followed by discussions, are shown in the *results and discussion* component of this paper.

Unit of Analysis

The Antconc freeware corpus analysis toolkit for concordance and text analysis were used to examine the occurrences of the use and overuse transitional conjuncts in selected written texts from the ICE-ASIA. All the occurrences of the said transitional conjuncts were manually analyzed in terms of their semantic functions, their position in sentences and their

syntactic forms in written texts which were all drawn from Quirk et al (1985: 1068-67 & 631-32 & 646-47) and Biber, et al. (2000: 875-79) and Quirk et al. (1985: 634-36).

Results and Discussion

Among the common categories of conjuncts in English, the transitional conjuncts like *now, eventually, originally and subsequently* emerge as the most frequently used in academic writing since this type of cohesive devices (conjuncts for Quirk, et. al., 1985) effectively connects sentences or units of discourse (Biber et. al. 1999).

3.1 Transitional conjuncts in students' essays and professional articles in ICE-ASIA

Table 2

The top three most frequently used transitional conjuncts in Students' Essays – ICE-ASIA

Corpus	Students' Untimed Essays W1A-001 - W1A-010			Students' Examination Essays W1A-011 - W1A-020		
	Now	Eventually	Originally	Now	Eventually	Originally
ICE-PHI	30	2	2	11	1	1
ICE-SIN	13	2	2	1	1	3
ICE-HK	9	0	1	7	0	0
ICE-IND	19	1	0	25	0	0
Total	**71**	**5**	**5**	**44**	**2**	**4**

Table 2 reveals the top three transitional adverbial conjuncts found in both the students' untimed essays and in the students' examination essays. The table shows that among the transitional conjuncts present in ICE-Asia, *now, eventually, and originally* emerged as the most frequently used in both students' essays. *Now* is the widely used transitional conjunct with a total of 115 occurrences (71 for students' untimed essays, and 44 for examination essays). The conjunct *originally* appears second widely used with a total of 9 occurrences (5 for students' untimed essays, and 4 for examination essays). With 7 occurrences, the transitional conjunct eventually appeared third on the list (5 for students' untimed essays, and 2 for examination essays).

Table 3

The top three most frequently used transitional conjuncts in Professional Articles

Corpus	Humanities Learned Articles W2A-001 to W2A-010			Social Sciences Learned Articles W2A-011 to W2A-020		
	Now	**Eventually**	**Subsequently**	**Now**	**Eventually**	**Subsequently**
ICE-PHI	9	1	1	14	1	1
ICE-SIN	17	2	3	6	8	2
ICE-HK	7	4	1	16	3	2
ICE-IND	14	1	1	12	0	0
Total	**47**	**8**	**6**	**48**	**12**	**5**

Table 3 reveals the top three transitional adverbial conjuncts that emerged in both the Humanities learned articles and the Social sciences learned articles. The table offers evidence that among the transitional conjuncts (see table 2) present in ICE-Asia, *now*, *eventually,* and *subsequently* are the most commonly used in both types of articles. Based on the table, *now* emerged as the most common conjunct in Philippine English, Singapore English, Hong Kong English, and Indian English with a total of 95 occurrences. *Eventually* appeared second with 20 occurrences. The conjunct subsequently appeared third with 11 occurrences in both articles. The transitional conjuncts *now* and *eventually* consistently appeared first and second respectively in both the students' essays and the articles written by professionals. Interestingly, the two groups deviated in the third frequently used conjunct: *originally* in students' essays, and *subsequently* in the learned articles.

Semantic sub-categories of transitional conjuncts

Quirk et al. (1985) classified transitional conjuncts further into two subcategories, namely discoursal and temporal. Discoursal type includes *incidentally, now, by the way,* while temporal comprises *meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile, originally, eventually, subsequently...*

Table 4

The frequency of each semantic sub-category of transitional conjuncts in the entire written genre in ICE-ASIA

Transitional Conjuncts	ICE-PHI	ICE-SIN	ICE-HK	ICE-IND	Total
1. Discoursal					
1.1 Now	553	490	546	453	**2,042**
2. Temporal					
2.1 Originally	17	13	18	6	**54**
2.2 Eventually	43	32	37	11	**123**
2.3 Subsequently	5	17	16	12	**50**

Table 4 shows that among the top four transitional conjuncts, *now* as a discoursal conjunct has the highest number of occurrences in ICE-ASIA corpora. It is observed that *now* is popularly used in writing with 2,042 occurrences compared to the other three conjuncts. Interestingly, there is a wide margin separating the conjunct now to the second highest rank which is only 123 occurrences of the conjunct *eventually*.

