Issues in Language Studies

Volume 8 Number 1(2019)

Faculty of Language and Communication
Universiti Malaysia Sarawak
94300 Kota Samarahan, Sarawak.
www.ils.unimas.my

e-ISSN 2180 -2726

ISSUES IN LANGUAGE STUDIES

Issues in Language Studies is a publication of the Faculty of Language and Communication (formerly known as Centre for Language Studies), Universiti Malaysia Sarawak. The journal publishes articles on teaching, learning and the study of languages two times a year in June and December. It offers a forum for the discussion of local issues that are of global concern. It is a double-blind refereed online journal published bi-annually. Currently it is indexed by Google Scholar, the Malaysian Citation Index, Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ) and Directory of Abstract Indexing for Journals.

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e-ISSN 2180-2726
9 772180 272003

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Contents

ARABIC FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN MALAYSIA: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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Manuscript received 11 February 2019
Manuscript accepted 14 May 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1293.2019

ABSTRACT

Many universities have introduced Arabic language for specific purpose courses in order to help learners master the terminologies and language patterns used in specific fields. This paper reviews the rising popularity of learning Arabic for specific purposes among Malaysian students in view of more contemporary needs than decades ago when the Arabic language is learnt mainly for religious purposes. The qualitative approach has been adopted in conducting this literature review. This review provides input to help create a module for teaching Arabic for specific purposes. This study has a significant contribution to the field of Arabic teaching in Malaysia as it informs practitioners and researchers on how to improve the effectiveness of Arabic for specific purpose courses to help students gain academic and career advantages in the long run.

Keywords: Arabic language; Arabic for specific purposes

Introduction

The growth of English as the world's lingua franca has made English courses more popular worldwide. Consequently, English for specific purposes (ESP) courses have been introduced in the tertiary level to cater for the need of using English language skills in specific fields such as business and aviation. Apart from English, Arabic has become one of the most popular emerging foreign language, and as a result, there is an increasing number of institutions which offer Arabic for specific purposes (ASP).

ASP has emerged over the last few years, particularly in countries like Malaysia where Arabic is gaining popularity. ASP has been introduced across different fields, including Arabic for Islamic jurisprudence purposes (Daud, 1998), Arabic for Islamic theology purposes (Azad, 1998), Arabic for pilgrimage purposes (Saleh, 2005), Arabic for Islamic law purposes (Kadir, 2005), Arabic for economics purposes (Hashim, 2009), Arabic for nursing purposes (Zainudin, 2010), Arabic for science purposes (Ismail, 2012), Arabic for agro-technology purposes (Daud W. A., 2016), Arabic for tourism purpose (Adam, 2013; Ghani, 2016), and others. In line with this popularity, Chik (1998) mentioned that a number of researchers have recognised the importance of Arabic language and taken steps to conduct relevant studies on the teaching of Arabic for specific purpose (Chik, 1998) in schools and in universities.

The Definition of Arabic for Specific Purposes

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), language for specific purposes can be conceptualised as “an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning” (p. 19). In this regard, ESP, refers to English language courses that are focused on the use of language in a specific field (Wright, 1992). By the same token, ASP presents a new domain of applied linguistics where Arabic language teaching takes on a new learner-centred approach and uses methodology catered to fulfilling the learners’ specific needs. Thus, the syllabus for ASP often has specialised objectives to fulfil specific requirements to allow learners to use the language for specific purposes. It can be deduced that ASP courses are geared towards helping students achieve communicative competence goals and are learning and leaner oriented. In this light, ASP is in contrast with Arabic for general purpose where Arabic is taught in general and there is no specific requirement for leaners to use Arabic in a specific context.

Arabic is a compulsory second language for students who are studying government funded in religious schools in Malaysia. Similar to English, Arabic language courses in schools are aimed to expose students to Arabic for general and communicative purpose language skills, rather than specific words or language use related to specialised field. In this regard, ASP courses will give new experience to tertiary students and help them to develop a deeper understanding of the language. Moreover, these courses will help them gain more opportunities in using the language in specific areas, increasing career prospects (Robinson, 1991). Arabic for specific purpose presents a specific approach to language teaching where knowledge is transferred from teacher to learners through particular teaching strategies. Thus, we need to align the method, materials, activities and language level with learner’s learning requirement (Robinson, 1991). Figure 1 shows the difference between Arabic for specific purpose and Arabic for general purpose.

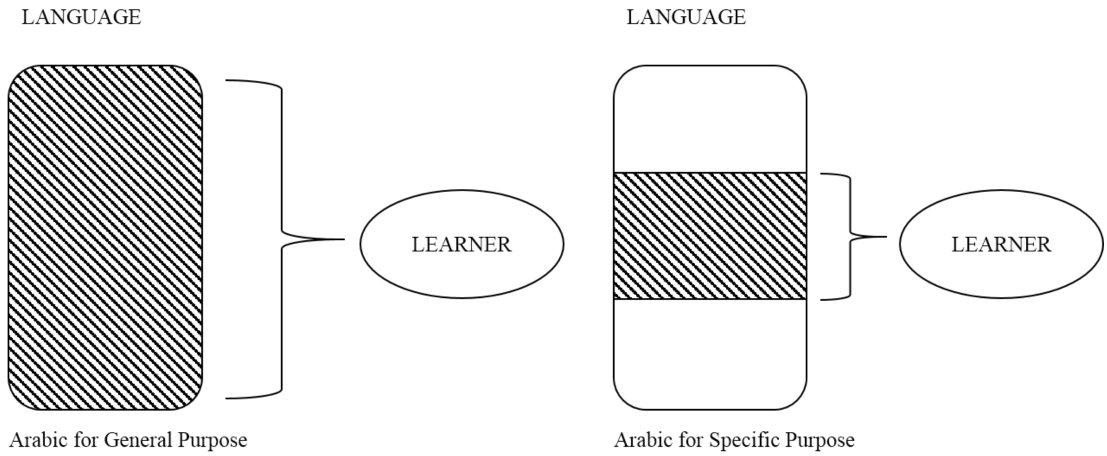

Figure 1. The learner-restricted syllabus

Jaafar (2013) identified there common types of ASP courses, which are Arabic Language for Professional Purposes, Arabic Language for Academic Purposes and Arabic with Specific Topic. It was also found that here is no apparent difference between Arabic for academic purposes and Arabic for professional purposes where people can work and study simultaneously. This is because the language learned in a study environment can often be used later for employment. Meanwhile, Arabic with specific topic courses have a higher emphasis on topic and their outcomes are based on prior needs analysis.

The Emergence of Arabic for Specific Purpose in Malaysia

Arabic for specific purpose is an area which has positively impacted students and garnered the interest of researchers especially in Malaysia. According to Nadwah (1998), the major difference between language for specific purpose and language for general purpose is need analysis which is an important aspect for the design of any language for specific purpose course. Hence, a needs analysis process should be done as an initial step for designing a courseware to streamline learning and equip students with the required language skills and vocabulary.

A study by Saleh (2005) concerned the Arabic language needs of Malaysian Hajj pilgrims as an initial step to design a special module to teach Arabic language for pilgrimage purpose. The study probed the main factors of pilgrims in learning Arabic, highlighting aspects like religion, Arab culture, economics or societal requirement. The designed module is focused on teaching speaking skill which is considered as the common skill used by Hajj pilgrims.

Another study by Hashim (2009) comprised a special Arabic language need analysis of economic students. The study examined the design of a special courseware to help economics students understand Arabic economic references. The courseware designed is based on the learning-centred approach proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). The researcher also highlighted the students' perceived importance of all four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) and reported that a majority of economics students prefer to focus on reading skills compared to other skill as they believe that skills such as skimming and scanning the text, understanding the meaning and evaluating the text will help them the most in their studies.

Zainudin (2010) designed an ASP course for nurses at Putrajaya Hospital and nursing students at International Islamic University College Selangor (KUIS), Malaysia. The researcher raised several concerns about language needs among professionals and students as the study found several contradictions in language need of the nurses and the students; the nursing students prefer learning the speaking skill, followed by reading, writing and listening while the nurses prefer learning the speaking skill, followed by listening, reading and writing. The study deduced that nurses in the professional sector practice speaking and listening skills more often as they are required to converse with Arab patients.

Ismail (2012) advocated that the contents for ASP course must be aligned with learners' level and their need. A special module was designed to teach reading skill for scientific purpose which introduces vocabulary and language structure by processing and applying method. The study was aimed to identify learners' need and analyse vocabulary related to Arabic scientific references and science fiction as part of designing an appropriate module in learning reading skill for scientific purpose.

Rahim et al. (2015) analysed the needs of Syariah law students who are studying Arabic language in International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM). The study found that a majority of the learners perceive learning Arabic positively and its acquisition is related to understanding the Al-Quran and Hadith, which are considered as the main sources for Syariah law. Interestingly, the researchers discovered that learners face several problems and obstacles in learning Arabic; the main obstacles in learning Arabic for law purpose is the number of students in the class. This problem has demotivated the students and made them feel less confident to practise Arabic. The researchers suggested that practitioners should design Arabic for specific purpose modules that can be used to solve problems faced by learners. It was also suggested that instructors should create an Arabic environment in class and focus on the relevant language skills in order to boost their motivation and self confidence in practising Arabic language.

Meanwhile, Daud (2016) examined the practice of teaching Arabic for agro-technology in MARA Poly-Tech College (KPTM), Malaysia. The needs analysis was executed (Daud & Ghani, 2016) to examine students' needs as part of the proposed design for a special courseware for diploma students majoring in agro-technology. The finding is consistent with the findings of past studies by Daud et al. (2008) where students tend to learn vocabulary and language pattern related to their field of choice. The finding is also in line with Zainudin (2010) who found similar positive association between language acquisition and specific language skills. It was found that agro-technology students prefer to practise the speaking skill compared to other skills as they believe that they will need to use speaking skills in their future career.

In the field of tourism, Khalid Harun, the president of Malaysian Association of Tour and Travel Agents (MATTA) was quoted by The Star stating that "we cannot just rely on higher institutions of learning to produce professional travel and tour executives, as they provide mostly academic content and superficial on-the-job exposure" (para. 2). Consequently, he advocated providing "specific education" and training in order to produce employable graduates with high level of professionalism in the industry (Lee, 2011). It can be deduced that "specific education" as mentioned by Khalid refers to learning language specific purposes, specifically for tourism and hospitality purposes.

Based on statistics provided by Tourism Malaysia with the cooperation of the Malaysian Immigration Department (Tourism Malaysia, 2016), Arab speaking tourists from various Arab countries such as Saudi Arabia, Oman, Egypt, Iraq, UAE, and Iran. There is also an influx of Arab students, expatriates and business owners migrating to Malaysia. The high number of Arab tourists and migrant arrivals to Malaysia highlights the importance of teaching Arabic for tourism purpose. Table 1 below presents the statistic related to the arrival of Arab tourists from January to August 2016.

Table 1
Arrival of Arab tourists Jan-Aug 2016

Country	**No. of Tourists**
Saudi Arabia	96 391
Iran	31 364
Egypt	20 371
Iraq	14 167
UAE	10 369

Realising the importance of Arabic for tourism purpose, Adam (2013) proposed the design and development of an Arabic for tourism module. A needs analysis was conducted with tourism professionals (Adam & Chick, 2011) to identify learners' needs in learning Arabic for tourism purpose, to investigate its necessity and to collect opinions and suggestions that could benefit different parties, including Ministry of Tourism. A total of 292 respondents from various sectors including officers from Ministry of Tourism, airport personnel, travel agents, hotel staff, taxi driver and others participated in the need analysis. The study found that speaking skill is deemed as the most crucial skill for the tourism industry. Interestingly the researcher discovered the need to learn different variations of Arabic, especially the Saudi Arabian and Egyptian dialects.

Jaafar (2013) investigated the need analysis of students at Islamic Science University of Malaysia (USIM) in learning Arabic language for tourism purpose. The study employed descriptive and analytical research methodology to obtain the related data and showed the importance of learning spoken and written Arabic among tourism students. Based on this finding, he suggested designing and developing ASP module for the leaners based on their needs.

In another study, Sahrir and Ghani (2016) designed and developed a special website to teach Arabic for tourism purpose for tourism students at MARA Poly-Tech College (KPTM), Malaysia. The website was designed by using the Joomla platform of website development and ADDIE instructional model was implemented. The website was designed based on students' needs, opinions, and suggestions. The study revealed that a majority of the students have positive perception about learning the Arabic language for tourism purposes through a website. It was reported that the use of the website increased the students' desire and motivation to learn Arabic. It also provides them with more opportunities for self-learning.

Ghani et al. (2016) examined the efficacy of using websites in learning Arabic language for tourism purpose at the Department of General Studies, MARA Poly-Tech College (KPTM), Malaysia. The results are in line with what reported in previous studies (Samah, 2007; Sahrir & Ghani, 2016). It was reported that the use of internet and websites is an effective way to teach Arabic language through providing good, proactive support and authentic learning materials for students and teachers. The use of websites could also significantly motivate students in learning Arabic for tourism purpose in a second/foreign language environment. Students are able to acquire vocabulary, improve their language skills, and gain important information. In this regard, an effective website can expand the language skills taught in conventional classrooms.

Ahmad (2017) identified the characteristics of the academic unit or module that suit the Arabic language learning needs for Syariah officers working in Malaysian Islamic banks. The study is a descriptive analysis where the data were obtained from interviews held with five officers. The study found that the officers need to master Islamic banking and financial terms as part of their career requirement. Hence, all four language skills were added into the module with a greater focus on reading and writing to cater to the respondent's language learning needs.

Another study investigated the needs of mosque officers and workers of four mosques in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor in learning Arabic Language related to religious matters (Mohamad, 2017). The data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. The study found that all four skills of language are similarly important, but most respondents regarded that mastering speaking skills is the most important to them. Based on this result, a special academic module was proposed to aid them in handling mosque related matters. The module should be based on learners' needs and is focused on training the officers to use Arabic terms, linguistic structures and grammatical rules.

Ghani and Daud (2018) explored the significance of Arabic language among students of early childhood education. The data were collected using close-ended questionnaires which were administrated to diploma in early childhood education students in MARA Poly-Tech College (KPTM), Kota Bharu, Kelantan, and open-ended questionnaires which were distributed among pre-school teachers. The study found that developing the capacity to understand basic terms related to early childhood education is one of the most important needs of early childhood education students, as these terms are used in their studies and in their workplace as they are required to teach Arabic in kindergarten. In addition, Arabic language proficiency provides value added advantage for them as they can improve their communication skill and use them in the classroom. Meanwhile, the pre-school teachers suggested that early childhood graduates should master an additional language, such as the Arabic language. This is because mastering the language will not only help them to teach Arabic but also help them to teach religious subjects.

Similarities and Differences between Arabic for Specific Purpose and General Purpose

There is a big difference between the teaching of Arabic for general purpose and ASP. The main difference between these two subjects lies in the content itself (Tengkari, 2007). Previous studies have pointed out several differences between ASP and Arabic for general purpose (Ahmad, 1983; Abdullah, 1990; Jamil, 2006; Tu'aimat, 2003). Arabic for general purpose provides general knowledge and basic skills of Arabic language without focusing on any field or purpose. It focuses on enabling learners to master the commonly used language skills. ASP is taught using a general approach which has been determined by the individuals or institutions. Moreover, it concerns learners' linguistic ability and often taught in heterogeneous groups and its contents are based on the students' level of proficiency such as primary, intermediate and advanced, which is often determined by individual institutions.

In the meantime, ASP can be viewed as a specialised form of teaching Arabic for general purpose with the main goal to equip learners with necessary Arabic language skills to face their real communication challenges in their future professional careers. Furthermore, according to Potocar (2002), it incorporates practical linguistic skills to enable leaners for the successful performance and professional task. The contents of ASP focus on the students' need in their fields, such as what the language items they need to excel in their field (Tengkari, 2007). ASP courses are designed for a more homogeneous group where members share same area of specialisation. It also focuses on the language pattern and the curriculum is focused on certain skills. Moreover, ASP courses are largely designed for adults.

Needs Analysis in Language for Specific Purpose

As mentioned, the difference between language for general purposes and language for specific purposes is the needs analysis process (Daud N. H., 1998). In an academic context, need analysis is a process of identifying the needs of learners involved in a course. Learners' needs analysis must be undertaken prior to designing Arabic for specific purpose module and courseware, in order to achieve learning objectives, choosing the appropriate pedagogy and words related to the field (Daud & Ghani, 2016; Abdullah, Shifaah Nurul & Salih Mahgoub Eltingari, 2016; Nadwah et al., 2008). Analysing learners' needs is vital in teaching language for specific purposes (Brown, 1995; Daud, 1998; Dudeley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Daud et al., 2008; Daud & Ghani, 2016; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Jordan, 1997). Researchers have also advocated that needs analysis should be an on-going process (Harding, 2007) which is done from time to time based on target situation, learning situation, or other factors that may influence the learners instead of being a one-off activity.

In the study of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), the word "needs" is synonymous with "wants" to express the learners' desire (McDonough, 1984). McDonough (1984) defined "needs" as "the demand of others" that refer to needs of teachers, practitioners, designers and institutions. Another definition was provided by Chambers (1988) which noted that "needs" is the first stage in determining priorities, whereas "analysis" implies what the elements are and how they are to be identified. In the same context, Richards et al. (2010) defined needs analysis as a process of determining the needs of a group of learners that requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities which use both subjective and objective information. Learners' wants are the most crucial input in the need analysis process in designing language for specific purpose (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This aspect is considered as very important because it will determine learners' determination and whether the course is effective (McDonough, 1984; Nunan, 1988). It is posited that ignoring learner's needs and wants might hinder learners from learning which could demotivate them. Learners' motivation towards the course also depend on whether their needs are considered in the development of the materials (Abudhahir et al., 2014).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) presented a very comprehensive learning-centred approach to needs analysis by making basic distinction between "target needs", such as what learner needs to do in target situation, and "learning needs" or what the learner needs to do in order to learn. On the other hand, target needs refers to knowledge and abilities the learners require in order to be able to perform to the required degree of competence in the target situation (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Three important elements in needs analysis, which are necessities, lacks and wants. Necessities refer to "what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In the context of this research, learner might need to give information to Arabic speakers, respond to any enquiries or complaints, and engage in persuasive conversation to attract them in specific industry and sector. The next aspect is the learners' lack which can be identified by finding the gap between the learners' existing knowledge or ability and the needs of the target situation (Hutchinson, & Waters, 1987). In order to determine what the learner lacks; pre-course placement test need to be done. However, most practitioners do not implement this due to time constraint (Yeoh, 2006). The last aspect is want. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), learners may have clear idea of the "necessities" of the target situation, and determine what they "want" based on their "lack", but learners' views will conflict with the perception of other parties. such as the course designers, sponsors, and teachers. Thus, the learners' "wants" should be given priority to provide an effective ASP course.

ASP as a Learner-Centred Approach

Learner-centred teaching approach is an approach to teaching that is increasingly being encouraged in higher education. This approach emphasises student's interests, abilities and learning styles. It shifts the role of instructors or teachers from givers of information to facilitators of student learning. It is characterised by innovative methods of teaching which aim to promote learning and communication between teachers and learners. In recent years, the learner-centred learning pedagogy has received attention and it has become the key component for effective online learning. Leaners should become active participants in their own learning to allow them to foster transferable skills such as problem-solving, critical/reflective thinking, and decision making. Hedge (2000) noted that the learner-centred approach has four main characteristics, which are, it allows learners to actively participate in the whole process of designing the course content and selecting learning procedures, it allows learners to participate in designing language activities, it acknowledges that learners are largely responsible for their own learning, and learners' autonomy is increased.

A learner-centred classroom allows learners to choose what they will learn, how they will learn and how they will assess their own learning. This approach requires learners to be active and responsible participants in their own learning. Moreover, learning is based on the students' own learning pace. This contrasts with a teacher-centred classroom where teachers choose what the students will learn, how the students will learn, and how the students will be assessed.

The learning process for ASP should be adjusted as required to meet the leaner's abilities, needs, and interest. In other words, different amount of time, materials, target groups, and level must be provided in order to support learners. This process requires the negotiation and flexibility of both teachers and learners (Wajnryb, 1992) The syllabus contents and methods used for ASP is an approach of language teaching based on leaners' intention for learning. It emphasises learner-centeredness where learners decide what they want to learn and how they want to learn the language. In this regard, needs analysis is an imperative process in the design of ASP courses. In addition, learner's potential and the skills and knowledge needed are important to overcome constraints such as aptitude, time and technical resources.