Use and Overuse of Transitional Conjuncts

Now

In terms of number of frequency it was already established in table 1 (Overall Frequency of transitional conjuncts, p.15), and reiterated in tables 2 and 3 to show that even in the target text types (essays and learned articles), the transitional conjunct **now** is popularly used in all the written genres. The total number of 2,042 overall occurrences in the ICE-ASIA proves its predominant use in the written texts.

This study, however, highlighted the use of transitional conjuncts in the following: *students' untimed essays, students' examination essays, Humanities learned articles, and Social Science learned articles*. Thus, the analyses on use, misuse, and overuse only focused on said chosen written text types. Below are examples of particular occurrences of the conjunct *now*.

Occurrences in *Students' Untimed Essays* (W1A-001 - W1A-010) and in *students' examination essays* (W1A-011 - W1A-020) lifted from the ICE-ASIA

Corpora:

<ICE-SIN:W1B-010#73:2>*Now* to change the topic.

<ICE-SIN:W1A-002#48:1> Moving on *now* to differences in the various movements, One areas was leadership.

<ICE-SIN:W1A-003#15:1> I will *now* deal with each period separately.

<ICE-SIN:W1A-003#157:2> *Now*, we move on to the factors accounting for these differences among the races.

<ICE-HK:W1A-008#51:1> *Now* , we are going to discuss the problem of why society always imprison that work is the primary role of men .

<ICE-HK:W1A-010#47:1> After comparing the general characteristics of the two Constitutions , we *now* come to their historical background : Hong Kong is a British colony because of the treaties signed by China and Britain in 1842 , 1860 and 1898 .

<ICE-HK:W1A-014#13:1> *Now* , let us go to see how Davies uses with parody on the “ Eight Songs for a mad King.

<ICE-HK:W1B-001#177:6> *NOW* I AM GOING TO TELL YOU ABOUT MY PRESENT SITUATION FIRST

<ICE-HK:W1B-003#134:4> *Now*, let me tell you my news .

<ICE-IND:W1A-002#38:1> And *now* we discuss below the <}> <-> impacts </-> <+> impact </+> </}> of science <+> on human life </+> which <}> <-> are </-> <+> is </+> </}> great or boon as well as bad or damage for human life. </p>

The examples above taken from the students' essays and examinations show how the conjunct *now* indicates a transition of topics. Transitional conjunctive adverbs according to Quirk et. al (1985), suggest some kind of change of progression such as indicating a transition of topics for instance *by the way, incidentally,* and *now*, etc. The occurrences of the conjunct now in the examples explicitly announce that the speaker is going to talk about another topic. The same could be said with

occurrences of *now* in the Humanities Learned Articles (W2A-001 to W2A-010), and Social Sciences Articles (W2A-011 to W2A-020).

Schiffrin (1987) states that the core meaning 'at the present moment' of *now* explains that it functions as a stepping-stone to a new topic, new argument or new stage in a narrative.

Interestingly however, in terms of the specific function of the conjunct ***now*** as a transition to introduce a new topic (Quirk et. al. 1985), very little or no occurrence of such function has been found in the written texts from the corpus of the ICE-PHI. Instead, the conjunct *now* in ICE-PHI as evidenced by the occurrences in the written texts, functions as adverb of time (at the present time rather in the past or future, or immediately), until a future point in time (e.g. That is all for now…), and from now on (starting at this moment and continuing in the future). The following our few examples for the list of all the other occurrences found in ICE-PHI):

<ICE-PHI:W1A-001#27:1>*As for now*, post-modernism remains unconnected set of ideas in my mind.

<ICE-PHI:W1A-001#49:2> However, because of the politicians ' self-vested interests this idea is *now* becoming fast obsolete.

<ICE-PHI:W1A-004#24:1> The Human Resource Management is now trying to be updated and advanced in order to give better services to the organization by being on-line on what 's happening in the world.

<ICE-PHI:W1B-004#104:1> Now, there are people to communicate with in both English & Tagalog.

<ICE-PHI:W1B-004#121:1> However, I 'm now having a spectacular vacation & enjoying the fruits of my labor.

<ICE-PHI:W1B-004#132:1> But now, she wants a formal, longer & recorded discourse on the matter.