Benefits of ASP

The benefits of teaching Arabic for general purpose is different from teaching ASP. Teaching ASP deals with topics needed by leaners, different skills, methods, and objectives to help the learners in learning speed, efficiency and effectiveness. In regard to language acquisition, ASP courses could facilitate faster language acquisition as student learn what they need, when they need it in an authentic, content-based context. This mimics the pattern of the native speaker's acquisition of language for specific purposes.

Second, as for learning efficiency of ASP, there are steps that should be followed by practitioners before providing the course. Obviously, the need analysis is of vital importance here as it enables the practitioner to determine the specific needs and objectives of learners. Third, there is learning effectiveness. On completion of the course, the learners are ready to practise the language appropriately and correctly in field related, which have been identified prior to the course. Besides, the learners are well prepared for their career and employment as they can use ASP immediately in their job.

Tu'aimat (2003) listed several advantages of learning ASP courses, which include a clear methodology which ensures largely practical work as well as performance, efficiency and quality as ASP courses have precise steps to follow to ensure the learning outcomes are achieved. Moreover, these courses identify students' needs and objectives, which in turn, present a good time investment for language learning. These courses also increase students' future career productivity as they learn concepts and common terminology in their field. Undoubtedly, this will help to students to demonstrate good career performance. Another advantage of ASP courses is that they can strengthen the relationship between the homogeneous leaners in these courses and help them build networks and mutual relationships. These courses also help increase students' opportunities and abilities when dealing with authentic Arabic related materials. Lastly, these courses increase the level of motivation among students, as they learn something valuable which can directly impact their career.

Suggestions to Carry Out ASP

The teaching of ASP combines the teaching of a specific subject matter and Arabic language skills. This combination is highly motivating for the students as they become more aware of how Arabic language skills will be used in the real context in specialised fields such as tourism, medicine, economics, and science. The integration of language skills into the teaching of these subjects help expose students to the accurate terminology and language structures in a meaningful context. Consequently, this could reinforce the language skills taught and help increase students' motivation and interest towards Arabic language.

Educators should be committed in order for the ASP programme to be conducted effectively. They are required to be actively involved in conducting need analysis, planning the course outline and learning outcomes, determining the pedagogy, establishing a positive learning environment, and evaluating the progress and achievement of the students.

The process of planning an ASP course involves comparing, selecting, and designing the syllabus based on the learning goals and objectives of the course. Long-term goals and short-term objectives should be set so that the students' progress and achievement can be tracked. In this regard students' current level of proficiency, learning potential and their prior knowledge should be taken into account when setting learning goals and objectives. Furthermore, the subject content-knowledge should expose them to the real context of language use and the language structure to be used inside and outside of the classroom. All of these aspects will heavily influence the selection, adaption and design of the course materials, and assessment procedures.

Using a suitable and interesting pedagogy in classroom is crucial to sustain learner's interest and motivation. As acquiring a new language requires learners to work harder, faster and more efficiently, the student-centred approach seems to benefit them as it gives them opportunities to communicate and share information in class, develop soft skills and increase their motivation towards learning Arabic language. Second language learners also benefit from the use of technology in the class. This is because technology such as the internet provides students with access to authentic materials that they can use to learn independently even outside the classroom.

To optimise their acquisition of the second or foreign language, learners need to practice to communicate using Arabic language for them to acquire that language. In this light, ASP courses can help establish a positive learning environment that encourages students to practise their communication and mediation skills. It also facilitates two-way communication between educators and learners in classroom. As a result, students will be able to acquire the language faster as they have more opportunity to practise the language in the classroom.

Thus, in planning ASP courses, practitioners should consider activities that can enhance learners' language skills. One way to determine the suitable activities is through needs analysis to gather information on the needs of the learners, instructors and the institutions. It allows educators to identify general and specific problems experienced by learners and propose the best solution to them. It is important to note that need analysis is not a one-off process, hence, information needs to be continuously collected to assess and improve the contents of the course and the teaching and learning activities.

In regard to evaluating the effectiveness of the learning and teaching process, educators play a role in helping students to identify the problems they face in language learning and find the best solution to these problems. Educators should also determine the skills that need to be focused on, and make choices on what and how to learn the language. Moreover, educators should find the most suitable assessment to measure the students' level of language acquisition. Authentic assessment has been recommended as it requires students to perform real-world tasks that demonstrate how the students can use the knowledge and skills they learn in a meaningful way.

Conclusion

Undoubtedly, ASP courses are useful but their teaching is marred by lack of instructional tools. In general, researchers agreed that the method to teach Arabic language should be changed and transformed to equip students with Arabic communication skills (Samah, 2007; 2016). Several studies have focused on the teaching of ASP and designing special module and courseware to teach ASP based on analysis of learners' needs. These studies posited that the need analysis phase is imperative in determining the most suitable module contents, words and language patterns and pedagogy are used to ensure their effectiveness. The studies also highlighted the importance of aligning language skills and exposing learners to new language use contexts.

Several researchers have used the internet technology for learning and teaching process by modifying existing pen and paper module into electronic forms. In this light, the researchers suggested the use of the internet as learning aid, specifically using websites provided for teaching Arabic for specific purpose to assist students in their language acquisition. The importance of internet in providing and offering teaching and learning materials should not be ignored. Search engine such as Google and Yahoo must be fully utilised by students and teachers as it provides sufficient materials for teaching and learning process. A proper experimental method should be implemented to measure the effectiveness of module itself as well as the teaching of ASP among the students. A study should be done on the effectiveness of ASP among students in terms of their academic and career advancements.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY SCIENCE STUDENTS

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Manuscript received 19 March 2019
Manuscript accepted 17 May 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1354.2019

ABSTRACT

Learning strategies are ways employed by learners to enhance their learning. An active use of language learning strategies helps learners to be in control of their own learning by developing language skills, and increasing confidence and motivation in learning. This study aimed to investigate the dominant language learning strategies used by science students. It focused on listening, speaking, reading, and writing strategies that was studied using descriptive qualitative method. The subjects were 56 eleventh-grade science students from the senior high boarding school of Darul Ikhsan. The questionnaire developed by Rubin and Thompson (1994) was distributed and the data was analysed by looking at the highest frequency of students' choice. The results indicated that the students employed cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, compensation strategies, and social strategies. However, the students used dominantly cognitive learning strategies across the four language skills. The findings recommended that students should be trained to use learning strategies properly. In addition, English teachers should consider the learners' strategies by asking for their intentions and use appropriate teaching methods.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, English language learning, science students

Introduction

With globalisation, the English teaching goal in Indonesia is changing rapidly. The initial aim of teaching English is to supply learners with knowledge of English so that they can read English references. However, this aim has changed. The development in industries, transportations, communication and education in the world has forced the Indonesian government to increase the quality of human resource in Indonesia. It is obvious that to build a high quality of human resource to face the challenges, the quality of English teaching in Indonesia has to increase.

The success of passing final examination especially for English subjects has increased tremendously, and it is said to be related to the learning strategies used by students in learning English. Learning strategies are ways chosen and applied by the students to learn the English language, including ways to help themselves identify what they need to learn. O'Malley (1985, p. 21) confirmed that learning strategies use has considerable potential for enhancing oral skills in English. Furthermore, Skehan (1991, p. 30) believed that learning strategies influence language learning. In addition to his opinion, Skehan (1991, p. 279) also stated that individual differences are not merely about memory capacity in learning. It may be preferred styles and strategies of the learners in acquiring or learning a language.

In this study, the process of teaching and learning is narrowed to the formal education in schools. Boarding schools in Great Aceh are known to have fewer students, fewer classrooms and inadequate facility and infrastructure to support the students' learning process. However, not all boarding schools are like this; some boarding schools have enough facility and learning tools to gain positive feedback of teaching learning process, such as the Darul Ikhsan boarding school.

There are some differences between public senior high schools and boarding schools. The daily activities in boarding school are relatively more than public high schools. Teachers' attention to students is also notably higher because they have more interaction time and the number of students and teacher comparisons on boarding school is smaller, which consists at least 18 students and a maximum number is 30 students in one class. On the other hand, in general schools the number of students is around 30 up to 40 in one class so that the teacher's attention is not optimal, due to the limited time and relatively larger number of students and teachers. The classes are divided into male and female classes in boarding school, but in public schools. Boarding school implements the National standard curriculum, the Religious Affairs Department curriculum, and additional curriculum of the Boarding School. While public schools apply only the National Standard Curriculum. Educational systems in boarding schools are formal, extracurricular, specific or informal (religious, disciplinary) education, including the recitation of English vocabulary beyond the learning schedule. Students are required to practise speaking English or Arabic in all activities in the dormitory. While public schools only have formal teaching in the classroom and extracurricular activities. The time allocation in boarding school is not limited to hours of study and at lesson time. But in public schools, the use of time is very limited to teaching and learning activities.

There are some unique characteristics in the boarding school especially at Darul Ikhsan senior high boarding school, Aceh Besar, Aceh province, Indonesia. The researcher has been informed by some teachers who teach there that some senior high school students have won competitions such as story-telling, English debate, and both English and Arabic speech. From this positive phenomenon, the authors intended to know and discover the strategies used by students in learning English. The study objective was to investigate the dominant language learning strategies used by eleventh grade of science students in learning listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Previous studies by Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) and Dionne et al. (2003) show that women have better performance than men in second language acquisition. Similar patterns have been observed in China, Korea and the United States, among others. Linguists have tried to explain the gender differences observed in terms of language learning behaviour. Oxford (1990) also reports that women are more aware of the use of their strategies to facilitate their learning. As a result, their overall performance in mastering the language is generally better than men. Further evidence for women's dominance in language learning has been observed in other disciplines as well, including neurology and sociolinguistics. Besides, Amri (2007) surveyed learning strategies used by students in five senior high public schools in Banda Aceh and found that the students dominantly used direct strategies and the differences in terms of strategies used according to gender were also noted. However, there is still a need to investigate further on this aspect as there are other factors such as school setting that might affect the strategies used.

Review of Literature

The term “learning strategy” as used in this study refers to language learning behaviour used by students to learn and to regulate foreign language learning. “Learning strategy” also refers to what students know about the strategies they use. This knowledge is expressed in statements made by students when they are asked to rethink general aspects of their English learning. The term also refers to what students know about aspects of their language learning apart from the strategies they use, such as the general principles they can follow to learn English as a foreign language successfully, how good or bad they can use language, whether it is easy or difficult about learning English. It can be considered that such knowledge may influence the choice of learning strategies.

Learning strategies are specific approaches or techniques used by students trying to learn a second language. Language learning strategies are conscious or potentially conscious actions and students can identify them in their learning process (Cohen, 1998). Learning strategies consist of mental activities or behaviours associated with several specific stages in the whole process of language acquisition or language use (Ellis, 1994, p. 529). In other words, they can be behaviours; for example, repeating new words aloud to remember them. They can be mental; for example, using synonyms or situational contexts to deduce the meaning of new words (Ellis, 1997). Strategies can make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more independent, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

Chamot (2001) postulated that learning strategies are important in second language acquisition for two main reasons. The first reason is by investigating the strategies used by second language learners during the learning process, better insight into cognitive, social, and affective processes in language learning can be obtained. Secondly, less successful language learners can be taught to use the strategies used by successful learners so that they can become better language learners. He also emphasised that two main goals in language learning strategy research were to identify and compare the strategies used by more and less successful students, then give instructions to the less successful so that they helped to learn the second language more successfully.

One of the main problems in the study of foreign languages is that some students are not successful in learning English and even have low motivation in learning English. It does not mean to say that learning strategy employed by students in learning English is the only factor that influences the English learning achievement of senior high school students. Patsy and Spada (2000, p. 52) stated that other factors also have been identified to be relevant to language learning such as motivation, aptitudes, intelligences, learner beliefs, and age, have been found to affect second language learning. Furthermore, (Dimyati, 1999, p. 239) said that besides the variables above, concentration also affect the students' achievement. However, Oxford (1994) believed that gender, motivation, type of assignment, age and second language stage, learning style and tolerance for ambiguity, cultural background, attitudes and beliefs are factors that affect the selection of learning strategies used among students who learn a second language.

Some students learn by intensive repetition, more students learn best by trial and error. The students who come from homes where their parents read to them will discover that reading is his learning strategy to acquire new knowledge. Other students traveling to explore the world with their parents will find that doing research or experiments is a learning strategy. In this case, each student has his own learning strategy. Thus, the teacher can obtain information from the learning strategies used by students to help students expand their learning strategies and develop the way they approach language learning.

Rubin's Learning Strategies Classification

Rubin found two main types of learning strategies that contribute directly to the development of a language system built by students; they are cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies. Cognitive learning strategies refer to the steps or operations used in learning problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials (Rubin, cited in O'Malley, 1990, p. 4). He also identified six main cognitive learning strategies that contribute directly to language learning as clarification/verification by asking for examples of how to use words or phrases, repeat words to confirm understanding, as an exercise to experiment with new vocabulary sounds, repeat sentences until they are easy to say, to guess/induce inference by guessing the meaning of key words, structures, images, contexts, etc. Cognitive strategy also acts as memorisation by recording new items, saying aloud, finding mnemonics, and writing items repeatedly, as deductive reasoning by comparing native languages/other languages with the target language. Furthermore, this cognitive strategy is used for monitoring by improving mistakes in pronunciation itself, vocabulary, spelling, grammar, and style.

Metacognitive learning strategies are used to monitor and regulate or learn languages directly. They involve various processes such as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management. The metacognitive strategy is an indirect strategy of learning a second language. This strategy emphasises the students' importance to focus on the concentration of language learning, compiling, and planning language learning, and evaluating how to learn the language. Basically, a metacognitive strategy aims to allow students to control their own knowledge. Metacognitive emphasises learning "how to learn" which is learning how to learn. Metacognitive is a general term which means "thinking about thinking". This strategy makes students aware of the process of reading and solving problems. They will become more aware of the skills needed to meet certain learning situations.

Communication strategies are less directly related to language learning because their focus is on the process of participating in conversations and getting meaning or explaining what the speaker intended. Speakers use communication strategies when they face some difficulties or misunderstandings by the co-speaker.

Social strategy is an activity carried out by students that gives them the chance to be exposed and practice their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to acquiring, storing, retrieving, and using language.

Oxford's Learning Strategies Classification

Oxford (1990) proposed a new classification of learning strategy. She divided it into two main categories; direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are divided into memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies are divided into metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

Direct strategies are language learning strategies that directly involve target languages (Oxford, 1990). All direct strategies require language mental processing and have different purposes. The first type of direct strategies are memory strategies, such as grouping or using imaging groups, which aim to save and retrieve new information. Memory strategies are powerful mental tools because the mind can store 100 trillion bits of information. Students who are not at the basic level of language learning usually use memory strategies. However, she said that some researchers rarely report language students using this strategy.

The second type of direct strategies are cognitive strategies are very important in learning new languages. There are four sets of cognitive strategies. They practice, receive and send messages, analyse and reason, and create structures for input and output. The strategy for practice is one of the most important parts of cognitive strategy which consists of repetition, formal practice with the sound system and writing, recognising and using formulas and patterns, combining, and practising naturalist strategies. However, the five of learning strategies in group practice, the most important thing is to practise naturally such as participating in conversations, reading books or articles, listening to lectures or writing letters in new languages. The receive and send a message strategy group consists of two sets of learning strategies. The first strategy helps students find the main ideas through skimming or scanning to find certain interesting details. This strategy helps learners understand quickly what they hear or read in new languages. The second strategy is used to receive and send messages that are useful for understanding incoming messages or generating outgoing messages. There are five sets of learning strategies in the analysing and reasoning strategies group. They are reasoning deductively, analysing expressions, analysing contrastively, translating, and transferring. These sets of five learning strategies concern logical analysis and reasoning as applied to various target language skills. The learners often use these learning strategies to understand the meaning of new expression or to create a new expression.

The third type of direct strategies are compensation strategies which enable students to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitation in knowledge. They are divided into two groups and cluster into 10 sets of learning strategies. The first group is guessing intelligently in listening and writing and other learning strategies are overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Guessing intelligently group sometimes is called inference which has two sets of learning strategies known as using linguistic clues such as grammar, vocabulary or other target language elements and using other clues such as context, situation, text structure, personal relationship, and topic. The second group is overcoming limitation in speaking and writing learning strategies that fall into 10 learning strategies. They are switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, and using circumlocution or synonym.

On the other hand, indirect strategies are those which provide support for language learning (Oxford, 1990, pp. 135-147). Indirect strategies are divided into metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Firstly, metacognitive strategies are taken from word “metacognitive” which means beyond. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive device and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process by using functions such as centering, arranging and planning, and evaluating learning. Centering helps learners to unite their attention and energies on certain task, activities, skills, or materials. Arranging and planning helps learners organise and plan to get the most out language learning. Evaluating helps learners check their language performance. The learners identify errors in understanding or producing the new language and evaluating their own progress in the new language; for instance, by checking to see whether his or her reading getting faster or not.

Secondly, affective strategies are applied to control emotions, attitudes about language learning, which includes lowering students’ anxiety, encouraging themselves, and taking their emotional temperature. Oxford believed that a certain amount of anxiety sometimes helps learners to reach their peak performance level, but too much anxiety blocks language learning. She suggests that reducing anxiety is like having relaxed, deep breathing, or meditation. Using music and laughter are also useful to reduce the anxiety. To encourage the affective learning strategy, Oxford reminded language learners to realise themselves to use their own potential in learning the language. The encouragement does not always come from other people, the learners can provide their own encouragement, first, make positive statement oneself in order to feel more confident in learning the new language. Second, push oneself to take risks wisely in language learning situation. Third, reward them, give reward for particular better appearance in the new language. Taking their emotional temperature strategies helps students assess their motivational attitudes. In many cases, it relates them to language assignments. It is also helpful to discriminate negative attitude and emotion which block the language learning progress. Here, Oxford included four sets of learning strategies that explicitly listen to their bodies, use checklists, write language learning diaries, and discuss their feelings with other people's strategies.

Thirdly, social strategies are based on the view of language as a form of social that need or involve people. Here, Oxford suggested three sets of strategies. The first strategy is asking questions to help learners gain the intended meaning and understanding. This set of strategies involves asking someone, a teacher, or a native speaker, or even a friend for clarification, verification, and correction. The second strategy is to work with peers or other advanced users of the target language. This helps students not only improve students' language performance but also improve social acceptance. In addition to both learning strategies, Oxford believed that empathising with other strategies can develop the learners' perspective. Empathy can be developed more easily when language learners are aware of cultural strategies and others' thoughts and feelings.

Stern's Learning Strategies Classification

Stern (as cited in Hismanoglu, 2000) classified learning strategies into management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative-experience strategies, interpersonal strategies, and affective strategies.

Management and planning strategies are related to the learning goals of students. Learners can be responsible for developing their own learning when they get help from their teacher. In this case, students must decide what commitment to make language learning, set reasonable goals, decide on the right methodology; select appropriate resources and monitor progress, evaluate their achievements keeping in mind the goals and expectations that have been determined previously.

Cognitive strategies are the steps or operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Some cognitive strategies exhibited clarification/verification, guess/inductive inference, deductive reasoning, practice, memorisation, and monitoring.

Examples of communicative-expertential strategies are giving a signal, paraphrasing, or asking for repetition and explanation. They are techniques used by students to make a conversation take place and avoid communication disruptions.

Using interpersonal strategies, learners can monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. Learners should be in contact with native speakers and cooperate with them. Learners must become familiar with the target culture.

Generally, good language learners engage distinct affective strategies. Some students may feel they have failed to learn a foreign language; such as feeling strangeness, and having negative view of native speaker. These emotional problems must be cured by creating associations of positive influences on foreign languages, speakers, and on learning activities.

O'Malley's Learning Strategies Classification

O'Malley (1990, pp. 43-55) divided learning strategies into three main subcategories, they are metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies.

According to O'Malley, metacognitive strategies are higher order cognitive skills that require planning, monitoring, and evaluating for learning. According to Anderson, planning is a procedure for resolving conflicts between competing action statements that apply to conditional (if) clauses in the production system (cited in O'Malley, 1990, p. 44). Planning can be influenced by goals or input features that seem to be most useful for performing tasks. Learners often plan and alternate depending on the task demanded. Next, monitoring examines attention to tasks, understanding information that must be recalled when it is happening, and evaluation means checking understanding after an activity is completed. Among the main metacognitive strategies, it is possible to include advanced regulation, focused attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation.

Cognitive strategies are often specific to different learning activities and tasks. O'Malley (1990) also divided these strategies into several sections known as rehearsing or repeating the names of items or objects they have listened to, arranging or grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to the semantics and syntax of attributes. The next section is to conclude or use information in oral texts to guess the meaning of new linguistic items, predict results, or complete missing parts. Then, imagine or use visual images (whether produced or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information. Then, the reduction or application of rules to understand language. Part of this strategy is also to summarise what people have heard to ensure information has been stored, strategies to move or use linguistic information that are known to facilitate new learning tasks. Finally, elaboration strategies; linking ideas containing new information or integrating new ideas with known information (elaboration may be a general category for other strategies, such as imaging, summarisation, transfer and deduction.

According to O'Malley (1990), social/affective strategies represent broad groupings that involve interaction with others or ideational control over influence. The strategy that will be useful in listening to understanding is cooperation; work with colleagues to solve problems, gather information, check records, or get feedback on learning activities, question clarification or obtain from a teacher or colleague additional explanations, repeat words or examples, and speak for themselves or use mental control to convince themselves itself that learning activities will succeed or to reduce anxiety about a task.

The Importance of Learning Strategies in Language Learning and Teaching

According to O'Malley et al. (1985, p. 23), students use learning strategies to assist with the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information. Oxford (1991, p. 1) explained that learning strategies are very important for language learning because they are tools for active and independent involvement which are basically useful for developing communicative competencies. He also stated that the right learning strategy resulted in greater capacity and confidence. Furthermore, similar to this point of view, Lessard (1997) asserted that language learning strategies contribute to the development of students' communicative competencies.

For the most part, Oxford (1991) and Lessard (1997) only touched on speaking skills. They did not mention the importance of learning strategies for other skills. However, Fedderholdt (1997) had an adequate explanation of the importance of learning strategies for all skills. He explained that language learners who can use a variety of language learning strategies appropriately are able to improve their language skills in a better way. In addition, he provided a detailed explanation that metacognitive strategies increase the time of organisational learning, self-monitoring and self-evaluation. He believed that cognitive strategies including prior knowledge can help students solve new problems. Social and affective strategies involve native speakers to improve student pronunciation and ask classmates to work together to offer solutions to certain language problems. He also agreed that developing metacognitive, cognitive, and social affective skills can help students build student independence and autonomy.

The findings of these researchers provide considerable benefits in language learning and teaching even though these findings are sometimes unclear and require more investigation to explain individual differences in language learning. Many researchers say that it is not always a good learning strategy adopted by good language learners. Sometimes, good learning strategies are also applied by language learners who are not successful. There is always the possibility of language learners who use bad learning strategies or vice versa. However, the problem does not contrast with the use of learning strategies, but other factors also influence learning. Researchers do not deny this, one of which, Skehan (1989, p. 76) stated that there is always the possibility that good learning strategies are used by bad language learners. They are still poor students for other reasons that cause them to be unsuccessful. Furthermore, Vann and Abraham (1990, p. 177) found evidence that good or successful language learners could become active users of similar learning strategies but unsuccessful learners proved to lack metacognitive strategies that would enable them to assess assignments and bring them to bear the strategies needed to solve it.

However, Ellis (1991, p. 100) classified those factors as social factor, cognitive factor, and affective factor. Social factors are external to students and concern for the relationship between students and speakers. Cognitive and affective factors are internal to students. Cognitive factors concern the nature of problem-solving strategies used by students, while affective factors involve emotional responses appearing with efforts to learn a second language. The learning strategy used by students in learning English is a special method in approaching problems or assignments to achieve certain goals (Brown, 2001, p. 210). Oxford (1990, p. 11) also found that when students take more responsibility, more learning takes place, both teachers and students feel more successful. In addition, Ellis (2008) assumed that the factors that influence the choice of learning strategies of students include learning factors and situational social factors. In this point, it should be emphasised that using a good learning strategy does not guarantee that bad students will also succeed in learning because other factors can also play a role in the success.

Method

A case study approach was employed to address the research questions. Gustafson (2017) stated that case studies can be defined as intensive studies of someone, a group of people or a unit that aims to generalise to several units. A case study has also been described as an intensive and systematic investigation of individuals, groups, communities or other units where researchers examine in-depth data relating to several variables (Yin, 2003). The purpose of this single case study is to explore the strategies for learning listening, speaking, reading and writing that used by students related to learning, motivation, and success in various competition activities with other public-school environments. The proposition arose when the students obtained higher scores when they were involved in competitions with other public schools and Islamic boarding schools. Some of the students who competed with other party have won the competition such as English debate, story-telling and English speech. This situation showed that there was a connection between the use of strategies to learn English with the ability of students to achieve victory and succeed in getting good English scores. In this case, the writer conducted this study with the intention of knowing the strategies used by students in English language learning.

This research was conducted using descriptive qualitative methods. Questionnaire was used in this study to collect data about learning strategies used. The research location was the senior high boarding school of Darul Ikhsan where it is located on Glee Iniem Street, Siem, Darussalam sub-district, Aceh Besar, Aceh province, Indonesia. The participants in this research were the eleventh-grade science students. The class of XI-B and XI-D were selected purposively at the boarding school. The items of questionnaire were adapted from Rubin and Thompson (1994) and four items were modified by the writer based on the research questions and the students' environment. The questionnaires were distributed to the 28 female and 28 male students of science class during their normal class session.

After the data were collected, they were checked for clarity and completeness. Then the data were coded based on the variables studied and tabulated. The data were analysed and presented in the form of frequency tables in a variety of measures of central tendency and size of dispersion that aims to understand the characteristics of sample data from the study. In the questionnaire, participants were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 5 (always done) 4 (usually done) 3 (sometimes done) 2 (rarely done) 1 (never or almost never done) to show their frequency using the strategies involved. The data were analysed by frequency and percentages.

Results and Discussion

The questionnaire consists of 30 items, which were included into the learning strategies in listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.

Table 1
Percentage of strategies choice in learning listening

Item No.	Percentage of Students' Strategy Choice (%)					
	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
1	58.92	17.85	12.5	5.35	5.35	100
2	50.00	26.78	16.07	7.14	0.00	100
3	69.64	5.35	14.28	7.14	3.57	100
4	55.35	14.28	17.85	8.92	3.57	100
5	51.78	21.42	0.00	17.85	8.92	100
6	67.85	21.42	5.35	5.35	0.00	100
7	41.07	26.78	19.64	3.57	8.92	100

Table 1 indicates that students keep listening to get clues as to what was meant if they did not understand. The students focussed on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speakers intended. This strategy is the most preferred listening strategy among the students.

Table 2
Percentage of strategies choice in learning speaking

Item No.	Percentage of Students' Strategy Choice (%)					
	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
8	64.29	25.00	7.14	3.57	0.00	100
9	55.36	14.28	21.43	8.93	0.00	100
10	16.07	30.36	19.64	7.14	12,05	100
11	51.78	10.71	17.85	16.07	3.57	100
12	41.07	28.57	14.28	12.5	3.57	100
13	58.92	17.85	14.28	7.14	1.78	100
14	69.64	17.85	10.71	1.78	0.00	100

Table 2 shows that the students always try to speak English in their dormitory or school. Dominantly, this shows that the students practise speaking directly so that they apply communicative-experiential strategy which is a cognitive strategy (Rubin, 1987). This strategy is the one with the highest percentage of students' choice in speaking strategies.

Table 3
Percentage of strategies choice in learning reading

Item No.	Percentage of Students' Strategy Choice (%)					
	always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
15	50.00	10.71	16.07	8.92	14.28	100
16	37.50	16.07	21.43	14.28	10.71	100
17	16.07	12.50	16.07	5.35	0.00	100
18	33.92	28.57	16.07	17.85	3.57	100
19	46.42	10.71	25.00	14.28	3.57	100
20	48.21	17.85	14.28	17.85	1.78	100
21	69.64	8.92	10.71	5.35	5.35	100
22	50.00	12.50	16.07	12.5	8.92	100
23	8.92	10.71	52.57	5.35	5.35	100
24	69.64	16.07	7.14	3.57	3.57	100

Table 3 shows that students tend to read the whole text first to get the big picture. This is related to skimming strategy and falls under cognitive strategy. In addition, the students always read English texts at a glance then read carefully the entire text. Students preferred to use these two strategies when they are reading.

Table 4
Percentage of strategies choice in learning writing

Item No.	Percentage of Students' Strategy Choice (%)					
	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
25	25.00	21.42	33.92	3.57	10.71	100
26	46.42	8.92	21.43	14.28	8.92	100
27	33.92	48.21	12.50	1.78	3.57	100
28	51.78	16.07	17.85	16.07	3.57	100
29	12.50	28.57	23.21	32.14	3.57	100
30	58.92	7.14	14.28	17.85	1.78	100

Table 4 shows that the students always write free essay of some ideas they have in their mind. This strategy is noted with the highest percentage of students' choice in listening strategies. Besides, the students tried to use the vocabulary and grammar they already know rather than look up most of the words in a dictionary. These two strategies are the preferred strategies when they were learning writing.

To sum up, in terms of listening, it shows that 39 students (69.64%) kept listening to get clues as to what was meant if they do not understand. The students focussed on participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. This strategy is often used by students to keep the conversation going and to avoid interrupting the communication (Rubin, 1987). This strategy is a communicative strategy which refers to cognitive strategy. Besides, most students (38 students, 67.85%) watch English movie or listen to English songs to improve their listening ability. This activity confirms use of imagery or visual images (whether produced or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information. These results indicate that students use cognitive strategies.

For speaking, it can be concluded that 36 students (64.29%) rehearsed the situation in their head to make sure they can memorise dialogue for acting out in class. Moreover, 39 students (69.64%) always tried to say in English whatever they do in their dormitory or school environment. The students practised directly in speaking; so that they apply communicative-experiential strategy, which is a cognitive strategy (Rubin, 1987).

As for reading, 37 students (66.07%) used their knowledge of grammar to figure out unclear sentences or parts of sentences. This strategy is a metacognitive strategy. However, 39 students (69. 64%) read the whole text first to get the big picture and this skimming strategy is a cognitive strategy. In addition, 37 students used contextual clues (title, illustrations, layout, etc.) in order to figure out what the text is about. They read the text without really notice each new vocabulary. This activity shows that the students tends to employ compensation strategy.

For writing, it can be seen that 29 students (51.78%) tried to use the vocabulary and grammar they already know rather than look up most of the words in a dictionary. This is a cognitive strategy because the students used their knowledge in writing. In addition, 33 students (58. 92%) wrote free essays. They used several cognitive strategies: elaboration, linked ideas containing new information or integrated new ideas with information known and practised it, and used imagery and summarisation.

This study has yielded different findings as compared to other studies. Alfian (2016) found that the use of metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies was reported to be the most frequently used of all strategies. The strategies used by male participants are not different from those used by female. Students who succeed used more strategies than students who were less successful. Interview findings showed that successful language learners mostly practised the four language skills.

The effect of gender has been investigated by Ratna et al. (2001) who found that gender does not affect the learning strategies of social science students at a senior vocational school of Triyana Jakarta. Similar to this finding, Kyung (2003) found that female secondary students of Korean school showed more frequent use of all six strategies than males did.

The study done by Thu (2009) that examined language learning strategies used by successful English language learners as foreign and second languages can be compared with the results of this study. In Thu’s study, data from interviews and questionnaires showed that students used various strategies to learn to listen, read, speak, write, pronounce, grammar and vocabulary. It was also found that the strategies for vocabulary learning were more than those for other language skills and the fields under investigation. Social strategies are found to be widely used by students to improve their English. In addition, reported practices are the key to increasing the four language skills as well as pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

Conclusion

The learning strategies in listening dominantly used by students are: (1) the students keep listening because they may get clues as to what was meant if they do not understand; and (2) they watch English movies or listen to English songs for improving their listening ability. The dominant learning strategies used in speaking are: (1) they rehearse the situation in their head to make sure they can memorise dialogue for acting out in class; and (2) they try to say in English whatever they do in dormitory or in the school environment. The learning strategies in reading dominantly used by students are: (1) they use their knowledge of grammar to figure out unclear sentences or parts of sentences; (2) they read the whole text first to get the big picture; (3) they use contextual clues (title, illustrations, layout, etc.) in order to figure out what the text is about. Finally, the learning strategies in writing dominantly used by students are: (1) the students try to use the vocabulary and grammar they already know rather than look up most of the words in a dictionary; and (2) they write free essay of some ideas they have in their mind.

Based on the strategies mentioned above, the students use a lot of learning strategies in learning English. They are categorised into cognitive strategies, affective strategies, metacognitive strategies, compensation strategies, and social strategies. However, cognitive strategies become the highest preferences in each skill among the students of science eleventh grade in learning English.

The findings from this study are expected to help students in finding opportunities to use learning strategies to increase their English language skills. The English teachers should also uncover the students' preferred learning strategies. They should be able to encourage the students in choosing some learning strategies which are more effective for the students in order to achieve the learning goals. Teacher should know that his/her attitude and teaching style also influence the students' interest in learning English based on the learning strategies used by students. It is important for teachers to provide opportunities to students to reflect, communicate and socialize their experiences, increase their awareness of which strategies are useful for their tasks in solving problems.

The results of this study suggested that students should be trained to use learning strategies properly. They are also expected to use memory strategies since it may activate students' right brain function because they are trained to make a story, song or rhythm and images so that a material becomes something unique, interesting, and fun. The teacher should explain to students about the benefits of compensation strategy use in learning English. Thus, the students will find it easier to memorise vocabulary. Besides, the students may use metacognitive strategies in order to get self-reflection, self-responsibility and initiative as well as goal setting and time management. This research is expected to be a reference material and useful for academics; for senior high school students, teachers, researchers, and especially for students of English education department.

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ESL LEARNERS' LANGUAGE ERRORS IN A REFLECTIVE WRITING ASSESSMENT

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Manuscript received 15 March 2019
Manuscript accepted 17 May 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1291.2019

ABSTRACT

Perceived as one fundamental element in language learning, grammar is reckoned important in ESL writing. ESL learners need to master the knowledge of how to transfer grammatical concepts into their ESL composition. However, Malaysian learners of English often repeat errors in writing which they cannot even recognise. The current study draws attention to the occurrences of language errors and examines their sources in Malaysian ESL learners' writing. The participants were 40 students in their Semester 2 of diploma level. Each student was to produce two essays of 100-word length. Each essay was first examined before language errors were identified and coded based on the parts of speech: Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Articles, Pronouns, Prepositions, Adverbs, Conjunctions and Determiners. For each type of error, the sources were categorised based on interlingual and intralingual sources. A total of 258 errors were identified and the most frequent language errors was verb errors while the least was determiner errors. The result revealed that the most dominant errors were caused by intralingual sources. This study would greatly help teachers to establish better curriculum and select materials to facilitate students in learning English and develop them as proficient learners who can self-correct language errors.

Keywords: Error analysis, interlingual errors, intralingual errors, writing, ESL

Introduction

Complex and challenging in nature, writing is implicitly fathomed as the toughest language skill to come to grips with. After more than 10 years of learning English at both primary and secondary levels, these ESL learners still make various kinds of errors, not only in their choice of words and spelling but also in the use of grammar. The earlier proponent of Error Analysis (EA), Corder (1967), affirmed that errors are made by beginners of second or other languages learners who do not yet have a full command of the target language system. In relation to this, Putri and Dewanti (2014) claimed the learners cannot avoid grammatical errors in writing; they do not attend to those errors, and they do not know how to correct those errors.

Perceived as one fundamental element in language learning, grammar is deemed important in the process of writing. In view of this language learning issue, ESL learners need to master the knowledge on how to transfer concepts of English grammar into their writing composition. This is pertinent in order to minimise the number of language errors in the L2 learners' writing. Additionally, Singh, Singh, Razak, and Ravinthar (2017) stated that learners who understand grammatical concepts are at an advantage as English language has been made compulsory in our curriculum, and more importantly the toughest language skill, writing, is emphasised compared to listening, speaking and reading skills. In relation to this, Al-Sawalha and Chow's (2012) findings showed that learners' inabilities to perform their planning, editing and revising activities can be attributed to their lack of linguistic skill or vocabulary knowledge. This echoes Gustilo and Magno (2015) who reported that L2 learners' writing performance is directly dependent on their linguistic knowledge, hence urging teachers to put primary focus on this knowledge. Thus, it is evidently confirmed that inadequate linguistic knowledge or insufficient language competence negatively affect the quality of L2 writing on top of their English grades (Pae, 2018; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2012).

Analysis of errors is crucial due to its noteworthy contribution in the field of language learning and teaching. By providing an illustration of the common language errors made by these learners in writing, it alerts them to the types of common errors they frequently make. Instantaneously, language teachers will understand their students' errors, and this aids them in building educational techniques to improve students' level of English proficiency (Abushihab, 2014).

Problem Statement

Issues of ESL learners struggling to write well has long been a matter of concern in Malaysia. This is evident as Nunan (1999) asserts that ESL learners at the beginning strive to write in the target language, the one that is dissimilar from their first language; the task is even more challenging when these learners are expected to compose a well-developed and seemingly effortless writing. Several factors including L1 interference and linguistic incompetence predominantly in the concepts of grammar, make it difficult for the learners to write satisfactorily. This is supported by Ghabool, Mariadass, and Kashef (2012) who agree that the main cause of difficulties in accomplishing any written tasks is lack of English language proficiency.

Therefore, it is the learners' mother tongue and their incompetency in the use of the target language that lead them to more complicated problems when they are asked to produce any forms of writing.

Meanwhile, learners' behaviours and viewpoints concerning the target language contribute to writing problems too. One other study conducted by Ismail, Elias, Albakri, Perumal, and Muthusamy (2010) found that the writing apprehension level and attitudes of ESL tertiary students of MARA University of Technology played significant roles in determining students' writing performance; many were found apprehensive and have negative perceptions towards writing, thus impinging on their academic writing qualities. In relation to this, essential ingredients such as knowledge bases, attitudes, apprehension, strategy use, and self-efficacy are evident in shaping L2 writers' behaviours. These according to Chan and Abdullah (2004) are affect in writing which are deemed important in the development of effective writing.

Learners of English every so often repeat errors in writing which they cannot even recognise. The ones who can only help them to locate those errors are their language teachers and researchers. Additionally, the distinctive traits of errors which cannot be executed by self-correcting and is the result of a learner's target language inadequacy explain that errors are systematic. Hence, the gap between the learners' knowledge of the target language and the need of language use support the relevance of EA (Abushihab, 2014).

Low proficient ESL students (those whose school was categorised at credit 6, the second lowest level, based on Malaysian school ranking system) who possess limited vocabulary knowledge and grammatical incompetency have to be drawn against great challenges in writing (Sovakandan, Jaganathan, & Husain, 2018). This is in agreement with Mohamed and Darus's (as cited in David, Azman, & Tan, 2018) claim that the contributing factors to L2 learners' difficulties in performing written tasks are psychological, linguistic and cognitive aspects. In terms of the linguistic aspect, an L2 learner is required to construct grammatically correct sentences and to form the organisation of the points appropriately.

Errors on the use of nine parts of speech attracted the researchers the most because they are the basis for sentence construction of English language. The current study therefore, draws attention to the occurrences of language errors and further examines their sources in Malaysian ESL learners' writing. Thus, this study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1) To examine the frequency of language errors in ESL learners' written assessment.
2) To investigate the types of language errors in the writing of ESL learners.

Error Analysis in ESL Studies

Error analysis studies are not something new in the field of second language acquisition and Vásquez (2007) also states that error analysis is the central element in language teaching. By knowing common errors that learners always do, it helps to reorganise teachers' viewpoints and adapt their teaching methods to address the learners' gaps. There are two significant methods to study errors committed by learners; contrastive analysis which was introduced by Lado (1957) and error analysis by Corder (1967). However, the latter only emerged after the shortcomings of contrastive analysis had been pointed out by many researchers during that time.