<ICE-PHI:W2B-009#83:1> For four years now, on Monday evenings in Manila, our group comes together to study, deeply and adoringly not a <foreign> lama

</foreign> , but a 19th century German philosopher named Rudolf Steiner.

<ICE-PHI:W2B-013#65:2> Historians now know that misfortune did befall the Rizal family: Eviction from Calamba, persecution and the death of their brother Jose

<ICE-PHI:W2B-015#96:2> The question is do we interpret the law now in the light of past or current laws?

<ICE-PHI:W2B-021#75:2> Now it 's up to Asian governments to decide whether they will allow

the sale of the ballyhooed drug in their countries

The examples above taken from ICE-PHI include all the written texts used as main data in this study. Although the semantic role of the conjunct **now** (as a transition signifier introducing another topic) is realized in the other components of ICE-ASIA, the conjunct **now** *functioning as adverb of time* is consistently dominant in ICE-SIN, ICE-HK, ICE-IND (See Appendix XX for the lists of all occurrences of now functioning as adverb of time).

Other than ranking first in the number of frequency of occurrences in ICE-ASIA, the function of the conjunct *now* as an adverb of time, is another context where it can be said that it is a case of an *overuse* adverbial, since it is consistently dominant throughout the corpora of ICE-PHI. Additionally, *now* as a discoursal transitional conjunct is more often use in non-formal or informal setting (Quirk et. al. 1985). Even in formal contexts like essay writing or academic writing, most ESL and EFL young students or writers tend to use the less formal semantic role of now, thus the overuse. Learners' overuse of the less-formal connectives in writing, a feature of non-nativeness, may disappear as their English improves. Chao (2004) examined EFL Taiwanese students' compositions and found that the writers developed a speech-like style for formal writing, particularly seen in data from those at the lower levels of L2 proficiency. He suggested that the writers may gradually foster a written style of expression as substantiated by Shaw and Liu (1998). They concluded that these L2 writers moved from a more spoken type of discourse to a more formal written type of discourse with the development of their writing proficiency. This phenomenon is further supported by a study conducted by Lorenz (1999) where he compared both the juvenile and mature discourse generated by native and non-native speakers. The result showed a considerable overuse of *so* and *because* in the learner corpora. *So* was found to increase in the learners' data between the juvenile and mature data, but to be rarely used in native speakers' mature writing. The same is seen in the current study as evidenced by the number of occurrences of the use of the conjunct now in a less formal context.

Temporal conjuncts indicate a transition in terms of time, e.g. originally, eventually, subsequently, etc. As shown in table 4 (frequency of each semantic sub-category of transitional conjuncts in the entire written genre in ICE-ASIA), *eventually* has a total frequency of only 123 occurrences, *originally* with 54, and *subsequently* with 50 occurrences as compared to the 2,042 occurrences of *now*. Based on the frequency count alone, the huge discrepancy can be attributed probably to the *underuse* of the conjuncts *eventually, originally, and subsequently*. Since the sample size for analysis in this study is small – two written genre types (students'

essays and learned articles), a further descriptive analysis on the occurrences of the three temporal transitional conjuncts was conducted.

The following are examples of occurrences where ***eventually*** is used.

Example of occurrences of *eventually* in *Students' Untimed Essays* (W1A-001 - W1A-010) and in *students' examination essays* (W1A-011 - W1A-020) lifted from the ICE-ASIA Corpora:

<ICE-PHI:W1A-020#30:1> Upon examining the contexts, children learn meanings of words and are eventually able to use these words in the appropriate contexts.

<ICE-PHI:W1A-001#58:2>

I just do not know if whatever we hear and we see concerning today 's Philippine politics is just created and eventually sensationalized by the mass media, but we can get a small portion out of the big picture that it really is just a show.

<ICE-PHI:W1A-007#65:2> The Chinese were left with the minority group, who would eventually rebel for the love of music.

<ICE-SIN:W1A-003#46:1> There was therefore danger of a maturing work force, a higher dependency ratio, and eventually, ageing of the population.

<ICE-SIN:W1A-002#X132:2> Where there were deadly diseases like cholera, they were eventually wiped out but anyhow reduced mortality rates.

<ICE-SIN:W1A-003#46:1> There was therefore danger of a maturing work force, a higher dependency ratio, and eventually, ageing of the population.

<ICE-IND:W1A-006#97:3> This favours the recurrence and persistence of <del> atlectaris </del> <O> one word </O> in such infants eventually leading to de [Peter Gruenwald, Pottar <del> 61 </del> <marginalia> 76] .

There are only a total of 7 occurrences of eventually, 5 in students' untimed essays and 2 in students' examination essays. Strikingly, the use of the conjunct eventually is absent in ICE-HK, clearly a case of *underuse* of the conjunct. Granger and Tyson (1996) explain that one of the reasons why connecting adverbials are underused by students (both EFL and ESL, at least based on the corpora) could relatively come down to learners' pragmatic considerations. Corroborative linking or transitional adverbials are typically associated with registers that reveal the speaker's or writer's convictions, which a low frequency of such kind of linking adverbials is characteristic of language users' attempts of being depersonalized or impartial. Of course this is evident generally among younger learners and/or inexperienced writers.

Examples of occurrences of *eventually* in *Humanities learned articles* (W2A-

001 – W2A-010) and in *Social Sciences learned articles* (W2A-011 – W2A-020) lifted from the ICE-ASIA Corpora:

<ICE-PHI:W2A-001#95:1> At first, even unimportant matters such as the arrangement of the teacher 's table were discussed in teachers ' meetings, but the need to zero in on effective teaching methods was *eventually* seen by those attending the meetings.

<ICE-PHI:W2A-017#32:1> And so, like Colbert before him, and the host of Asian statesmen who would *eventually* come after him, he proposed that government and private business join hands in a conscious, coordinated effort to develop the economy by <quote> “ fostering the growth of manufactures. ” </quote>

<ICE-SIN:W2A-001#40:1> He is usually more concerned with the capital gains of the property, so that when he *eventually* sells his property, he will recoup all the expenses incurred and at the same time reap a huge profit, free from capital gains tax or income tax.

<ICE-SIN:W2A-010#71:1> However, in spite of being the major urban policy of its day, several problems encountered in its implementation were to *eventually* lead the authorities to abandon the backlane scheme itself.

<ICE-HK:W2A-007#33:1> These efforts or endeavours should enhance the viability of Chinese-Western comparative drama as academic discipline , the research methods of which embrace yet transcend the scope of mere comparativism and nominal internationalism , with a view to *eventually* establishing a Chinese-Western comparative drama poetics .

<ICE-HK:W2A-007#72:1> Nevertheless , he acknowledges that such a rebellion *eventually* takes on certain characteristics of traditional forms and method , and hence , he ends his articles not without some ambivalence , registering the feelings of how a die-hard tradition-conscious psyche grapples with the fact of assimilating Western methods and influence .

<ICE-IND:W2A-007#60:1> After Percy died Zaarnilla corresponded with <w> Percy's </w> relations and friends and *eventually* went to England.

There are a total of 20 occurrences of *eventually* in the Humanities and Social Sciences learned articles. This is relatively high compared to the 7 occurrences found in the students' essays. Although both types of written texts delve around common topics, the writers of the

learned articles exemplified the use of eventually around or within the context of high register or vocabulary. The example below shows the use of the high register of vocabulary use, which is not generally observed in students' essays.

<ICE-HK:W2A-007#33:1> These efforts or endeavours should enhance the viability of Chinese-Western comparative drama as academic discipline , the research methods of which embrace yet *transcend the scope of mere comparativism* and *nominal internationalism* , with a view to eventually establishing a Chinese-Western comparative drama poetics .

The context of use of the temporal conjunct *eventually* is consistent or appropriate in connecting the ideas within the sentences.

Conclusion

The present study investigated on the use of connective adverbials or conjuncts in students' essays and selected professional articles. Based on the corpora of the International Corpus of English (ICE) particularly from the components of ICE-PHI, ICE-SIN, ICE-HK, and ICE IND, the study focused on the use, misuse, and overuse of the transitional conjuncts *now, eventually, originally, and subsequently* in written texts. The results revealed that *now* (discoursal, informal) is the most frequently used conjunct among all other types found in written texts with 2,042 occurrences, followed by eventually (temporal-transitional) with 123 occurrences, and *meanwhile (*temporal-transitional) with 114 occurrences. But since the main objective was to analyze written texts in the academic setting, the researcher purposely segregated the data needed for the study and ranked them again based on the frequency of occurrences. As expected, *now* is the widely used transitional conjunct for both students' essays and the learned articles. Based on the frequency count alone, the huge discrepancy can be attributed probably to the *underuse* of the conjuncts *eventually, originally, and subsequently*. Since the sample size for analysis in this study is small – two written genre types (students' essays and learned articles), a further descriptive analysis on the occurrences of the three temporal transitional conjuncts was conducted.