In conducting error analysis research, there are five systematic procedures which are commonly practised by researchers and teachers (Corder, 1967). The first procedure is collecting samples from language learners. Once done, the errors in the samples are identified and then carefully described before they are categorised based on their nature and causes. Lastly, the severity of the errors is also assessed by the researchers or teachers.

It is of paramount importance to identify learners' recurring errors critically because the errors made will act as indicators on how much the learners have learned and also their progress in acquiring a language (Brown, 2000; Corder, 1967; Ringbom, 1987). Once the errors have been identified then, the sources which contribute to the errors would be known. This is where Richards (1971) proposed three sources of errors. The first source is interference errors where these errors are the results of elements used in one's language while speaking or writing. Secondly, intralingual errors and these errors are the reflections of general characteristics of rule learning like faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules, and failure to understand conditions in which rules apply. The third source of errors is developmental errors. These errors occur when hypothesis for the target language is drawn using learners' inadequate experiences in the target language.

However, the differences between the definitions given to the three sources (interference, intralingual and developmental) are fuzzy. Hence, in 1974, Richards narrowed the sources into two sources only. The first one is named interlingual source where mother tongue interference is claimed to be the cause of errors. Selinker (1974) then described interlingual errors as negative interference from the learners' mother tongue habits. For example, direct translation from their native language in their second language spoken and written work.

After the term interlingual was introduced by Richards (1974), there are numerous studies conducted on this source of errors. For instance, in Ying's study (as cited in Heydari & Bagheri, 2012), 120 Taiwanese EFL students' essays were scrutinised and the errors made were sorted based on three criteria; overgeneralisation, simplification and language transfer. The result showed that 1,250 errors detected in the essays and language transfer was the highest, 78.9%. Overgeneralisation was the second, 13.6% and the lowest error was simplification, 7.5%. Therefore, the findings here suggest that learners make a lot of errors due to language transfer.

In another study by Huang (2006), it is found that the learners' inclination to commit interlingual errors is high and the errors were on mechanics, style and grammar. These errors were transferred from the EFL students' mother tongue. When a learner learns a language, he is fully aware of his mother tongue and that the tendency of transferring what he already knew is very high. It could also be due to the parallel structure of the two languages; where this leads to "positive transfer" or "facilitation". In the case of different structures of the two languages, it would lead to "negative transfer" or "interference" (Wilkins, as cited in Mohideen, 1996).

For the second source which is intralingual, the errors arise in the second language learning process where learners have not completely mastered the knowledge. Richards (1974) identified four main types of intralingual errors which are overgeneralisation, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and hypothesis of false concepts. Errors can also transpire due to the difficulty of the language itself. Richards (1974) stated that intralingual errors are produced by the learners that do not reflect the structure of the first language, but overgeneralisation is made based on incomplete exposure to the target language.

There are also numerous studies carried out on intralingual source of errors like the one by Sattayatham and Honsa (2007). They found out that native language has quite a minimal impact on the second language where it affects only 3 to 25% of such errors but more errors are caused by intralingual sources. Another example comes from Kim (2001). She analysed errors in 30 writing samples of Korean college freshman students who registered for TOEIC class and it was discovered that most of the learners' errors were in the areas of verbs, prepositions, articles, singular/plural agreement, adjectives and conjunctions. These errors were all intralingual and only small instances could be attributed to first language interference. These findings are all parallel with Brown's (1994) claim that second language learners trail similar developmental outlines to children's first language acquisition. From these two different sources of errors, interlingual and intralingual, it can be concluded that second language learners initially produce huge number of interlingual errors. Nevertheless, as they progress in the target language acquisition process, more intralingual errors are portrayed (Brown, 1994).

Based on Corder (1974), error analysis studies could also contribute in three major aspects in second language development. Firstly, it can give various contributions to teachers especially in identifying learners' language acquisition progress. This claim is also in line with Richards (1971) who stated that from the errors analysis studies, teachers can identify areas to focus on in the second language classroom. By having this information, it would greatly help teachers to mould better curriculum and identify resources to assist the second language learning. This is also supported by Vahdatinejad (2008) who stated that from error analyses teachers can determine what learners still need to be taught. Secondly, error analysis studies can also back up researchers in acquiring evidence in language acquisition and the steps taken by learners in language learning stages. Finally, errors can act as a device to assist learners in their language learning process when they receive feedback from teachers on their errors (Alhaisoni, 2012).

Methodology

A total of 80 students from two classes were selected out of 625 students to participate in the research through a convenience sampling as they were easily accessible by the researchers throughout the course of the research (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). They were all in their second semester of a diploma program at a Malaysian public university. All the students were of a Malay background, spoke Malay as their first language and English as their second language. They had achieved a passing grade (grade C and above) in the English subject when they were in Semester 1, thus, were able to produce essays written in English. Each student was instructed to produce one essay each and the study collected 80 essays which were written in not more than 100 words. The error analysis was conducted following Corder's (1974) stages of error analysis (Vásquez, 2008). Each essay was first examined before errors in parts of speech were identified. Then, the errors were coded based on the specific parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions and determiners. The study only analysed individual errors made on the selected parts of speech and disregarded any syntactical errors.

Findings and Discussion

Table 1 shows that 258 errors were identified out of approximately 6,650 words produced by the students. The analysis reveals that verb errors (33.33%) were the most frequent while errors in the use of determiners (1.94%) were the least frequently produced by the students.

Table 1
Types of errors and the frequency of occurrence

Types of Errors	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Verbs	86	33.33
Nouns	49	18.99
Adjectives	31	12.02
Articles	29	11.24
Pronouns	28	10.85
Prepositions	18	6.98
Adverbs	6	2.33
Conjunctions	6	2.33
Determiners	5	1.94

Table 2 highlights examples of language errors based on the respective categories which have been extracted from students' essays. The analysis discloses that students committed errors most frequently when using verbs. In English, there are different rules for the use of singular and plural verbs, auxiliary verbs and tenses. One reason to explain the occurrence of such errors is differences between verb rules in English and Malay language as Richards (1974) has put forward that L1 interference results in learners' L2 errors. The findings are consistent with Singh et. al. (2017) who found that students often make subject-verb agreement and tense errors in ESL writing. The students in both studies also share the same background as most of them were Malay students and spoke the Malay language as their first language. One of the areas which pose difficulty and confusion to ESL learners is the subject-verb agreement where in the present tense the verb forms to receive inflection are third person singular forms (he/she/it).

Table 2
Samples of the most frequent and least frequent language errors

Types of errors	Extract from students' essays	Correction & Explanation
Verbs	1. Most business transactions were done via the Internet in today's digital age.	1. Most business transactions are done via the Internet in today's digital age. Explanation: 'today' marks that an action is going on at present, thus, the verb has to be in the simple present tense.
	2. Students can recording lectures using various applications.	2. Students can record lectures using various applications. Explanation: 'can' is a modal verb which must be followed by a base-form verb.
	3. I am strongly agree that attitude is an important factor of success.	3. I strongly agree that attitude is an important factor of success. Explanation: 'agree' is a verb used to state one's opinion and does not require a verb-to-be.
Determiners	1. He does not have many energy to carry out the tasks given by his boss.	1. He does not have much energy to carry out the tasks given by his boss. Explanation: The determiner 'many' is used with plural countable nouns. Since 'energy' is uncountable noun hence, the determiner 'much' is used.
	2. He only has a little time to enjoy his life.	2. He only has a few time to enjoy his life. Explanation: The determiner 'a few' is used with plural countable nouns. Since 'time' is an uncountable noun hence, the determiner 'a little' is used.
	3. She gets to improve her confidence in using English when she speaks the language to others people that she meets at conferences.	3. She gets to improve her confidence in using English when she speaks the language to other people that she meets at conferences. Explanation: A determiner 'other' can be used for a noun. As a determiner, 'other' does not have a plural form as in 'others'. Therefore, the correct form for the determiner is 'other'.

Larsen-Freeman and Celce-Murcia (1999) have identified the typical errors produced by ESL learners in relation to subject-verb agreement. When students become uncertain of the grammatical rules, they tend to simplify and leave the inflection that should appear in the verbs for third-person singular forms. The examples extracted from the students' essays analysed in the study clearly illustrate the claim made by Larsen-Freeman and Celce-Murcia (1999):

Sample 1
English sentence: Sasha <u>want</u> to protect her mother from his father.
(Sasha <u>wants</u> to protect her mother from his father.)
Malay translation: Sasha ingin melindungi ibunya daripada (dianiayai oleh) bapanya.

Sample 2
English sentence: He also need to stay all day on his wheelchair.
(He also needs to stay all day on his wheelchair.)
Malay translation: Dia juga perlu berada di atas kerusi rodanya sepanjang masa.

The sentence begins with Sasha (she) which requires the third-person singular inflection (-s) but the student has omitted the inflection. This is a common error that is produced by ESL learners as English is a subject-prominent language (Ansaldo, 2010) which marks subject-verb agreement while the Malay language which is the students' native language is topic-prominent (Ansaldo, 2010). An example of a subject-prominent Malay sentence given by Ansaldo (2010, p. 507) is as follows:

Malay sentence: Dia banyak cantik. (She very pretty)
English sentence: She is very pretty.

Nayan and Jusoff (2009) focused their study only on the use of subject-verb agreement among ESL students and concluded that the errors of English subject-verb agreement were due to students' lack of comprehension of the rule as their L1 (Malay language) does not posit rules in subject-verb agreement.

Although in the study determiners were discovered as the least frequent errors, the errors were reflection of the findings by Marlyna, Tan, and Khazriyati (2007) in which the students also used the wrong form of determiners. As English determiners are used with restriction to the types of nouns (countable and uncountable nouns), Malay students would face difficulties in using the particular word class accurately in writing. While quantifiers also act as determiners they can be placed before a noun, ESL learners must be able to differentiate between quantifiers for countable nouns and uncountable nouns as different rules apply to each of these (Seaton & Fergusson, 2010). Subramaniam and Khan (2013) identify that English determiners have been classified as the most problematic areas alongside subject-verb agreement and copula be. In the Malay language, the term for determiners is *kata bilangan* which are categorised in five types: (i) quantifiers that denote quantity and are present in cardinal numbers; (ii) quantifiers that indicate indefinite amount; (iii) quantifiers that are cumulative; (iv) quantifiers that indicate separations and (v) quantifiers that indicate fractions (Karim, Farid, Musa, & Mahmood, 2009). These differences between the rules of both languages pose difficulties to Malay ESL learners and as a result they produce errors as in the following example which was extracted from a student's essay:

> *English sentence: He does not have many energy to carry out the tasks given by his boss.*
> *(He does not have much energy to carry out the tasks given by his boss.)*
> *Malay translation: Dia tidak mempunyai banyak tenaga untuk melaksanakan tugasan-tugasan yang diberikan oleh ketuanya.*

In the Malay language, the quantifier "many" is equal to "banyak" which is a quantifier that indicates indefinite amount of things and can be used for both countable and uncountable nouns. As a consequence, the student has inaccurately applied his knowledge of L1 rules into the rules for English grammar.

Table 3
Frequency of interlingual and intralingual errors

Types of Errors	Frequency	Interlingual errors	Intralingual errors
Verbs	86	13	73
Nouns	49	18	31
Adjectives	31	5	26
Articles	29	5	24
Pronouns	28	5	23
Prepositions	18	8	10
Adverbs	6	1	5
Conjunctions	6	4	2
Determiners	5	0	5
Total	258	59 (22.87%)	199 (77.13%)

Richards (1974) proffered the idea that two main sources of errors are identifiable as interlingual errors engendered by L1 interference and intralingual errors which result from the lack of L2 knowledge. Based on the analysis of students' essays, the researchers identified the produced errors further than word-class errors. It is imperative to diagnose students' sources of errors as either interlingual (caused by first-language transfer) or intralingual (conflicting information of the second language) (Kaweera, 2013) so as to accommodate teaching content to students' actual deficiencies in grammatical knowledge and needs. Examples of interlingual and intralingual errors are as follows:

> *Interlingual error: People who are on diet should choose meals based on <u>pyramid food</u>.*
> *Malay translation: Mereka yang berdiet perlu memilih hidangan berpandukan*

piramid makanan.

Intralingual error: Women should be grateful and proud of their self. (Women should be grateful and proud of themselves.)
Malay translation: Wanita perlu bersyukur dan berasa bangga dengan diri sendiri.

This in-depth analysis which was conducted by identifying the similarities and differences between grammatical errors of English and Malay language has revealed that the dominant errors were caused by students' lack of English grammatical knowledge. Although there were errors due to their native language interference which is the Malay language but a higher percentage (77.13%) of the errors were intralingual errors. Our finding is supported by Ponmani and Mekala (2016) who concluded that intralingual errors had more impact on their students' application of English grammatical rules in writing. Similarly, Maniam and Rajagopal (2016) state that the students in their error-analysis study committed grammatical errors due to their lack of knowledge when applying rules of English grammar.

Conclusion

The data present nine types of grammatical errors made by ESL learners including errors in noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, article, determiner, preposition and conjunction. Based on the results of this study, grammatical errors were found to occur enormously in ESL learners' writing. Secondly, it is revealed that verb and noun errors were most common while the least were determiner errors. Although errors are inevitable among learners, these findings cogently confirm that the learners have a poor command of written English. Interestingly, Phuket and Othman (2015) stress that the errors made by the learners can inform teachers of their language learning progress. Hence, there is a need for teachers or instructors to pay attention to the most serious problems because solving the serious ones will accelerate students' progress in language learning. However, identification of language errors will be inadequate if no treatment is provided to support students' writing performance. Thus, class instructions should be reinforced with supplementary writing practices (Javed, Juan, & Nazli, 2013) to expose students to various types of writing in which students can apply their ESL knowledge in the writing exercises.

ESL teachers also need to integrate technology in the writing class to increase students' engagement in writing activities, for example, by developing mobile-assisted grammar practices which students can relate to their ESL writing development. This form of mobile-assisted learning does not only provide an entertaining learning atmosphere (Jin, 2014) but it also boosts learning motivation, provides a practical avenue to incorporate grammar input into learning, and helps teachers attain numerous teaching objectives (Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016). Furthermore, mobile applications have been perceived as effective in increasing students' awareness of their own language errors and the errors made by their peers (Li & Hegelheimer, 2013). In conclusion, ESL teachers should focus on students' English grammar proficiency particularly in their writing performance. Although students may only produce a minimal number of errors in each of their written assessments, it may engender egregious grammatical errors which will affect their production of written discourses which could also indicate overall teaching quality. Beason (2001) concludes that errors can hamper meaning and portray a negative image of a writer and organization.

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INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE AND L2 WRITING AMONG INTERMEDIATE-LEVEL ADULT TURKISH EFL LEARNERS

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Manuscript received 14 January 2019
Manuscript accepted 27 May 2019
https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1246.2019

ABSTRACT

The present study investigates the nature of metalinguistic knowledge among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, and the relationship between their metalinguistic knowledge and L2 writing in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. The participants of the present study are 78 intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners. The data collection instruments include Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), Productive Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (PMKT), Receptive Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (RMKT) (adapted from Ellis, 2009) and opinion essays of a smaller group of the participants. The results revealed that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners have moderate to high productive and metalinguistic knowledge. They are better at explaining why a L2 sentence is grammatically incorrect than referring to the exact grammar rule and using technical words for the grammatical features. The results also revealed that there is significant moderate correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and writing accuracy.

Keywords: Metalinguistic knowledge, L2 writing, complexity, accuracy, fluency

Introduction

On one hand, since the emergence of communicative approach to teaching and learning a second language (L2), communicative activities have come into prominence to enhance learners' fluency (Renou, 2001). Communicative language teaching, where the emphasis is on meaning as opposed to form or grammar, has enabled language learners to use the modern foreign language but de-emphasised accuracy and metalanguage (Alderson & Steel, 1994). Therefore, explicit L2 instruction has been glossed over (Gutierrez, 2013). In this sense, it is essential to consider the differences between learning one's mother tongue and learning a second language. For one, it is known that we learn our mother tongue without an awareness or knowledge about grammar (Renou, 2001). However, in learning a second language, linguistic accuracy is interrupted unless emphasis is placed on language form (Renou, 2001). Additionally, certain types of knowledge and skills in a second language may be difficult to obtain through untutored learning and thus require instruction (Gutierrez, 2013). Consequently, communicative language teaching has been criticised recently for neglecting attention to forms of language, and SLA research has begun to underscore the developmental value of "enhanced noticing" and "consciousness raising" in L2, paving the way for the language awareness movement to develop (Carter, 2003). Language awareness, also known as "knowledge about language", refers to "the consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (Carter, 2003, p. 64).

On the other hand, language education in monolingual countries, such as Turkey, generally relies on formal teaching and learning of the target language, as these countries are acquisition-poor environments, in which foreign language learners cannot find many opportunities to hear and speak the foreign language (Yeşilyurt, 2005). In addition, learners' inabilities to be proficient listeners and speakers of the foreign language may be associated with this acquisition-poor environment. As a result, language awareness and explicit knowledge of language, and thus the metalinguistic knowledge about the foreign language being learned, emerges as particularly important.

Regarding the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and foreign language proficiency, it is necessary to indicate that many researchers have stressed the importance of this issue even though some have not found clear evidence that metalinguistic knowledge contributes to the use of language in actual settings. Berry (2005), for example, points out that knowledge and use of metalanguage is likely to make the development of an L2 learner's metalinguistic awareness, which in turn is likely to foster second language development. Additionally, Zipke (2007) states that bilinguals' better ability to understand an unknown language compared to monolinguals may be attributed mostly to their greater metalinguistic awareness. Moreover, studies investigating learner strategies and good language learners reveal the benefits of metalinguistic skills such as treating language as a system and paying attention to form. Furthermore, some SLA researchers note usefulness of explicit L2 knowledge (Ellis, 1994; 2009). To exemplify, explicit L2 knowledge may make learners' establishment of links between form and meaning faster and thus facilitates L2 acquisition. It may also provide saliency for certain grammar features, which is likely to enable learners to notice them. In addition to this, explicit L2 knowledge may contribute to linguistic problem-solving where implicit knowledge is insufficient. It may help L2 learners to produce the target language consciously as well, which may turn into implicit learning through practice.

Although initial research in language awareness has shown findings on its behalf, some factors have been densely researched, such as "the role of metalanguage in learners' responses and whether metalinguistic knowledge can enhance or hinder language development" (Carter, 2003, p. 65). Of these limited number of studies, some found weak or no correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency, while some others found positive correlations. The results are inconclusive and thus it is not clear how metalinguistic knowledge contributes to SLA. Therefore, further research is needed on the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency in order to gain better insights into the role of metalinguistic knowledge in SLA development.

The purpose of this study is to find out the nature of metalinguistic knowledge that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners have developed, and to examine the relationship between their metalinguistic knowledge and L2 production, operationalised in writing. In this study, L2 production has been chosen instead of overall L2 proficiency because it is assumed to represent learners' implicit knowledge of the foreign language, which is commonly referred to as procedural knowledge due to the processes engaged in the development and use of non-declarative knowledge stores. In other words, the main concern of the present study is whether EFL learners are able to transfer their explicit knowledge (metalinguistic knowledge) to implicit knowledge or procedural knowledge (L2 production). L2 production is operationalised in writing (opinion essays) because it is believed to be easier to measure compared to oral production.

Literature Review

Considering that the main concern of the present study is whether EFL learners are able to transfer their explicit knowledge (metalinguistic knowledge) to implicit knowledge or procedural knowledge (L2 production), it is crucially important to clarify these terms first.

Explicit and Implicit L2 Knowledge

Prior to defining explicit and implicit knowledge, it is first necessary to make a distinction between explicit/implicit knowledge and explicit/implicit learning (Han & Ellis, 1998). Schmidt (1994) states that explicit/implicit learning indicates the learning process, whereas explicit/implicit knowledge refers to what learners obtain at the end of the learning process, or the innate knowledge that is not learned at all (as cited in Han & Ellis, 1998). When it comes to the difference between explicit and implicit L2 knowledge, the latter is simply "knowledge of language" (Han & Ellis, 1998, p. 5). Implicit L2 behaviour is evident in language behaviour and cannot be accessed independently of this behaviour (Bialystok, 1990). Mathews et al. (1989) maintain that implicit knowledge is memory-based rather than rule-based. Reber (1989), however, claims that implicit knowledge may be rule-based to some extent depending on Berko (1958), who reveals that child language learners are able to apply rules that they have internalised to new languages (as cited in Han & Ellis, 1998).