Pedagogical Implication

Undeniably, writing is universally an indispensable skill. Thus, it is imperative for professionals and students alike to acquire skills in writing since competence in it would enable success in any careers for professionals and in a number of school requirements for students. Cameron (2007) posits that writing skill is challenging both for the students and the professionals. Similarly, Almaden (2006) argues that writing involves an intricate process since

it encompasses unconventional/advanced skills, which comprise critical thinking, logical development, and the coherence of ideas. This is further supported by Tangkiengrisih (2010), who specifically explained that university students and professionals should be able to write coherently because it is essential in disseminating information.

Specifically, Asian students including advanced or intelligent learners in the ESL and EFL classes, overuse, underuse, or improperly use transitional conjuncts. Such occurrence unswervingly may result in incoherent, illogical and inadequate written outputs of nonnative English speakers. Given that there is a relationship between writers' use of conjuncts and readers' discernment or perception of texts as being cohesive and persuasive, it is apparent that ESL and EFL learners' writing skills could be developed through instructions on the use of conjuncts. For instance, students must understand how connectives, simply when used appropriately, could indicate or signal different types of logical and conjunctive relationships between sentences or paragraphs.

Moreover, teachers should put more weight on teaching how to use conjuncts properly and efficiently. They should help students realize that transitional conjuncts are not always exclusively found in one position like how most EFL learners thought that it is almost always in the initial position. Lastly, teachers could perhaps expose students to more authentive texts to become accustomed with the flexible use of transitional or any adverbial conjuncts, concerning where or in what position they generally emerge in sentences. As such, we could be more innovative in writing texts, be familiar with rational and cohesive styles, and be mindful of using adverbial conjuncts like transitional conjuncts more idiomatically.

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Reasons and Motivation of Islamic Scholar for Using Code-switching as Strategy in Delivering a Speech (Da'wah)

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Abstract

Code-switching is a challenging phenomenon to sociolinguists. It is related to the use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation in a context of bilingual or multilingual setting of conversation. In giving Islamic speech (Da'wah), many Islamic Scholars use code-switching as a strategy in Palopo city. This study aimed at describing the motivation and the reason of Islamic Scholar in using code-mixing in their Islamic speech in Palopo city. Observations, questionnaires, and interviews techniques were used in collecting data. There were 15 selected Islamic Scholars as the subject of this research. Each Islamic Scholar was observed, their language use was recorded, transcribed and then it was analyzed by using the Bhatia and Ritchie function theory (2004). The result of the data analysis shows that, in most cases, code-mixing by Islamic Scholar in Palopo city was done because of the roles and

relationship of the participants, situational factor and message intrinsic factor also language attitude, security reason, and motivation.

Keywords: Code-switching, Islamic Scholar, Islamic Speech (Da'wah)

Introduction

Language is used as a tool to communicate to fulfill one of the human social needs and connect human beings with other people in social events. In the life of human nowadays, language is considered as primary life. Most people are bilingual and multilingual because they can use two or more languages in their communication. In various forms of communication both in conversation and in speeches, the use of two languages or more widely. A few of them not only apply their mother tongue but also foreign languages, such as English, Arabic or others. Because mastery of more than one language so that in the process of communication raises the tendency of a speaker to utilize the potential of language variations. One variation of the language is code-switching to maintain togetherness in the community.

Code-switching has a big role in society, in terms of using one or more languages in a community, bilingual or multilingual. It is a big phenomenon to sociolinguists. It is an alternate use of more languages or conversations in the bilingual or multilingual conversations. Khnert, Nett, Yim, Kan, and Duran (2005) argued that the speakers used switching as an effective communication mode is available to accomplish bilingual speakers for communicating with other individuals who share both languages. In an act of communication, for example, interacting between teachers and students, doctors and patients or delivering bilingual speech sometimes determines the code choice to be used to communicate. The choice of code can be triggered by a number of things, such as the interlocutor, the topic of conversation, the situation, etc. One interesting phenomenon in the communication process is code-switching.