Explicit knowledge, on the other hand, is simply "knowledge about the L2" (Han & Ellis, 1998, p. 5). Han and Ellis (1998) break down explicit knowledge into analysed knowledge and metalanguage. Analysed knowledge is the knowledge about the L2 items and structures of which learners are not fully conscious, whereas metalanguage is the language used to describe or analyse the language of which learners are fully conscious. VanPatten and Benati (2010) state that declarative knowledge is sometimes used as a synonym for explicit knowledge. Declarative knowledge is defined as some kind of conscious awareness of the rules and the skill of verbalising what is known.

The two factors that distinguish implicit L2 knowledge from explicit L2 knowledge are accessibility and awareness (Han & Ellis, 198). Implicit knowledge is easily accessed in tasks that require fluent language performance, is unanalysed and thus held without awareness. Explicit knowledge, however, is not easily accessed without controlled effort and thus is employed in tasks requiring careful planning and monitoring. In addition to this, explicit knowledge is analysed and model-based and consequently held consciously. Furthermore, explicit knowledge may involve metalingual knowledge, which is addressed below along with its counterpart, metalinguistic knowledge.

Metalingual and Metalinguistic Knowledge

The term “metalingual” is used as the adjective of “metalanguage” although there is controversy over the uses of the two terms. Prior to dealing with this controversy, it is first necessary to define the term “metalanguage”. Having been the property of linguistics, philosophy, logic and semantics for long, the term “metalanguage” is currently found increasingly in the applied linguistics literature (Berry, 2005). It is used with reference to such issues as the language use of language teachers, language of pedagogic grammars and the relationship between language awareness and language learners’ proficiency. Berry (2005) stated that metalanguage is a language that is used to talk about, discuss, describe or make statements about a language. It may be used to talk about another language as well. In addition to these definitions, Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language (1996), a non-specialist source, describes metalanguage as “any language or symbolic system used to discuss, describe or analyse another language or symbolic system” (as cited in Berry, 2005, p. 5)

In this respect, “metalingual” is the knowledge or awareness of “metalanguage” (Berry, 2005; Ellis, 1994). Additionally, Dakowska (1993) and Ellis (1994) use the term “metalingual” for the knowledge and awareness of language, too. Berry (2005), however, uses the term “metalinguistic” for the knowledge and awareness of language. Gutierrez (2012) makes a distinction between metalinguistic knowledge and metalingual knowledge noting that metalinguistic knowledge is the explicit knowledge of the language. In this sense, metalinguistic knowledge and explicit knowledge are used interchangeably (Gutierrez, 2012). Gutierrez (2012) further states that metalinguistic knowledge is measured through identification of speech parts, identification and correction of errors and verbalisation of rules. Metalingual knowledge, on the other hand, is the knowledge of metalinguistic terminology or the knowledge of metalanguage. Considering this, metalingual knowledge can be measured checking whether learners use metalanguage to identify and correct errors.

Roehr (2007) points out “that metalinguistic knowledge has been operationalized as learners’ ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors” (p. 172). Metalinguistic awareness, on the other hand, is the conscious knowledge of the formal aspects of the language, specifically grammar (Renou, 2001). Some SLA researchers claim that metalinguistic awareness sheds light on the developing L2 competence (Arthur, 1980; Gass, 1994; Masny, 1991, as cited in Renou, 2001). Considering that metalinguistic awareness is often measured using grammaticality judgment tests and error correction and justification tasks, Kellerman (1986) and Sharwood Smith’s (1988) claim that learners’ ability to judge whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not shows their competence also supports the role of metalinguistic awareness in L2 competence (as cited in Renou, 2001). Moreover, Germain and Seguin (1995) maintain that metalinguistic awareness, operationalised as knowledge about grammar, is essential for a number of reasons. First of all, knowledge about grammar is important because L2 learners are required to sit for a variety of language exams that are based on explicit knowledge such as placement tests and proficiency exams. Second, metalinguistic awareness helps L2 learners better understand input. Third, knowledge about language enhances L2 learners’ motivation and reduces stress in learning a L2. Furthermore, Andrews (2005) signifies that metalinguistic awareness, which is the awareness of the language itself, its structures and functions, enables the speakers of a language to think about and use that language consciously. Similarly, Kuile and Weldhuis (2010) state that metalinguistic awareness is likely to provide learners of a L2 with the ability to discuss different ways of using that language. Lack of metalinguistic awareness, on the other hand, may result in difficulty in comprehending the structure of a language (Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

The Relationship between Metalinguistic Knowledge and L2 Proficiency

Research on the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge/awareness and L2 proficiency dates back to Steel and Alderson (1994), in which a battery of tests of metalinguistic knowledge, language aptitude, grammatical accuracy in French and French linguistic proficiency were constructed and the relations amongst these measures were explored. In this study, moderate correlations were found between metalinguistic knowledge and French grammatical accuracy, and metalinguistic knowledge and language aptitude. However, proficiency in French reading did not correlate with either aptitude or metalinguistic knowledge but was correlated with French grammatical accuracy only moderately. These preliminary findings indicate that metalinguistic knowledge makes almost no contribution to L2 proficiency. Subsequently, Alderson, Clapham, and Steel (1997) administered the battery to first-year students of French in six more British universities this time. As a result, the relationship metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency was reported to be weak. They note that there is no evidence to support the belief that students with the highest metalinguistic knowledge will perform better at French or develop their French at a high rate than others.

On the other hand, there have been some other studies that found a significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency. Renou (2000), for instance, found that the participants who had been exposed to grammar approach were better at correcting grammar rules and providing the rule in a judgment test created to assess metalinguistic awareness. Additionally, a significant correlation was found between the judgment test and a proficiency test, which indicates that metalinguistic awareness may have a role in L2 proficiency. Renou (2001) revised her study and found a moderate significant correlation between both oral and written versions of the judgment test and French proficiency for the entire sample. However, the correlation was non-significant for the participants who had been exposed to communicative approach, whereas it remained significant and even increased in the case of the participants who had been exposed to grammar approach. In other words, increases in metalinguistic awareness are associated with increases in proficiency once learners have been exposed to explicit grammar instruction; however, indicating that metalinguistic awareness may be only one of the factors influencing L2 development along with many others. In a different L2 environment, Elder and Manwaring (2004) also investigated the role of metalinguistic knowledge in learning a foreign language among Chinese second language learners. Results revealed that L2 metalinguistic knowledge is low among Chinese second language learners. However, surprisingly, the participants who had studied L2 for a shorter term performed better in grammatical knowledge. With regard to the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 performance, the relationship was stronger for the late-starters than the participants who had studied L2 for a longer time, indicating that late-starters are more reliant on grammatical knowledge for L2 success. In another L2 context, Roehr (2007) carried out an investigation to find out the relationship between L2 proficiency and L2 metalinguistic knowledge among advanced university-level English learners of German. The secondary aim of the current study is to investigate the relationship between the ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors and language-analytic ability, which refers to the ability to identify the grammatical role of parts of speech in L2 sentences. Consequently, a strong positive correlation was found between L2 proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge. Another important finding of the current study is that the ability to correct, describe and explain L2 errors and the ability to identify the grammatical of parts of speech in L2 sentences may be the components of the same complex construct: metalinguistic awareness. Alipour (2014), investigated the issue among university-level Iranian EFL learners. As a result of a bivariate regression analysis, a moderate significant relationship was found between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency (operationalised as grammar knowledge assessed by a cloze test) among Iranian EFL learners. Tokunaga (2014), reported that the participants (low-intermediate level Japanese university students) had difficulty identifying basic parts of speech and parts of sentences, which suggests that many of them lack the metalinguistic knowledge. In addition to this, significant correlations were found between the participants' proficiency test scores and metalinguistic knowledge, with the strongest correlation being between reading scores and metalinguistic knowledge. Similarly, Wistner (2014) investigated metalinguistic knowledge, language learning aptitude, and L2 procedural knowledge among Japanese learners of English using the Rasch model and structural equation modelling. He found that metalinguistic knowledge and language learning aptitude are two distinct factors, and metalinguistic knowledge statistically predicted L2 procedural knowledge (writing) in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency, whereas language learning aptitude was not a statistically significant predictor of those variables.

More recently, Gutierrez (2016) examined the two components of explicit knowledge, namely, analysed knowledge and knowledge of metalanguage, and their relationship to different skills and aspects of L2 proficiency. The findings revealed that the analysed knowledge is significantly correlated with more components of L2 proficiency than knowledge of metalanguage. It is reported that these results point to a larger role of analysed knowledge in L2 proficiency than of knowledge of metalanguage. In another recent study, Aydın (2018) found that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners studying at a large-scale Turkish university had L2 metalinguistic knowledge. In addition, a correlation analysis and a series of bivariate and multiple regression analyses revealed that L2 metalinguistic knowledge significantly contributes to L2 writing achievement explaining 19.9% of the variance in participants' writing exam scores.

In sum, a review of the studies investigating the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge/awareness and L2 proficiency reveals that there is controversy over this research area. However, a good number of research studies underscore the importance of metalinguistic knowledge in L2 development especially in the case of L2 learners who have been exposed to explicit grammar instruction. Still, related research is limited, and varies especially in terms of L1-L2 combinations. Therefore, further research is required to gain better insights into this controversial issue, which is likely to contribute to L2 development.

Methodology

This quantitative study has two phases. The first phase investigates the nature of metalinguistic knowledge that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners have developed, whereas the second phase explores the relationship between L2 metalinguistic knowledge and writing complexity, accuracy and fluency.

Participants

Convenience sampling was employed and 78 Turkish EFL students from five intact classes, who were studying at a state university in Turkey, participated in the present study. The participants were between 18 and 22 years old. They were all monolinguals with their native language being Turkish, and no participant included in the current study had an extended stay in an English-speaking country. They had been learning English for almost ten years and reported having been exposed to mostly explicit grammar instruction throughout those years. It is worth noting that the participants seldom have contact with native speakers in authentic listening and speaking situations.

Instruments

Three instruments were employed for the purposes of the present study. The first instrument is Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT), which gives information about students' language ability in relation to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), and thus is widely used in research (Wang & Treffers-Daller, 2017). The OQPT is appropriate for the purposes of the present study because it consists of question types that the participants are familiar with and provides item variety. It measures L2 learners' English vocabulary knowledge such as word meanings, collocations, synonyms and antonyms, and phrases, and grammar knowledge such as tense, passive voice and counterfactual knowledge. The maximum score students can obtain is 60. The time allocated for the OQPT is 30-45 minutes.

Second, the researcher developed a Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (MKT), measuring the explicit knowledge of the participants about their foreign language. The MKT consists of two sub-tests, namely, Productive Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (PMKT) and Receptive Metalinguistic Knowledge Test (RMKT). The PMKT (adapted from Ellis, 2009) consists of 17 English sentences that are grammatically incorrect. The participants were asked to a) underline the incorrect part of the sentence, b) correct the sentence, and c) explain why it is incorrect referring to the grammar rules. The grammatical structures included in the PMKT are verb complements, regular past tense, yes/no questions, modal verbs, indefinite article, possessive 's, plural –s, third person –s, comparatives and superlatives, adverb placement, since/for, relative clauses, unreal conditionals, question tags, ergative verbs, embedded questions and questions without auxiliaries. These structures (except the questions without auxiliaries) were chosen based on the Marsden study, which was built on the Han and Ellis (1998), and aimed to develop a battery of tests that would provide relatively separate measures of implicit and explicit knowledge. It is worth noting that the participants are assumed to know all of these 17 structures because all of these structures are included in the grammatical content of the participants' current textbook or in that of the lower levels.

The PMKT was scored in terms of rule explanation, on a 4-point Likert scale (0, 1, 2, 3), and technical language use, on a 3-point Likert scale (0, 1, 2). Rule explanation refers to the participants' ability to recognise the incorrect part and correct it explaining the grammar rule. Technical language use, on the other hand, refers to the participants' knowledge of metalanguage and the other technical terms that can be used to explain the grammar rules. Table 1 shows the scoring procedures. Therefore, the scores that could be obtained from each question in the PMKT range between 0 and 5, making the maximum score 85 (17x5). It is also worth mentioning that the technical words that the participants were expected to use in their rule explanation were listed for each question, and this was used as a rubric in scoring technical language use. One third of the PMKT papers (N=26) were graded by two raters (a co-rater along with the researcher) who negotiated on the discrepancies and tried to completely agree on each question for each participant. The co-rater was an experienced English instructor, who had been working at the same institution for 12 years and worked in testing unit for a long time. The researcher rated the rest of the papers on her own but negotiated with the co-rater when problems arose.

Table 1
Scoring Procedures for the PMKT

	Rule Explanation	**Technical Language Use**
0	The grammatical error is underlined only.	No technical terms
1	The grammatical error is underlined and the correct sentence is written.	There is only 1 technical term in the rule explanation.
2	Either the correction or the rule explanation is partial.	There are two and more technical terms in the rule explanation.
3	Both the correction and the rule explanation are complete.	-

The RMKT consists of a 231-word reading text (adapted from http://www.esl-lounge.com/student/reading-intermediate.php) and a list of 25 grammatical features. The participants were asked to find one example of each grammatical feature from the reading text. The participants were also asked to write the line of the example they found because there was more than one example for some of the grammatical features. The grammatical structures covered in the RMKT were the same with the ones in the PMKT. Concerning the scoring of the RMKT, the correct examples received 1 point, while the incorrect ones received 0, making the maximum score 25.

For reliability and validity concerns, expert opinion was gathered for the PMKT and the RMKT. The experts were five experienced English instructors and one English Language Teaching (ELT) professor. Additionally, the two tests were piloted with a group of 17 EFL learners at the same institution, who were sharing similar features with the actual participants of the present study. The reliability of the PMKT and RMKT was α=.87 and α=.90, respectively. In addition, a significantly positive strong relationship was found between the PMKT and the RMKT, r=.848, p<0.01.

The reading text in the RMKT had already been simplified to ensure that the participants would comprehend it easily; however, the participants in the pilot study were asked several comprehension questions to check its comprehensibility, and no problems were encountered. As a result of the pilot study, some minor changes (lexical and grammatical alterations) were made in the PMKT as well, and instructions were prepared for the participants.

The PMKT and the RMKT were both untimed tests, which means that test takers could answer the questions at their own pace. A practice item was provided for each test in the beginning.

Third, 38 of the participants were asked to write opinion essays (second phase of the study). The topic was as: “People don’t need to learn a foreign language because computers can translate all languages. Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Use specific reasons and examples to support your answer.” It was a timed in-class writing task. The participants had to complete the task in one class hour (40 minutes). The essays were first graded using a holistic rubric (poor, inadequate, adequate, good, and very good). Then they were graded on the Profile of Larsen-Freeman (2006). Larsen-Freeman (2006) conducted an in-depth analysis on English language learners' performance. Through her study, Larsen-Freeman (2006) introduced a profile, which utilised T-units in assessing both oral and written language productions in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Larsen-Freeman (2006) defined writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency as follows:

1) Complexity: The total number of clauses divided by the total number of T-units.
2) Accuracy: The proportion of error-free T-units to total T-units (in terms of lexical, morphological, and syntactic errors).
3) Fluency: The average number of words per T-unit.

According to Housen and Kuiken (2009), "CAF (Complexity-Accuracy-Fluency) have been used both as performance descriptors for the oral and written assessment of language learners as well as indicators of learners' proficiency underlying their performance; they have also been used for measuring progress in language learning" (p. 461).

The T-units, on the other hand, were determined based on the T-unit Guideline developed by Polio (1997). "A T-unit is defined an independent clause and all its dependent clauses" (Polio, 1997, p. 138). T-units are usually utilised to analyse written and spoken discourse because research has revealed that T-units are strongly correlated to language proficiency (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998).

All of the essays were rated by the researcher and the same co-rater who also rated the PMKT. The raters used the "Guidelines for T-units, Clauses, Word Counts and Errors" by Polio (1997) in rating the essays. The raters negotiated and tried to reach a complete agreement on each essay.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection took three weeks. In the first week, the OQPT was administered. In the second week, the PMKT and the RMKT were administered. The PMKT was administered before the RMKT because the grammatical features in the RMKT would have affected how the participants explained the grammatical rule for the incorrect parts of the sentences if they had been administered the RMKT before the PMKT. Finally, in the third week, the participants wrote the opinion essays.

Results

What is the Nature of Metalinguistic Knowledge that Intermediate-level Adult Turkish EFL Learners have Developed?

To begin with, the participants' scores from the OQPT, PMKT (rule explanation and use of technical words) and RMKT were computed, and the descriptive statistics were calculated (See Table 2).

Table 2
Descriptive statistics: OQPT, PMKT and RMKT

	Full Score	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
OQPT	60	21	54	30.97	6.18
PMKT	85	15	70	40.64	14.28
RMKT	25	1	23	12.45	5.73
Rule Explanation	51	4	44	27.49	9.12
Use of Technical Words	34	0	26	13.15	5.93

Once the descriptive statistics were calculated, tests of normality were carried out for the OQPT, PMKT and RMKT, and the extreme values were found. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2012), the Skewness Kurtosis values must be between -1.5 and +1.5 for a test to be considered to have normal distribution so that parametric tests can be conducted. The tests of normality revealed that the PMKT and RMKT showed normal distribution, while the OQPT did not.

For the OQPT, it is clear that the participants' language abilities differed although all of them had been placed at the same proficiency level (Intermediate). Ten of the participants were at pre-intermediate level; 54 participants were at intermediate level; 13 participants were at upper-intermediate level, and one participant was at advanced level according to their scores from the OQPT. It is possible that the participants had made varying levels of progress in terms of their language abilities since the beginning of the term (for six to seven weeks).

As to the PMKT and RMKT, when we look into the quartiles and the interquartile ranges, as shown in Table 3, 21 participants who obtained 29 and less from the PMKT are low achievers, and they make up 27 percent of the whole sample. Thirty-eight participants (or 49 percent of sample) obtained between 30 and 52 from the PMKT are moderate achievers. Nineteen participants (or 24 percent) obtained 53 and more from the PMKT are high achievers. When it came to the RMKT, 19 participants (or 24 percent) obtained seven and less are low achievers. Thirty-eight participants (or 49 percent) got between 8 and 16 from the RMKT were moderate achievers. Twenty-one participants (or 27 percent) scored 17 and more from the RMKT were high achievers.

Table 3
Quartiles and the interquartile range: PMKT and RMKT

	Q1	N	P	Q2	N	P	Q3	N	P
PMKT	29-	21	27%	30-52	38	49%	53+	19	24%
RMKT	7-	19	24%	8-16	38	49%	17+	21	27%

Second, in order to find out if the participants' productive and receptive metalinguistic knowledge significantly differed from each other, their scores from the PMKT and RMKT were first converted to 100 to equalise them. Then a paired samples t-test was carried out. The results revealed that although the participants performed slightly better in the PMKT (*M*=47.82, *SD*=16.74) than in the RMKT

(*M*=49.79, *SD*=22.92), this difference was not statistically significant, t (77)=-1.025, p=.308.

Third, a correlation analysis was carried out in order to see the relationships among the participants' language ability and productive and receptive metalinguistic knowledge (See Table 4). A significant weak correlation was found between OQPT and PMKT, r=.248, p<0.05. This finding suggests that as EFL learners' language ability increases, their productive metalinguistic knowledge may increase as well. In addition, a significant high-to-moderate correlation was found between PMKT and RMKT, r=.672, p<0.01. This finding indicates that EFL learners' productive metalinguistic knowledge and receptive metalinguistic knowledge go hand in hand.

Table 4
Correlation analysis: OQPT, PMKT and RMKT

	OQPT	PMKT	RMKT
OQPT	1	.248*	.107
PMKT		1	.672**
RMKT			1

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

The two types of scores that the participants obtained from the PMKT, namely, Rule Explanation and Use of Technical Words, were also compared. First, they were converted to 100 as the scoring procedures varied (See Table 1). Then a paired samples *t*-test was run. Results revealed a statistically significant difference between the participants' scores from the PMKT in terms of rule explanation (*M*=53.90, *SD*=17.88) and use of technical words (*M*=38.69, *SD*=17.45), t (77)=22.10, p<.001. This finding indicates that the participants performed significantly better in the rule explanation than in the use of technical words. In other words, the participants were able to explain why a L2 sentence is grammatically incorrect without much use of metalanguage.

What is the Relationship between L2 Metalinguistic Knowledge and Writing Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency?

As stated above, 38 EFL learners participated in the second part of the present study and they were asked to write opinion essays. Of these 38 participants, those who were either below or above intermediate level according to their scores from the OQPT, were excluded from the final data set. Therefore, the sample size shrank to 27 for the second part of the present study.

In order to find out the CAF measures (complexity, accuracy and fluency), the total number of T-units, error-free T-units, clauses and words were calculated for each of the 27 essays. To find out complexity, the total number of clauses was divided by the total number of T-units. For accuracy, the total number of error-free T-units was divided by the total number of T-units. As to the fluency, lastly, the total number of words was divided by the total number of T-units. Thus, each participant had a complexity, an accuracy and a fluency score. These scores were computed and the descriptive statistics were calculated (See Table 5).

Table 5
Descriptive statistics: CAF measures

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Complexity	1.14	2.69	1.54	.27
Accuracy	.18	.88	.54	.17
Fluency	8.25	20.15	12.07	2.32

After that, for the purpose of standardisation, these scores were converted into z-scores, which is a standard score used to measure how many standard deviations below or above the mean a raw score is, and then into t-scores (50+10z). A correlation analysis revealed that there were negative but non-significant correlations between complexity and accuracy, and accuracy and fluency (See Table 6). The correlation analysis also revealed a high positive significant correlation between complexity and fluency, $r=.788$, $p<0.01$, which indicates that the more complex an EFL learner's writing is, the more fluent it is.

Table 6
Correlation analysis: CAF measures

	Complexity	Accuracy	Fluency
Complexity	1	-.223	.788**
Accuracy		1	-.312
Fluency			1

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

This standardisation also enabled us to compare the participant's scores from these three separate measures. Three sets of paired samples t-tests displayed that although the participants' essays were slightly more complex than being accurate and fluent, there were no statistically significant differences across their scores from the complexity ($M=50.04$, $SD=10.53$), accuracy ($M=48.89$, $SD=9.74$) and fluency ($M=48.89$, $SD=10.40$) measures.

To find out the relationship between L2 metalinguistic knowledge and writing complexity, accuracy and fluency, another correlation analysis was conducted with the variables being PMKT, RMKT and the CAF measures. As Table 7 displays, PMKT does not correlate with any of the CAF measures significantly, indicating that there is not a significant relationship between productive metalinguistic knowledge and complexity, accuracy and fluency of writing among intermediate level adult Turkish EFL learners. However, there is a significant moderate correlation between RMKT and accuracy of writing, $r=.405$, $p<0.05$. This finding suggests that as receptive metalinguistic knowledge increases, so does accuracy of writing among intermediate level adult Turkish EFL learners.

Table 7
The relationship between L2 metalinguistic knowledge and writing complexity, accuracy and fluency

	PMKT	RMKT	Complexity	Accuracy	Fluency
PMKT	1	.706**	-.107	.283	-.265
RMKT		1	-.186	.405*	-.042

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

Discussion

The present study was conducted to find out the nature of metalinguistic knowledge among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, and the relationship between this knowledge and the complexity, accuracy and fluency of their writing. Writing was specifically chosen because it is the embodiment of L2 production, and is easier to measure objectively compared to speaking. The present study revealed that the participants differed in their general language ability although they had all been placed at intermediate level at their school. In interpreting this preliminary finding, it should be considered that the placement test used as a data collection instrument in the present study (OQPT) was administered to the participants almost two months after the term began. In other words, they had been studying at intermediate level for almost two months when the present study was being conducted. In this sense, it is likely that the participants made varying levels of progress in terms of their overall language ability. Some seem to have kept up with the learning objectives and the requirements of the proficiency level that their school placed them, while some others have made far more progress, and still some others seem to have deteriorated with regard to their general L2 ability.

The findings also suggest that despite the variation in the participants' general language ability, they seem to be similar to each other in terms of their metalinguistic knowledge. The statistical analyses signal that the participants of the present study are high to moderate achievers of metalinguistic knowledge. In addition, their productive metalinguistic knowledge and receptive metalinguistic knowledge are quite similar to each other. These findings indicate that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners are able to notice the grammatical inaccuracy in a L2 sentence, correct it and explain why it is incorrect referring to the grammar rules, and they can also recognise metalinguistic terms and show examples for them in a text. Furthermore, their productive metalinguistic knowledge and receptive metalinguistic knowledge are strongly related to each other. Apparently, these two different knowledge types feed each other in this case. Therefore, it can be maintained that the more chances are provided for EFL learners to produce metalinguistic explanations in a foreign language, the more likely they are to recognise the metalinguistic structure of that language. Similarly, the more awareness is raised for learners of the metalinguistic structure of a foreign language, the better they are likely to become at producing metalinguistic explanations in that foreign language. However, although the participants did not differ in their performance in the PMKT and RMKT, they performed significantly better in the rule explanation than in the use of technical words in the PMKT. This finding indicates that although the participants were able to recognise the linguistic terms in the RMKT as well as they were able to correct a grammatically inaccurate L2 sentence along with explaining why it was incorrect, their performance with regard to using linguistic terms in their explanations was not good enough. In other words, the findings of the present study indicate that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners can recognise examples of metalanguage in a text; however, they cannot produce them on their own. Additionally, findings of the present study point out a significant correlation between general L2 ability and productive metalinguistic knowledge. This means that as the productive metalinguistic knowledge increases, so does the general L2 ability, or vice versa. In this sense, it is possible for productive metalinguistic knowledge to have a positive effect on general language ability. In this sense, the present study appears to be in line with Renou, (2000; 2001), Elder and Manwaring, (2004), Alipour, (2014) and Tokunaga, (2014), who have found a significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency. However, as far as the Turkish context is concerned, the findings of the present study do not corroborate Yeşilyurt (2005), who did not find any significant evidence for the role of metalinguistic knowledge in foreign language proficiency. This difference may be because in Yeşilyurt (2005) foreign language proficiency was measured using multiple-choice tests for reading, listening and language structure, and the participants were asked to write a paragraph (100-150 words) for the writing test. This means that the participants produced very little; therefore, it does not seem much possible for this study to find out the role of metalinguistic knowledge in the actual use and production of language.

For the second part of the study, a smaller group of participants wrote opinion essays. Of them those whose OQPT scores did not fall in the intermediate-range were excluded from the present study in order to reach at more reliable and robust findings. It was found that the participants were similar to each other in terms of the complexity, accuracy and fluency of their writing. As to the interrelationships among these three different measures, the findings need to be interpreted cautiously, as the sample size is not large enough. The findings indicate that writing accuracy negatively correlates to complexity and fluency, which is necessary to emphasize although it is statistically non-significant probably because of the small sample size. This finding suggests that as the complexity, namely the proportion of clauses to T-units, and fluency, namely the number of words per T-units, increase, intermediate adult Turkish EFL learners participating in this study are likely to make more grammatical mistakes. It is possible that EFL learners may have not been able to fully internalize the grammar rules they have been taught. It is also possible that they may be much more successful in a multiple-choice grammar test than they are in writing where they are supposed to transform declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, or where they need to make use of metalinguistic knowledge rather than linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, complexity and fluency are significantly strongly correlated. This finding is expected because of the way complexity and fluency have been defined in this study. In other words, because complexity and fluency are concerned with the proportion of clauses to the total number of T-units and words to the total number of T-units respectively, it is not surprising that they have direct relationship to a great extent.

As to the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and complexity, accuracy and fluency of writing among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners, the only significant correlation is between receptive metalinguistic knowledge and writing accuracy. This finding indicates that as the receptive metalinguistic knowledge increases among intermediate level adult Turkish EFL learners, their writing accuracy increases as well. It seems that productive metalinguistic knowledge also has a positive relationship with writing accuracy although it is statistically non-significant. These findings along with the significant correlation between productive metalinguistic knowledge and writing accuracy suggest that overall metalinguistic knowledge seems to be related to writing accuracy. These findings may also suggest that metalinguistic knowledge is likely to have a positive effect on writing accuracy. However, the small sample size recruited for the second part of the present study prevents us from reaching at more reliable and generalisable findings.

Regarding the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 writing, the findings of the present study are congruent with those of Wistner (2014) to some extent. Wistner (2014) found that metalinguistic knowledge statistically predicted L2 writing in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency, whereas the present study found a significant correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and writing accuracy only. The differences between the two studies may be attributed to the CAF measures, the sample size and the statistical procedures employed. First of all, in the present study, each of CAF measures refers to one single thing. Complexity refers to the proportion of clauses to T-units; accuracy refers to the proportion of error-free T-units to the total number of T-units, and fluency refers to the proportion of words to the T-units. In Wistner (2014), however, complexity refers to word per T-unit, words per dependent clauses, clauses per T-unit and dependent clauses per clause; fluency refers to number of T-units and clauses and word per T-units; accuracy refers to words per error-free T-units, error-free T-units per T-units and error-free clauses per clause. Apparently, they are more complex and thoroughly defined, and thus may have measured what they were supposed to measure better. In other words, the CAF measures in Wistner (2014) appear to be more valid. Second, the sample size in Wistner (2014) is large, which made it possible to reach at more reliable and generalizable findings. Lastly, the larger sample size and the strong correlations between the dependent and independent variables also made it possible to carry out advanced statistical procedures such as Rash analysis and SEM, which revealed more robust and conclusive results.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the current study can contribute to the importance of metalinguistic knowledge in second language acquisition among adult EFL learners, which has been regaining attention recently after having been overshadowed by communicative language teaching for a long time. Metalinguistic knowledge is likely to enable teachers and learners to explain, clarify, practice, use and reflect on the use of the target language, which will improve their understanding of linguistic constructs.

Considering that metalinguistic knowledge benefits language learning, teachers may help learners to connect their metalinguistic knowledge to language production in the forms of production exercises and writing tasks so that they can learn target grammar structures more easily and reinforce what they have already learned. Teachers can show learners how the written language may be a good source of information about the formal aspects of the language, which is likely to enhance critical reflection and thus learner autonomy. Additionally, they can encourage learners to produce the language making use of their both linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge. Regarding that grammatical analysis is necessary for accurate language production (Swain & Lapkin, 1995, as cited in Roehr, 2000), teachers can carry out brainstorming activities in which they tap learners' opinions of why a certain grammar form is appropriate in one context but not in another (Roehr, 2000). Moreover, grammaticality judgment tasks can be employed in foreign language classes to focus learners' attention on formal aspects of the target language and raise awareness without formal grammar instruction. Furthermore, L2 teachers may provide metalinguistic knowledge and use metalanguage in class for L2 learners' good during self-study, and in order to enable them to gain access to accounts in grammar materials (Berry, 2001),

On the other hand, as Gutierrez (2013) and Elder and Manwaring (2004) note, metalinguistic knowledge may be useful for some structures but not for others. Therefore, teachers should be careful in selecting L2 structures to focus on. Moreover, while focusing on form and attempting to raise awareness of the target language, teachers should try not to trivialise the role of meaning and communicative purposes for learning a foreign language. In addition to this, learners' L1 background and L1 metalinguistic and metalingual awareness should also be taken into consideration because it may be easier for learners to grasp some aspects of the target language once they are familiar with metalinguistic and metalingual aspects of their native language.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the nature of metalinguistic knowledge among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners and the relationship between this knowledge and L2 production, operationalised in a writing task. Metalinguistic knowledge was assessed both productively and receptively. For the productive metalinguistic knowledge, the participants were asked to read 17 grammatically incorrect L2 sentences, and underline the incorrect part, correct it, and explain why it was incorrect referring to the rule and using technical words. For the receptive metalinguistic knowledge, the participants were required to read a short text in English and find examples for a list of 25 grammatical features. The findings of the present study revealed that intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners participating in the present study appear to have moderate to high metalinguistic knowledge, and their productive metalinguistic knowledge and receptive metalinguistic knowledge did not significantly differ from each other. The findings also revealed that the participants were better at explaining why the sentences in the productive metalinguistic knowledge test were grammatically incorrect than they were at referring to the exact rule and using technical words. Furthermore, a significant moderate correlation was found between the participants' metalinguistic knowledge and their writing accuracy.

The findings of the present study suggest a positive relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and grammatical accuracy in writing among intermediate-level adult Turkish EFL learners. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers may help learners to connect their metalinguistic knowledge to language production in the forms of production exercises and writing tasks so that they can learn target grammar structures more easily and reinforce what they have already learned. However, the findings of the present study may be considered somehow inconclusive because of the CAF measures and the small sample size. Considering the significance of metalinguistic knowledge for EFL learners and the limitations of the existing studies including the current one, further research is needed.

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KATA KERJA DAN HUBUNGAN LEKSIKAL DALAM IKLAN PRODUK KECANTIKAN WANITA

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Manuscript received 11 February 2019
Manuscript accepted 24 April 2019
https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1404.2019

ABSTRAK

Iklan komersial adalah satu bentuk pembujukan dalam usaha mempengaruhi khalayak sasaran tentang pandangan atau keputusan membeli. Iklan produk kecantikan wanita merupakan salah satu daripadanya. Analisis dilakukan pada iklan dua jenama terkenal, iaitu D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty dengan fokus analisis pada kata kerja yang digunakan dalam slogan dan keterangan produk kecantikan muka. Kajian ini bertitik tolak daripada kajian yang telah dilakukan oleh Leech (1966) tentang kata kerja yang lazim digunakan dalam iklan. Kajian ini mempunyai dua objektif, iaitu mengenal pasti kata kerja yang lazim digunakan dan menganalisis hubungan leksikal yang wujud pada kata kerja yang lazim digunakan. Terdapat empat metod yang diaplikasi, iaitu kajian pustaka, syot layar, analisis frekuensi dan analisis teks. Dapatan kajian ini memperlihatkan antara kata kerja yang lazim digunakan dalam iklan kecantikan muka adalah "mencerah/mencerahkan", "merawat", "membantu" dan "melembap/melembapkan". Hubungan leksikal yang terbentuk daripada kekerapan kata kerja yang digunakan membentuk lapan kelompok sinonimi dan tiga kelompok antonimi. Kesimpulannya, pengiklan memilih kata yang tepat dalam mempengaruhi khalayak sasaran dan bermakna positif sebagaimana yang dinyatakan oleh Leech (1966) dan Dyer (1982).

Kata kunci: kata kerja, hubungan leksikal, iklan, produk kecantikan.

VERBS AND LEXICAL RELATION IN WOMEN'S BEAUTY PRODUCT ADVERTISEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Commercial advertising is a form of persuasion to influence the opinions or buying decisions of the target audience. The advertisement of women's beauty products is one of them. Analysis was done on two famous brand ads, namely D'HERBS and Vida Beauty which focused on the verbs used in the slogan and description of face beauty products. This study is based on a study conducted by Leech (1966) on the verbs commonly used in advertisements. This study has two objectives, namely, identifying commonly used verbs and analysing lexical relationships that exist in common verbs. Four methods were applied – library research, screen shots, frequency analysis and text analysis. The findings show that among the verbs commonly used in facial beauty ads are "mencerah/mencerahkan", "merawat", "membantu" and "melembap/ melembapkan". The lexical relation formed eight groups of synonymy and three groups of antonymy. In conclusion, an advertiser had chosen the right words with the positive meanings to influence the target audience as stated by Leech (1966) and Dyer (1982).

Keywords: *verbs, lexical relation, advertisements, beauty product*

Pengenalan

Dyer (1982) mendefinisikan iklan sebagai "*drawing attention to something or notifying or informing somebody of something*" (hlm. 2). Definisi ringkas ini memperlihatkan fungsi iklan dalam masyarakat, iaitu usaha yang dilakukan dalam menarik perhatian khalayak tentang sesuatu. Definisi yang lebih lengkap pula diberikan oleh *Business Dictionary* yang menyatakan ia berbayar, tidak bersifat peribadi, komunikasi umum berhubungan sebab, barangan dan perkhidmatan, idea, organisasi dan tempat menerusi mel terus, bercetak, radio, televisyen dan internet. Danesi (2009) pula memberikan definisi yang mencakupi kedua-dua definisi yang diberikan, iaitu "*service by means of a notice, such as a poster, newspaper display, or paid announcement in some electronic or digital medium, designed to attract public attention or patronage*" (hlm. 13) yang secara ringkasnya merujuk pada pemberitahuan sama ada berbayar ataupun tidak dalam medium elektronik mahupun digital yang bertujuan mendapatkan perhatian khalayak. Menurut Danesi (2009) lagi, iklan di radio, televisyen atau internet dirujuk sebagai komersial. Iklan komersial adalah satu bentuk pembujukan yang hak penyiaran atau masanya dibeli daripada organisasi media dalam usaha mempengaruhi pandangan atau keputusan membeli pelanggan atau khalayak (Demers, 2005).

Sesuai dengan definisi iklan, iaitu bertujuan mendapatkan perhatian khalayak, iklan produk kecantikan wanita sememangnya bertujuan menarik perhatian wanita yang nalurinya mahu sentiasa kelihatan cantik. Menelusuri sejarah iklan berkaitan produk kecantikan wanita, Jones (dipetik dari Searing & Zeilig, 2017), menyatakan sejarah iklan kosmetik dan penjagaan kulit telah berusia sekurangkurangnya satu abad. Penyataan ini secara tidak langsung menggambarkan bahawa penggunaan produk kecantikan pastilah telah berlaku lebih awal daripada tempoh tersebut (Searing & Zeilig, 2017). Iklan ini pula boleh ditemui di mana-mana sahaja seperti yang dinyatakan oleh DeBelen (2016), *advertisements for makeup are everywhere, both on the street and online* dan ini sekali lagi membuktikan bahawa wanita mementingkan kecantikan dan penampilan diri. Bagi wanita definisi kata cantik melibatkan tiga deria, iaitu lihat, rasa dan bau, iaitu sifat yang merupakan hasil hubungan sebab dan akibat (Zahid, 2018).

Sehubungan itu, bagi memperlihatkan tujuan iklan adalah untuk mempengaruhi khalayak sasarannya, analisis penggunaan kata kerja dan hubungan leksikal akan dilakukan pada iklan produk kecantikan wanita yang dihasilkan oleh dua buah syarikat tempatan, iaitu D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty.

Sorotan Literatur

Sorotan literatur ini akan hanya membincangkan kajian yang menggunakan iklan sebagai korpus analisis linguistik dan akan dibahagikan kepada dua senario, iaitu kajian dalam dan luar negara. Terdapat banyak kajian yang menggunakan korpus iklan yang dikaji dari pelbagai aspek, antaranya ialah retorik, stilistik dan pencemaran bahasa. Sehubungan itu, bagi mengecilkan skop sorotan, perbincangan akan hanya berfokus kepada kajian yang signifikan dan relevan dengan analisis yang sedang dilakukan, iaitu semantik leksikal. Walau bagaimanapun akan dibincangkan secara ringkas perkembangan awal analisis linguistik yang menjadi titik tolak kepada kajian ini.

Beberapa kajian di luar negara dilakukan antaranya oleh Leech (1966), Dyer (1982), Geis (1982), Coleman (1983), Cook (1992), Tanaka (1994), Emodi (2011), Maksimainen (2011), Chandra (2013), Kannan dan Tyagi (2013), Ke dan Wang (2013), Lazović (2014), Noor, Muhabat dan Kazemian (2015), Skorupa dan Dubovičienė (2015), Karang (2016), Dharmayanti, Tika dan Sudana (2017), dan Viramdami dan Himmawati (2017). Manakala kajian dalam negara dilakukan oleh Karim (1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1987 & 1997), Omar (1984), Badarudin (1988), Khamis (1992), Christy (2010), Sidik (2012), Zahid dan Sidik (2012) dan Zahid (2018).