The theological foundation of religion which was established as the basis of code-switching by Islamic scholar is in Alqur'an surah Ibrahim verse 4 which means:

> "And We did not send any messenger except [speaking] in the language of his people to state clearly for them, and Allah sends astray [thereby] whom He wills and guides whom He wills. And He is the Exalted in Might, the Wise."(Q.S. Ibrahim [14]: 4).

For some scholars, oral is broader than language (*bi lisani qaumihi*). It includes the culture, customs, traditions, and fairy of human life itself. So, it is not a matter of abstinence and even

becomes a norm to use code-switching in lectures. Religionists must consider the language used by the audience in delivering lectures so that meaning can be acceptable

In giving Islamic speech (Da'wah), many of Islamic Scholars use code-switching as a strategy. They sometimes use English, Arabic, Indonesian and Local. In Palopo community, they use many languages in the linguistic situation. Switching code is used because they have to determine in language whether they should communicate each other. Besides that speakers also need to determine which code variations are in accordance with the situation. Thus, every bilingual Islamic scholar must choose one of variation code in speech act event when delivering the speech.

The phenomenon of code switching became the focus in this study to describe the motivation and the reason of Islamic Scholar in using code mixing in their Islamic speech in Palopo city including in English. The research can be an important information for other Islamic scholars in Indonesia as strategy in doing Islamic speech. However, when and why an Islamic scholar would code-switch could vary and that is what this paper will look into.

Literature review

1. What is code switching?

Code switching is the phenomenon of using two or more languages alternately by the speakers (Milroy and Gordon, 2003). It is as the alternative use of two languages in a sentence or among sentences. Clyne (2000) stated that code switching is different from the transference, in this case the single item is transferred from B language to A language (or vice versa) it can be integrated into grammar and phonology system of the target language or not. It refers to the use of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences) basically from two different grammatical systems in a sentence (Bhatia and Ritchie,2004).

Milroy and Gordon (2003) argues that code switching describe many dialect or languages changes and mixing phenomenon same in the conversation, the turn, or the sentence-utterance". This phenomenon is as a way or form of communication that is commonly used in a society which used more than languages. A natural occurrence in bilingual or multilingual in individual speech - is the use of many languages as the alternative language (Sebba et al, 2012). The process as an effort to support the conversation keeps flowing without pausing or leaving a message" (Song, 2009: 59)

2. The Function of Code Switching

Code switching has several functions such as fill the linguistics gaps, express the ethnics identity and achieve the special discursive purposes (Bullock & Toribio 2009:2). Auer (1998:3) and Hamers & Blanc (2000:260) divided the functions into two general approaches namely the sociolinguistic and the grammatical approaches.

The sociolinguistics approach focuses on the conversation topics, the participants, the setting and the affective aspect of the message. The grammatical approach is divided into three subcategories : *extra-sentential* as a feature to add a tag question, *intersentential* as the switching occurs at clause/sentence and *intersentetial* as the switching happens within clause or within words e.g a plural ending addition to a the switched word (Hamers & Blanc 2000:266).

Reyes (2004, p. 84) divides the functions of code switching as speech representation, imitate quotation, turn accommodation, the shift of the topic, the switch of the situation, insistence, giving an emphasis, clarification or persuasion, persons specification, the shift of question, and as a discourse maker. An additional function of code switching by Mattsson and Burenhult (1999, p. 9) is repetition where the first language repetition (L1) can be partial or full repetition or can be expanded.

Gumperz (1982) mentioned that the function of the code switching as discourse function of code-switching, also called it as the language personalization function. A speaker uses connotation of the code to create a conversation effect. The code switching is used to fulfill the functions of the relational and referential functions of the language to communicate effectively and relationships between languages. Halliday (1975) sees the code switching to fulfill the role of interpersonal communication. The use of more than one language in speaking plays the important role as the facilitator between self and participants during the process of the communication.

3. Reasons and Motivation for Code-switching

When two languages switched, there may be some motivation and also some reasons for changing code. There are several reasons presented by Grosjean (1982) for example, some bilingual mixing of two compilation languages they cannot find the right word or response or compilation there is no translation suitable for the language used. In addition, their interlocutors, interactions, messages, attitudes, and transitions produce code-mixing. It is argued by Grosjean (1982) that code switching is used for some reasons, such as retelling what someone has expressed and determining the recipient of the language to be sent. Based on several factors namely with whom (participants: background and their relationships), about

what (topics, content), and when and where speech actions occur, bilingual choose their languages (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004).