Bahasa iklan menurut Leech (1966) dalam bukunya *English in Advertising: A Linguistic Study of Advertising in Great Britain* ialah *loaded language*. *Loaded language* (hlm. 25) menurut beliau bermatlamat mengubah kehendak, pandangan atau sikap khalayak. Dalam kasus ini, beliau melakukan kajian tentang bahasa iklan di televisyen. Dalam perbincangannya Leech mengemukakan analisis nahu mencakupi peranan makna, frekuensi kata, iaitu kata adjektif dan kata kerja dalam iklan dan menghuraikan secara terperinci ciri-ciri penting bahasa iklan. Walaupun Leech menyenaraikan kata adjektif dan kata kerja yang dikatakan lazim digunakan dalam iklan di televisyen, kajian ini tidak memaparkan secara terperinci jumlah data yang digunakan, iaitu secara kuantitatif *per se*. Leech hanya menyatakan penggunakan sampel data berjumlah 617 iklan yang disiarkan dari Disember 1960 sehingga Mei 1961 (hlm. 5). Sungguhpun kajian Leech ini telah agak lama, kajian ini masih tetap dianggap bernilai tinggi dan sentiasa dirujuk kerana ia menyediakan satu katalog yang praktikal dalam memerikan karateristik iklan bahasa Inggeris

(Bruthiaux 1996; Christy, 2010; Maksimainen, 2011). Malah menurut Bruthiaux kajian Leech ini merupakan percubaan pertama secara eksplisit menghubungkan parameter fungsi iklan dengan manifestasi linguistik.

Dyer (1982) pula membincangkan bahasa iklan sebagai satu bentuk komunikasi yang mencakupi pelbagai aspek. Antara yang dibincangkan ialah bahasa iklan daripada perspektif linguistik, iaitu pemilihan kata, ton suara, bahasa figuratif, peranan kata kunci selain memaparkan maklumat perkembangan iklan, definisi iklan dan sebagainya. Kandungan buku ini banyak memaparkan imej iklan bertujuan paparan contoh dan diskusi.

Sementara itu, Geis (1982) melakukan kajian yang hampir sama dengan Leech (1966), iaitu kajian bahasa iklan di televisyen. Walau bagaimanapun kajian beliau berfokus kepada teknik linguistik bahasa iklan yang menjadi pilihan penerbit komersial televisyen di Amerika. Sedikit berbeza dengan Leech, Geis tidak sahaja mengkaji bahasa pengiklan tetapi juga menganalisis jangkaan dan interprestasi pengguna terhadap bahasa iklan. Geis dalam kajiannya ini mengaplikasi pendekatan yang menghubungkan pengekod dan pentafsir kod, iaitu aspek pragmatik dengan menggunakan teori yang diusulkan oleh Grice (1975) tentang maksim. Hal yang sama dilakukan oleh Coleman (1983), Cook (1992) dan Tanaka (1994). Cook (1992) mengkaji bentuk linguistik paparan wacana iklan, iaitu visual, muzik dan fitur linguistik. Dalam kajian ini, beliau memperlihatkan kemampuan bahasa iklan yang sama seperti kemampuan teks dalam mencipta, membangkitkan dan mengukuhkan jenis sosial yang dominan sepertimana yang berlaku dalam penggunaan bahasa yang lain. Sementara Tanaka (1994) dengan menggunakan korpus iklan bahasa Inggeris dan Jepun telah menganalisis kefahaman pengguna terhadap mesej dalam iklan. Kajian ini memperlihatkan bahawa pentafsiran mesej dalam iklan melampaui proses mendekod dengan maksud khalayak perlu melakukan kesesuaian hubungan konteks dalam menyelesaikan masalah ketaksaan mesej. Tanaka mengaplikasikan teori Relevans oleh Sperber dan Wilson (1986) dalam analisisnya. Kesemua ini merupakan antara kajian awal yang menggunakan korpus iklan. Sementara itu, kajian tahun 2000-an antaranya dilakukan oleh Emodi (2011), iaitu berfokus pada 20 puluh buah iklan bahasa Inggeris. Emodi menganalisis keberkesanan bahasa dalam iklan dan memperlihatkan bahawa penggunaan makna konotatif, kata adjektif, kata ciptaan, kata yang dieja salah, perulangan, metafora, main kata-kata, kata yang tak wujud, penyataan taksa telah digunakan untuk mencapai objektif persuasif.

Maksimainen (2011) pula menganalisis slogan iklan yang mencakupi aspek sintaksis, struktur, nahu dan fitur leksikal slogan pembedahan refraktif mata. Analisis ini bertujuan mencari jawapan berhubungan dengan fitur distingtif yang dominan dalam slogan iklan yang berhubungan dengan dapatan Leech (1966) dan sarjana lain. Kajian ini memperlihatkan dapatan yang diperoleh tidak selari dengan perbincangan Leech tentang kata kerja yang digunakan atas beberapa sebab, iaitu korpus iklan yang berbeza, penggunaan bahasa yang berbeza berasaskan dekad, iaitu tempoh masa. Keselarian dapatan hanya ditemui pada penggunaan *weasel*, istilah teknikal dan saintifik, nama produk dan sebagainya dalam iklan.

Chandra (2013) menganalisis makna dalam slogan dengan menggunakan tiga puluh jenis slogan iklan bahasa Inggeris, iaitu tujuh slogan dari iklan perkhidmatan dan dua puluh tiga slogan daripada iklan produk. Dalam kajian ini, beliau mengaplikasikan kaedah kualitatif. Dapatan yang diperoleh memperlihatkan tujuh slogan tidak menggunakan bahasa figuratif, lapan slogan menggunakan hiperbola, sembilan slogan menggunakan personafikasi dan selebihnya menggunakan ironi, sinekdok, analogi dan metafora.

Seterusnya, dalam kajian berhubung penggunaan bahasa dalam iklan, Kannan dan Tyagi (2013) menyatakan bahawa kandungan visual dan reka bentuk dalam iklan mempunyai kesan yang sangat besar kepada pengguna. Walau bagaimanapun menurut mereka, penggunaan bahasa merupakan aspek yang membantu pengguna mengenal pasti dan mengingati sesuatu produk. Selain daripada itu, dapatan kajian ini juga menyatakan bahawa bahasa yang positif menjadikan produk tersebut menonjol daripada produk yang lain. Antara kata-kata yang digunakan mencakupi kata adjektif dan kata kerja, iaitu masing-masingnya – *good/better/best, great, real, easy; get, give, have, need* dan sebagainya selain hiperbola, ayat-ayat pendek, eufemisme, mengelakkan makna negatif dan sebagainya.

Ke dan Wang (2013) melakukan kajian yang hampir sama dengan kajian yang dilakukan oleh Leech (1966) kecuali fokus kajian ini terhad kepada kata adjektif dan korpusnya berbeza. Data iklan bersumberkan majalah yang mencakupi antaranya iklan pakaian, kecantikan, minuman, makanan dan kelengkapan rumah. Kajian yang dilakukan ini menggunakan 100 slogan iklan bahasa Inggeris dengan berfokus pada lapan kata adjektif yang memperlihatkan frekuensi yang tinggi. Kata adjektif yang mencatatkan frekuensi yang tinggi ialah *good, beautiful, real, better, best, great, perfect* dan *pure*.

Lazović (2014) pula menganalisis iklan bank dalam talian. Iklan yang dikaji merupakan iklan dalam bahasa Inggeris yang dikumpul melalui laman sesawang bank-bank terkemuka di United Kingdom selama empat bulan, iaitu dari bulan Mei sehingga Ogos tahun 2012. Fokus kajian ini adalah pada karateristik elemen linguistik, iaitu ortografi, leksikal, nahu dan pragmatik. Objektif kajian ini adalah untuk memahami strategi linguistik yang digunakan dalam menarik perhatian pelanggan. Kajian ini mendapati antara strategi yang digunakan oleh pihak bank ialah menggunakan pelbagai aras bahasa, penggunaan huruf besar, kata yang memicu, iaitu penggunaan kata nama dan adjektif yang banyak berbanding kata kerja. Menurut kajian ini juga, kata kerja didapati kurang digunakan kerana kebanyakan iklan menggugurkan kata kerja di samping sifat iklan yang berbentuk ringkas.

Noor, Muhamat, dan Kazemian (2015) pula melakukan analisis semantik dalam slogan komersial televisyen. Kajian ini berfokus pada alat linguistik yang digunakan oleh penyusun iklan komersial televisyen dalam mempengaruhi audiens sasaran. Kajian ini mengaplikasikan teori Leech (1981) berkaitan asosiasi makna dan jenis-jenisnya. Analisis ini memperlihatkan kewujudan kepelbagaian strategi yang digunakan oleh penyusun iklan, iaitu makna konotatif, makna tematik, makna afektif emosi, makna kolektif, makna sosial stilistik dan makna refleksi.

Skorupa dan Dubovičienė (2015) menganalisis slogan iklan komersial dan sosial dari aspek karateristik semantik. Kajian ini menggunakan 110 iklan mencakupi 55 iklan komersial dan 55 iklan sosial. Kajian ini mendapati penggunaan yang kerap teknik bunyi dan bahasa kiasan adalah bertujuan untuk mudah diingati, menimbulkan daya tarikan dan menonjolkan jenama yang positif bagi iklan komersial. Sementara itu, situasi yang berbeza bagi iklan sosial kerana sifat iklan sosial yang berfungsi memberikan maklumat tentang sesuatu isu, iaitu tidak mewakili mana-mana jenama atau perkhidmatan.

Karang (2016) menganalisis jenis makna serta fungsi dalam aspek verbal dan jenis-jenis bahasa figuratif yang digunakan iklan produk kosmetik dalam majalah bahasa Inggeris. Kajian ini mengaplikasikan tiga buah teori, iaitu Leech (1966), Leech (1974) dan Perrine (2005). Dapatan kajian ini memperlihatkan dua perkara, iaitu penggunaan secara dominan makna denotatif yang berfungsi memberikan informasi kepada pengguna manakala jenis bahasa figuratif yang dominan ialah hiperbola.

Kajian Dharmayanti, Tika dan Sudana (2017) memperlihatkan perbezaan apabila fokus kajiannya adalah menganalisis ketaksaan leksikal dalam slogan iklan bahasa Inggeris jenama Unilever. Analisis ini mengaplikasi teori makna Leech (1974) dan teori ketaksaan leksikal Ullmann (1977) dengan menggunakan tiga belas slogan. Kajian ini mendapati kesemua slogan mengandungi kata yang taksa. Menurut kajian ini lagi, faktor leksikal dikatakan sebagai penyebab kepada ketaksaan berlaku, iaitu makna polisemi dan makna homonimi, masing-masingnya berjumlah enam dan tujuh dalam slogan yang dianalisis. Kajian ini juga mengkategorikan sepuluh slogan sebagai makna konseptual manakala slogan yang berbaki dikategorikan sebagai makna konotatif.

Analisis morpho-semantik jenama produk elektronik dengan menggunakan kaedah kualitatif dilakukan oleh Viramdani dan Himmawati (2017). Kajian ini menganalisis pembentukan kata jenama produk elektronik dan makna yang didenotasikan. Kajian ini memperlihatkan enam aspek pembentukan kata yang berlaku, iaitu mencakupi proses *compounding, blending, clipping, coinage, abbreviation,* dan *acronym*. Sementara itu dari aspek semantik, ditemui lima klasifikasi kerangka semantik bagi jenama produk, iaitu buah, tempat, orang, produk dan konsep.

Situasi yang berbeza berlaku di dalam negara, perkembangan kajian bahasa iklan agak lewat. Banyak ditemui perbincangan bahasa iklan dalam pembentangan kertas kerja, dijadikan bab dalam buku dan artikel dalam monograf yang dilakukan oleh Karim (1981, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1987, 1997). Karim dalam perbincangannya mengakui bahawa bahasa iklan merupakan satu perkembangan laras baru dalam negara, iaitu akibat pengaruh kapitalisme dan media massa luar di Malaysia. Walau bagaimanapun beliau mengakui bahawa bahasa iklan sebenarnya telah lama wujud dalam masyarakat Melayu. Penyataan ini dibuktikan dengan mengemukakan contoh penjualan ubat di pasar terbuka yang dikatakan sebagai kaedah tradisional dalam mengiklan. Menurut beliau lagi, bahasa iklan ini mempunyai keunikannya yang tersendiri. Dalam kajiannya, Karim secara umumnya membincangkan tentang tujuan iklan, karateristik bahasa iklan yang merangkumi pemilihan perkataan, ujaran performatif atau elemen imperatif, pembinaan aspek nahu dan semantik selain pencemaran bahasa yang berlaku. Menurut Khamis (1992), Karim membincangkan bahasa iklan semasa beliau melakukan kajian perkembangan bahasa Melayu. Sementara itu, Omar (1984) membincangkan pelbagai kaedah yang digunakan dalam bahasa iklan antaranya kaedah penyataan, kaedah perkaitan konsep, bentuk, konsep, nilai, norma dan penterjemahan, iaitu aspek retorik dalam bentuk buku.

Buku ini dikatakan sebagai buku pertama yang membincangkan iklan di Malaysia. Badarudin (1988) pula, membincangkan bahasa iklan dari aspek retorik yang mencakupi teknik retorik berdasarkan Durand (1970) dan Leech (1966). Dalam tulisannya, Badarudin secara ringkas membincangkan juga tentang teknik yang dibincangkan oleh Omar (1984) dan menyimpulkan bahawa bahasa iklan sebagai bahasa yang kreatif serta dinamis dan memperlihatkan teknik metafora, metonimi, paralelisme, aliterasi, rima dan irama.

Kajian bahasa iklan dalam bahasa Melayu dan Inggeris yang disiarkan di televisyen dilakukan oleh Khamis (1992). Dalam kajian ini, Khamis menggunakan 72 iklan bahasa Inggeris dan 87 iklan bahasa Melayu sebagai data analisis. Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah kualitatif dan kuantitatif. Objektif kajian ini adalah untuk menganalisis penggunaan bahasa figuratif serta karateristik bahagian awal dan akhir bahasa iklan sebagai satu peristiwa bahasa. Hasil kajian ini mendapati dalam menyampaikan mesej dalam iklan, bahasa yang betul dan bahasa figuratif telah digunakan.

Christy (2010) pula melakukan kajian yang sedikit berbeza daripada pengkaji tempatan sebelumnya. Sungguhpun kajian ini masih berfokus kepada teknik literari dengan maksud yang hampir sama dengan teknik retorik, kajian ini merupakan kajian pertama yang menyentuh tentang frekuensi kata adjektif dan kata kerja seperti mana yang dibincangkan oleh Leech (1966). Dapatan kajiannya memperlihatkan persamaan dapatan dengan Leech, iaitu dari aspek frekuensi kata dan karateristik bahasa iklan. Ringkasnya, Christy berpegang kepada prinsip yang dinyatakan oleh Leech (1966) dan sarjana lain seperti Dyer (1982) bahawa bahasa iklan mempunyai ciri sarwajagat yang diguna pakai merentasi bahasa.

Kajian yang menggunakan iklan selanjutnya dilakukan oleh Sidik (2012). Kajian ini menganalisis domain semantik kata kerja dalam slogan produk kecantikan wanita, iaitu kecantikan muka dan badan. Data iklan yang dianalisis dikumpul dari majalah Mingguan Wanita yang diterbitkan sepanjang tahun 2006. Analisis yang dilakukan telah mengklasifikasikan kata kerja kepada dua sifat, iaitu kata kerja yang bersifat spesifik dan kata kerja yang bersifat umum. Kata kerja yang bersifat spesifik dengan kecantikan muka dan badan antaranya adalah “mencerahkan”, “menghaluskan”, “melangsingkan”, “mengempiskan” dan sebagainya manakala kata kerja yang bersifat umum adalah “meneroka”, “mengembalikan”, “membantu” dan sebagainya. Kajian ini menyimpulkan bahawa kata kerja yang bersifat umum lebih dominan digunakan dalam iklan produk kecantikan.

Zahid dan Sidik (2012) telah menganalisis 66 kata kerja daripada 45 slogan iklan kecantikan muka. Analisis ini mengaplikasikan kaedah analisis komponen. Sama seperti kajian Sidik (2012), dapatan analisis memperlihatkan bahawa terdapat dua sifat kata kerja yang digunakan, iaitu kata kerja yang bersifat spesifik dan kata kerja yang bersifat umum. Kata kerja yang bersifat spesifik merujuk pada kata kerja yang berkolokasi dalam lingkungannya manakala sebaliknya bagi kata kerja yang bersifat umum. Didapati penggunaan kata kerja bersifat umum lebih dominan dalam iklan kecantikan muka. Antara kata kerja bersifat umum ialah “berhasil”, “tercapai”, “berkekalan”, “menghargai” dan sebagainya.

Terakhir, kajian Zahid (2018) menggunakan iklan produk kecantikan wanita bagi mendapatkan definisi kata cantik secara lebih holistik. Kajian yang dilakukan ini memperlihatkan cakupan makna kata cantik dari perspektif orang Melayu berdasarkan analisis kolokasi. Kajian ini bertitik tolak daripada definisi dari kamus yang tidak memadai bagi membantu pengguna bahasa memahami makna kata cantik dari perspektif wanita. Analisis ini menggunakan iklan produk kecantikan wanita yang merangkumi kecantikan muka (kulit), bibir, rambut, kaki dan badan. Dapatan kajian ini menyimpulkan bahawa kecantikan dari sudut pandangan wanita adalah berkaitan dengan tiga deria, iaitu lihat, rasa dan bau.

Perbincangan sorotan literatur ini memperlihatkan bahawa kajian yang menggunakan korpus bahasa iklan agak banyak ditemui tetapi kajian yang *per se* mengkaji penggunaan kata kerja dari aspek semantik leksikal agak terhad. Kajian oleh Leech menjadi titik tolak kajian selepasnya walau bagaimanapun kajian selepas beliau telah mengaplikasikan teori dalam bidang pragmatik, iaitu maksim perbualan oleh Grice dan teori Relevans oleh Sperber dan Wilson selain aspek retorik dalam bahasa iklan. Berdasarkan sifat bahasa iklan itu sendiri yang merupakan bahasa kreatif dalam menyampaikan mesej sama ada bertujuan perkhidmatan ataupun komersial, kebanyakan kajian yang menggunakan korpus iklan lebih cenderung mengkaji bahasa figuratif dalam iklan, iaitu bidang retorik dan selebihnya kajian yang melibatkan kesalahan tatabahasa ataupun pencemaran bahasa. Kajian yang menyentuh aspek semantik tidak banyak ditemui sedangkan kajian tentang makna, iaitu ketepatan makna merupakan aspek yang penting dalam penyampaian maklumat dalam kasus iklan sebagaimana yang dikatakan oleh Emodi (2011) iaitu "*semantic is one of linguistic forms that propel advertising to the desired height*" (hlm. 317). Menurut Emodi (2011), pemilihan kata yang salah akan menyebabkan tiga senario, iaitu pertamanya memberikan makna yang tidak tepat, iaitu tidak selari dengan tujuan komunikasi; atau keduanya, mewujudkan kekaburan makna; atau ketiganya hanya dapat berfungsi sebahagiannya sahaja untuk mendukung makna yang dimaksudkan. Hal yang sama dinyatakan oleh Lazović (2014), iaitu kepentingan memilih kata kunci yang relevan dalam bahasa pemasaran kerana tindakan ini memicu perkaitan yang positif seperti yang dibincangkan antaranya oleh Leech (1966) dan Dyer (1982). Malah Dyer menyatakan kata-kata yang digunakan akan dapat mempengaruhi kepercayaan dan sikap khalayak (hlm. 140).

Sehubungan itu analisis semantik akan dilakukan dengan berfokus kepada penggunaan kata kerja dalam korpus iklan produk kecantikan wanita. Kata kerja menjadi fokus analisis bertitik tolak daripada penyataan Gärdenfors (2014) bahawa kata kerja mempunyai dua peranan utama, iaitu mendeskripsikan bagaimana sesuatu itu telah dan akan berlaku dan keduanya, bagaimana sesuatu itu berlaku atau akan berlaku. Hal yang sama juga dinyatakan oleh Yusof, Aman, Harun, Hamid dan Ma'alip (2010) bahawa kata kerja diutamakan dalam bahasa kerana kata kerja menentukan siapa yang melakukan (subjek), apa yang dilakukan dan terhadap apa perlakuan itu dilakukan (objek). Dalam bahasa iklan, kata kerja memperlihatkan proses yang akan berlaku apabila pengguna menggunakan sesuatu produk dan ini menjadi tarikan kepada pelanggan atau pengguna apabila membeli produk. Sehubungan itu, fungsi kata kerja dalam bahasa iklan merupakan aspek yang penting.