3.1 Participant Roles and Relationship

Participation roles and relationships have a very important role in the use of codemixing and the code switching during the communication process. Someone becomes bilingual code-mix or not depends on the person he or she communicates with (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2004). From the results of an interview conducted by Grosjean (1982) on a bilingual Greek - English about how friends speak affects bilingual languages. This interviewee who is a Greek- English bilingual found himself exchanging code with friends who were all Greeks. They can speak English well and no one is offended by code-switching. He did not change with his parents as he did with his friends. "(p. 149). Another person interviewed who is French-English bilingual said he used English and French in the same conversation, in the same sentence, compiling together with what was explained bilingual, also with the help with whom he felt comfortable. "(p. 149). Because of these two languages, the person talking and talking with the other person influences their interfering.

3.2 Situational factors

Some certain languages are more appropriate for specific groups, organizers or other participants/ social participants. In addition, some things that influenced the code switching qualitatively and quantitatively in language translations, namely class, religion, gender, and age as the social variable. Concerning to the gender as a part of social components, Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) states that there are many specific societies which is included in the traditional one, where the roles of gender are clearly defined, i.e. This is the most effective way to use mixing and language transfer.

3.3 Message-Intrinsic Factors

Bhatia and Ritche (2004) suggest several factors that produce mixing in communication namely complaints, repetition, topic-comments / relative clauses, ambigious statement (hedging), interjection and idioms, and entrenched cultural wisdom. Approved direct or spoken quotes are being approved / language transfer between cross-language bilinguals. Repetition or paraphrase of the functional combination of mixing functions and comments makes bilingual mixing of languages. Nishimura (1989) carried out research on it with Japanese-English bilingual and found languages mixing and changing topics introduced in Japanese and comments given in English. Furthermore, mixing and transferring code has an important

function in hedging (Bhatia & Ritche, 2004). They can choose or replace the bilingual compilation code if they don't want to give a clear answer to the other person. Another function of applying the mixing and translating is to add exclamations or filler sentences. For example, 'la' Singapore is at the end of the sentence (Tay, 1989) because Singaporean Chinese has 'sound' at the final position of the sentence.

3.4 Language Attitudes, Dominance, and Security

Language attitude, the frequency of mixing code from bilingual depends on the society who considers mixing positive or negative codes. Language attitude, dominance, and security influence the qualitative and quantitative nature of language mixing (Bhatia & Ritche, 2004). Poplack (1980) and Nortier (1990) state that speakers who mix-code easily and fluently tend to be well skilled bilingually while Weinreich (1953) argues about mixing intra-sentential codes relating to proficiency and change in bilingualism. Muysken, (2000) Genesee, Nicoladis and Paradis (1995: 615) give opinions in terms of relative abilities and predictability about bilingual children, difficult to mix their main language using their additional language, not vice versa because of many linguistic structures for less communication in additional languages. Also, bilingual security is related to the mixing code. Grosjeans (1982) reports that in the Russian-English bilingual country, he speaks with two other Russian-English languages, he did not speak carefully and often mingled with language due to hard or improved or angry. When the bilingual compilation is not safe, they mix more languages.

Method

This study was qualitative research with the intent to collect process, analyze, and present data objectively about the performance of code-switching of Islamic scholars in delivering a speech (Da'wah). There were 15 selected Islamic Scholars as a subject of this research. The researcher observed each Islamic Scholar, recorded, transcribed and analyzed their language use. Then, the reason and the motivation of the Islamic scholar were classified based on the theory of functions proposed by Bhatia and Ritchie (2004). The the reason and the motivation of the Islamic scholar in Palopo were classified and concluded by using the triangulation of the data from observation,

The results

The results of this research shows that, in most cases, code-mixing by Islamic Scholar in Palopo city was done because of 4 main reasons namely: 1.Participant roles and relationship

2.Situational factor and 3.Message intrinsic factor , also 4. language attitude, 5. security reason, and motivation.

1.Participant roles and relationship

It is found in this research that participation roles and relationships have an important role in the agreement and disagreement of bilinguals' unconscious agreement and disagreement on language choice. The language choice in code-switch and code mix depends on whom they talk to (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2004). The observations and the interview results show that most of the Islamic scholars in Palopo use code-switching based on the background of their listeners. Code-switching is used to convey the information easily by the ability to understand, social background and emotional closeness of the listener. They want to create a sense of friendship, intimacy, and solidarity with the listener, so the message will be easier to accept.

2.Situational factor

Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) state that there are many traditional societies, where gender roles are clearly defined, i.e. This is the most effective way to use mixing and language transfer. Some languages are more suitable for groups, organizers or other participants/ social participants. There are several social variables that influence patterns of code switching and mixing such as class, religion, gender, and age codes. In addition, situational factors related to society such as interlocutors, physical arrangements, other social variables, social status, race and age affect people considerably.

The observation result shows that when delivering the speech, an Islamic scholar uses code-switching to adapt to the listener. They will consider the background of knowledge, gender, and age of the listener. They usually use code-switching to evoke the atmosphere and eliminate the saturation of the listener. This code transfer is intended to attract the attention of listeners so that the situation returns lively. That is, the Islamic scholars may speak differently depending on their audiences, what group of people types who they are giving a speech to. This study supported by the study by Zulfikar (2015) who found that various situation contribute positively towards the students'language choice in Pesantren. In one situation they used English, while in the different context, they change their language into other language such as Arabic or other local languages. He found that location, interclocuter and also the participant affect the students' language choice.

 3. Message intrinsic factor

Bhatia and Ritche (2004) state that some factors generate code-mixing such as quotations, reiteration, topic-comment/relative clauses, hedging, interjections and idioms, and deep-rooted cultural wisdom.

The Islamic scholar uses code-switching to provide reinforcement and the convincing topic of speech. There was code-switching from one language to another to give reinforcement to be more convincing to the topic conveyed to their listeners. The switching code is considered to help in delivering the intended message. They are required to have the ability to process words and sentences that produce good and interesting speeches so that they are memorable and remembered by the listener. Thus listeners can feel and absorb the religion message well.Another reason why the Islamic scholar in Palopo used English in the specific parts of their Islamic speech is to give some supporting quotation in English which is related to the specific term in specific science. It is in inline with what Yahya, A., Said, Y.R., Masruddin (2019) and Masruddin (2018) who found that English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is needed in Islamic context included by the Islamic scholar with various educational background to strengthen their ability in giving information about a specific science.

4.Language attitude

The qualitative and quantitative nature of mixed languages is determined by attitudes, dominance, and language security (Bhatia & Ritche, 2004). The attitude and frequency of code mixing depends on the assumption of society considers code-mixing positively or negatively.

Islamic scholars use different language attitudes to give a different impression and characteristic. It will give the listener its impression because the style of language will show the character of the speaker. In delivering the speech, only two causes of code-switching were found namely language skill on how an Islamic scholar able to deliver *tausiyah* and answer questions from listeners.

 5. Security reason and motivation

The purpose of using code switching is the Islamic scholars have difficulty using certain languages to explain a particular topic They report that they switch when they cannot find an

appropriate word or expression or when the language being used does not have the items or appropriate translations for the vocabulary needed (Grosjean, 1982).

Islamic scholars use code-switching to create security for themselves in conveying ideas because there are several messages to be conveyed but it is difficult if it only focuses on one language. Therefore, they sometimes use English when they are delivering their speech inf ornt of the academician group around campus or offices. They tend to use buginese or torajanese as local languages when they are giving a speech in front of the low education level group such as farming around the field area.   So this code-switching is intended to make them feel safe so that the meaning to be conveyed is by the purpose of the speaker. They are more likely to use languages that have been mastered than using languages that they have not mastered

The result of this study is supported by many of the previous studies which have discovered code-switching and code-mixing. The occurrence of code switching in an interaction plays an effective way to make the communication runs very well in order to convey the requested meaning (Khnert, Yim, Nett, Kan, and Duran, 2005, in Kim, 2006: 44). Grosjean (1982) found that code-switching has a big role as a communicative strategy to deliver both the linguistic and the social information. It is an important source of communication in filling a momentary linguistics need. It becomes a linguistic phenomenon (Arnfast and jogersen: 2003). The language choice of the speaker is affected by factors such as participants, situations or topics that are outside the speaker (Fishman: 2000). Speakers can move from one language to another according to changing situations. The finding of this research can give contribution to the theory of code switching, particularly on the specific setting namely the Islamic scholar profession.

Conclusion

In most cases, code-mixing by Islamic Scholar in Palopo city was done because of the roles and relationship of the participants, situational factor and message intrinsic factor also language attitude, security reason, and motivation.

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