Kata kerja ini dikumpulkan daripada slogan dan penerangan iklan produk kecantikan wanita. Kata kerja yang digunakan dalam iklan ini lazimnya berperanan memperlihatkan makna kemampuan serta keberkesanan produk misalnya penggunaan kata *membantu*, *menghalang*, *mengurangkan* dan sebagainya. Kata kerja ini menjadi pemicu yang mempengaruhi tanggapan pengguna terhadap produk yang dipasarkan.

Kerangka Teori

Analisis yang dilakukan bertitik tolak daripada kajian yang telah dilakukan oleh Leech (1966) berhubung semantik leksikal dalam bahasa iklan. Leech membincangkan fungsi atribut kata kerja yang memperlihatkan sesuatu produk mempunyai sifat yang tersendiri atau bernilai kepada pelanggan. Dalam perbincangannya, Leech menyatakan kata kerja yang lazim dalam bahasa iklan mempunyai fungsi nahu dan makna, iaitu hubungan di antara pengguna dan produk mencakupi aspek pemilikan; idea pemilikan neutral; pemilikan berterusan; pemerolehan; pemberian; penggunaan dan kecenderungan mental terhadap produk. Penyataan Leech bertitik tolak daripada kajiannya yang menganalisis kata kerja yang lazim digunakan dalam iklan yang disiarkan di televisyen. Sehubungan itu, dalam kajiannya Leech telah menyenaraikan dua puluh kata kerja yang lazim digunakan (hlm. 154-155). Leech menyatakan kata kerja ini mempunyai pelbagai fungsi nahu dan makna. Salah satu fungsinya ialah menandakan hubungan di antara pengguna dan produk, iaitu mencakupi pemilikan produk – *have, get, give, buy*, *keep*; idea pemilikan neutral – *have* dan *have got*; pemilikan berterusan - *keep*; pemerolehan – *buy* dan *get*; pemberian - *give*; penggunaan – *take, use/uses* dan *have* dan kecenderungan mental terhadap produk – *like*, *love* dan *need*; sementara *choose* dan *taste* tidak dinyatakan fungsinya secara jelas. Lanjutan itu analisis yang akan dilakukan ini dianggap bersifat separa pendua, iaitu menggunakan pakai buah fikiran Leech dalam memperlihatkan fungsi kata kerja dengan penambahan skop analisis iaitu, analisis frekuensi dan hubungan leksikal yang berlaku dalam kata kerja yang lazim digunakan dalam iklan produk kecantikan wanita dalam bahasa Melayu. Kajian ini tidak bersifat perbandingan kerana korpus bahasa serta medium yang berbeza selain data dan era yang digunakan juga tidak sama.

Dalam konteks analisis ini kata kerja dalam bahasa Melayu ditandainya dengan proses pengimbuhan dan makna yang dirujuk. Proses pengimbuhan mencakupi imbuhan awalan, akhiran, apitan dan sisipan (Tatabahasa Dewan, 2015). Walau bagaimanapun dalam konteks analisis ini, proses pengimbuhan yang terlibat hanya tiga proses yang pertama. Kata kerja yang telah dikenal pasti akan dianalisis dari aspek makna dengan menggunakan Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat (2015) bagi mendapatkan makna denotatif manakala bagi memperoleh hubungan leksikal sinonimi dan antonimi, *Tesaurus Bahasa Melayu Dewan (2015) dirujuk. Dalam proses mendapatkan hubungan* makna ini, rujuk silang dilakukan kerana tidak kesemua hubungan leksikal ini tersenarai dalam satu entri yang sama. Hubungan leksikal terbentuk apabila sesuatu kata tersebut berada dalam domain semantik yang sama, iaitu satu medan yang di dalamnya mempunyai sejumlah kata yang berkongsi makna teras berhubung dengan sesuatu topik sebagaimana yang dinyatakan oleh Nida (1979), *A semantic domain consists of any set of meanings which share a significant semantic feature in common*. Lanjutan itu hubungan leksikal ini terbentuk apabila sesuatu kata tersebut berada di dalam satu medan yang sama. Walau bagaimanapun tidak ada kata yang akan bersinonim secara seratus peratus kerana setiap satu kata mempunyai fitur distingtifnya. Hal yang sama berlaku pada antonimi yang boleh sahaja dipertentangkan secara majmuk (Abdul Chaer, 2002).

Objektif

Kajian ini mempunyai dua objektif, iaitu:

1) mengenal pasti penggunaan kata kerja yang lazim dalam iklan produk kecantikan muka.
2) menganalisis hubungan leksikal kata kerja yang lazim dalam iklan produk kecantikan muka.

Metodologi

Empat metod diaplikasi dalam kajian ini, iaitu kajian pustaka, syot layar (*screenshot*), analisis frekuensi dan analisis teks. Kajian pustaka dilakukan bagi tujuan penyediaan sorotan kajian dan mengenal pasti trend semasa kajian. Data kajian pula dikumpulkan melalui syot layar iklan dari laman sesawang termasuk blog, Instagram (IG) dan Facebook (FB). Data yang siap dikumpul akan dilakukan analisis teks, iaitu mengenal pasti dan mengkategorikan kata kerja dalam produk kecantikan dua jenama yang menjadi korpus, iaitu D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty. Data terkumpul diberi label seperti berikut: DM1 yang bermaksud D- D'HERBS, M- muka, dan 1- data pertama dan seterusnya; manakala VM2, V- Vida Beauty, M- muka, dan 2- data kedua dan seterusnya.

Pengenalpastian dan pengiraan jumlah kata kerja dalam iklan dilakukan dengan menggunakan dua prosedur seperti berikut, iaitu pertamanya, setiap satu iklan yang sama bagi sesuatu produk dianggap sebagai satu data walaupun sesuatu iklan itu berulang dan disiarkan beberapa kali dalam tempoh kutipan data berlangsung. Kedua, jumlah iklan tidak secara mutlaknya menggambarkan jumlah kata kerja yang digunakan. Ini kerana terdapat slogan dan keterangan produk yang memperlihatkan penggunaan lebih daripada satu kata kerja, misalnya "mencerah", "menghilangkan", "membantu" dalam iklan Vida Beauty bagi produk yang bernama Extra Whitening Soap. Iklan ini mempunyai tiga kata kerja. Kesemua data iklan dimasukkan ke dalam perisian Excel 2010, iaitu aplikasi bagi menjana kekerapan penggunaan kata kerja. Seterusnya, dapatan analisis frekuensi dipaparkan dalam bentuk jumlah dan peratusan kekerapan. Dalam hal ini perisian Word Smith tidak digunakan atas empat sebab, pertamanya jumlah data yang masih dalam kawalan, iaitu tidak bersifat data raya (*big data*); kedua, penggunaan perisian Excel sudah memadai bagi mencapai objektif kajian; ketiga, hasil dapatan sama ada menggunakan perisian Word Smith atau Excel tetap mempunyai satu jawapan yang sama, iaitu frekuensi kata; dan keempat, perisian Word Smith melibatkan kos berbanding perisian Excel yang sedia ada dalam Microsoft Word. Sehubungan itu, dalam konteks analisis yang dilakukan, ia bukan merupakan isu utama walaupun kemungkinan kaedah yang digunakan ini dianggap agak ketinggalan bagi sesetengah pengkaji. Selanjutnya, ini diikuti dengan analisis teks sekali lagi bagi mengenal pasti hubungan leksikal kata kerja yang wujud melalui proses semakan dan rujuk silang dari Tesaurus Bahasa Melayu Dewan (2015) dan Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat (2015). Hubungan leksikal yang akan dianalisis merujuk kepada hubungan makna sinonimi dan antonimi.

Kajian ini menganalisis kata kerja yang digunakan dalam slogan dan keterangan produk kecantikan keluaran D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty, iaitu dua buah syarikat tempatan yang ternama di Malaysia. Iklan produk kecantikan kedua-dua syarikat ini menjadi fokus kajian kerana kedua-duanya merupakan pengeluar produk kecantikan yang terkenal di Malaysia. Hal ini disokong dengan aktifnya mereka dalam alam maya bagi mempromosi produk selain mempunyai jumlah pengikut (*follower*) yang ramai, iaitu masing-masingnya 3.1 juta dan 2.1 juta selain jumlah hantaran (*post*) yang tinggi dalam akaun rasmi dan bilangan agen yang ramai. Data dikumpulkan daripada laman sesawang rasmi termasuk blog, Instagram (IG) serta Facebook (FB) kedua-dua buah syarikat dan agen sah kedua-dua syarikat pengeluar produk kecantikan ini yang berdaftar di Kuala Lumpur, Selangor dan Perak. Data dikumpulkan mulai tempoh Julai 2018 sehingga September 2018. Analisis berfokus pada produk kecantikan muka. Definisi muka dalam analisis ini mengguna pakai definisi Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat (2015), iaitu definisi polisemi pertama – bahagian kepala di sebelah hadapan dari dahi hingga ke dagu. Kata kerja yang dianalisis ialah sejumlah 205 daripada 70 data iklan yang terkumpul.

Bagi tujuan pengehadan kajian, analisis yang dilakukan tidak akan menyentuh strategi pemasaran produk, imej dan bahan lisan, iaitu naratif yang mengiringi slogan dan keterangan produk. Hanya produk khusus untuk muka sahaja yang akan dianalisis walaupun diketahui bahawa kedua-dua buah syarikat, iaitu D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty mengeluarkan pelbagai produk kecantikan untuk wanita.

Dapatan dan Perbincangan

Analisis frekuensi yang dilakukan memperlihatkan dapatan kata kerja bagi kedua-dua jenama, iaitu D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty yang berjumlah 205 dengan kata kerja yang lazim digunakan adalah "mencerah / mencerahkan", 36 (17.56%); diikuti dengan "merawat", 27 (13.17%), "membantu", 25 (12.20%) dan "melembap" / "melembapkan", 16 (7.81%). Sementara itu, kata kerja yang berbaki memperlihatkan julat kekerapan di antara 5-9, (2.44 – 4.39%) - masing-masingnya disusun berdasarkan jumlah kekerapan rendah kepada jumlah kekerapan tinggi, iaitu kata kerja "membuang", "menganjal/menganjalkan", "menghilangkan" dan "menyingkirkan"; "menaik"/"menaikkan'' dan "mengurangi"/"mengurangkan"; "membersihkan"/"membersihkan" dan "menggebukan"; "mengatasi"; dan "menyegarkan". Manakala kata kerja yang berbaki memperlihatkan julat kekerapan di antara 1-4, iaitu (0.49% - 1.95%). Dapatan analisis frekuensi ini dipaparkan dalam Jadual 1. Jadual 1 mempunyai tiga kolum, kolum 1 – Kata Kerja Jenama Produk; kolum 2 – Kekerapan dan kolum 3 – Peratusan.

Jadual 1
Kekerapan kata kerja dalam produk kecantikan D'HERBS dan Vida Beauty

Kata Kerja D'HERBS + Vida Beauty	Kekerapan	Peratusan (%)
Melembap, Melembapkan	16	7.81
Melindungi	2	0.98
Mematikan	2	0.98
Membantu	25	12.20
Memberi	2	0.98
Membersih, Membersihkan	7	3.42
Membina	1	0.49
Membuang	5	2.44
Memelihara	1	0.49
Memperbaiki	1	0.49
Memudarkan	1	0.49
Memutihkan	1	0.49
Menaikkan, Naik	6	2.93
Menanggalkan	2	0.98
Menganjal, Menganjalkan	5	2.44
Mencantikan	3	1.46
Mencerah, Mencerahkan	36	17.56
Mencuci	3	1.46
Mengatasi	8	3.90
Mengawal	4	1.95
Mengecutkan	1	0.49
Mengembalikan	4	1.95
Mengeringkan	1	0.49
Menggebukan	7	3.41
Menghaluskan	2	0.98
Menghilangkan	5	2.44
Mengurangi, Mengurangkan	6	2.93
Meninggalkan	1	0.49
Meningkatkan	1	0.49
Menjadikan	1	0.49
Menyegarkan	9	4.39
Menyerikan	1	0.49
Menyingkirkan	5	2.44
Meratakan	1	0.49
Merawat	27	13.17
Meremajakan	1	0.49
Nampak	1	0.49
Jumlah	205	100

Dapatan frekuensi dalam Jadual 1 hanya memaparkan maklumat umum sahaja, iaitu jumlah kata kerja yang berulang. Jadual ini tidak memaparkan maklumat hubungan leksikal yang kemungkinannya wujud di antara sejumlah kata yang berulang tersebut.

Sehubungan itu, analisis seterusnya dilakukan bagi memperlihatkan hubungan leksikal kata kerja yang berlaku di antara sejumlah kata kerja yang telah digunakan. Hubungan leksikal yang akan dibincangkan ini mencakupi dua hubungan makna, iaitu sinonimi dan antonimi. Paparan Jadual 2 yang berikut memaparkan hubungan leksikal sinonimi yang berlaku dalam data iklan yang dianalisis. Paparan maklumat dalam Jadual 2 disusun berdasarkan kekerapan tertinggi kepada kekerapan terendah. Jadual 2 dipaparkan dalam empat kolum, kolum 1- Bilangan; kolum 2 – Kata; kolum 3 - Jumlah dan kolum 4 – Peratusan.

Jadual 2
Hubungan leksikal – sinonimi

Bil.	Kata	Jumlah	Peratusan
1.	Mencerah/mencerahkan	36	17.56
	Memutihkan	1	0.49
	Menyerikan	1	0.49
	Jumlah	38	18.54
2.	Merawat	27	13.17
	Mengawal	4	1.95
	Memperbaiki	1	0.49
	Memelihara	1	0.49
	Jumlah	33	16.10
3.	Membantu	25	12.20
	Memberi	2	0.98
	Jumlah	27	13.18
4.	Menggebukan	7	3.41
	Menghaluskan	2	0.98
	Jumlah	9	4.40
5.	Membersih/membersihkan	7	3.41
	Mencuci	3	1.46
	Jumlah	10	4.48
6.	Menaik/menaikkan	6	2.93
	Meningkatkan	1	0.49
	Jumlah	7	3.42
7.	Membuang	5	2.44
	Menghilangkan	5	2.44
	Menyingkirkan	5	2.44
	Jumlah	15	7.32
8.	Mengecutkan	1	0.49
	Mengeringkan	1	0.49
	Jumlah	2	0.98

Analisis hubungan leksikal sinonimi memperlihatkan terbentuknya lapan kelompok kata yang bersinonim. Penggunaan kata yang bersinonim ini digunakan sama ada secara bertukar ganti di antara satu sama lain ataupun digunakan secara serentak dalam slogan dan keterangan produk. Didapati pengiklan memperlihatkan kecenderungan penggunaan kata kerja yang tertentu, iaitu dalam kasus ini ditandai dengan jumlah kekerapan perulangan kata kerja yang berkenaan. Kesemua makna kata kerja yang digunakan ini berciri positif, iaitu hasil penggunaan produk akan dapat mencantikkan muka. Makna yang positif ini merupakan "senjata" pengiklan dalam mempengaruhi pelanggan dalam menggunakan produk.

Kelompok sinonim yang pertama memperlihatkan kata kerja "mencerah"/ "mencerahkan" menjadi pilihan utama berbanding dengan dua kata yang lain, iaitu "memutihkan" dan "menyerikan". Kelompok kedua, memperlihatkan kata kerja "merawat" menjadi pilihan berbanding dengan empat kata lainnya, iaitu "menyegarkan", "mengawal", "memperbaiki" dan "memelihara". Sementara kelompok ketiga, kata kerja "membantu" menjadi pilihan berbanding dengan kata "memberi"; kelompok keempat, kata kerja "menggebukan" dipilih berbanding dengan kata "menghaluskan"; kelompok kelima, kata kerja "membersih"/ "membersihkan" menjadi pilihan berbanding dengan kata "mencuci"; kelompok keenam, kata kerja "menaik"/"menaikkan" menjadi pilihan berbanding dengan kata "meningkatkan"; kelompok ketujuh dan kelapan, tidak memperlihatkan kata kerja yang menjadi pilihan utama, masing-masingnya memperlihatkan ketiga-tiga kata kerja "membuang", "menghilangkan" dan "menyingkirkan" dan kedua-dua kata "mengecutkan" dan " mengeringkan" digunakan dengan kadar jumlah yang sama. Dua kelompok kata sinonim yang terakhir, iaitu kelompok tujuh dan lapan didapati kurang signifikan dalam memperlihatkan pilihan kata bahasa pengiklan.

Jadual 2 memperlihatkan kata "mencerah/mencerahkan" menjadi pilihan utama pengiklan, iaitu berulang sebanyak 36, (17.56%). Kata mencerahkan menurut Tesaurus Bahasa Melayu Dewan (2015, hlm. 156) bersinonim dengan kata memutihkan dan menyerikan. Walaupun kedua-dua kata yang terakhir ini hadir dalam kelompok yang sama erti tetapi kata "mencerahkan" menjadi pilihan utama pengiklan kerana menurut Kamus Dewan (2015, hlm. 269) kata "mencerah/mencerahkan" mencakupi makna yang lebih holistik dengan maksud berseri, tidak muram, menyerikan, tidak hitam (dan tidak putih benar). Ini berbeza dengan makna kata kerja "memutihkan" yang hanya membawa maksud menjadikan putih dan kata "menyerikan" dengan hanya maksud menjadikan berseri. Kedua-dua makna kata kerja "memutihkan" dan "menyerikan" mempunyai makna yang terhad dalam konteks produk kecantikan muka. Pengguna produk kecantikan, tentu sekali menginginkan satu produk yang fungsinya bukan sahaja satu tetapi mempunyai kemampuan yang lebih daripada satu. Oleh kerana itu lazim ditemui iklan atau slogan sesuatu produk yang menggunakan *tagline* 2 dalam 1; 3 dalam 1; beli 2 dapat 3 dan sebagainya yang membawa makna memperoleh sesuatu dengan ekstra. Dalam konteks produk kecantikan wanita, pengiklan perlu bijak dalam memilih kata kerja yang menggambarkan kemampuan produk yang dipasarkan oleh mereka. Kata "mencerah/mencerahkan" menjadikan pengguna yang tidak memiliki kulit muka yang putih, akan menjadi cerah sekali gus berseri dan tidak kusam manakala pengguna yang sedia memiliki kulit muka yang putih akan menjadi lebih berseri. Ini yang dimahukan oleh wanita dalam produk kecantikan yang digunakan.

Kelompok sinonim kedua, kata "merawat" bermaksud memelihara, menyelenggarakan, membela, menjaga (orang sakit dll) dengan memberi ubat dsb (Kamus Dewan, 2015 hlm. 1296). Kata ini memperlihatkan perulangan sebanyak 27, (13.17%). Kata ini bersinonim dengan kata "memelihara" (Tesaurus Bahasa Melayu Dewan, 2015 hlm. 714) dan secara rujuk silang bersinonim dengan kata "mengawal" (hlm. 638), "memperbaiki" dengan maksud menyembuhkan (hlm. 858). Dalam konteks produk kecantikan, "merawat" berlaku akibat muka telah mengalami "kerosakan". Sehubungan itu perbuatan "merawat" bertujuan memastikan keadaan semasa muka kembali baik atau pulih melalui khasiat yang diperoleh melalui penggunaan produk. Pengiklan dalam konteks ini sedia maklum akan kondisi muka yang bermasalah bagi sesetengah wanita. Sehubungan itu, dalam usaha menarik perhatian khalayak sasaran mereka, iaitu wanita yang menghadapi masalah kulit muka, pengiklan menggunakan kata "merawat" dengan maksud memberikan harapan bahawa masalah kondisi muka yang rosak dapat dipulihkan. Situasi ini lazim dipaparkan apabila pengiklan menerangkan kehebatan produk mereka melalui penggunaan bahan-bahan yang digunakan. Bahan-bahan yang digunakan untuk menghasilkan produk inilah yang dirujuk sebagai "ubat" yang akan membantu pengguna yang menhadapi masalah kulit muka.

Kelompok sinonim ketiga, kata "membantu" yang menurut Kamus Dewan (2015, hlm. 126) bermaksud memberikan bantuan, menolong, menyokong. Definisi kata ini sekali gus menjelaskan bahawa produk yang digunakan mempunyai potensi untuk menyelesaikan masalah kecantikan pengguna. Kata ini menjanjikan kepada pengguna bahawa mereka akan diberikan pertolongan dalam semua aspek masalah kecantikan yang dihadapi. Secara tidak langsung makna kata ini telah memberikan janji dan harapan kepada pengguna bahawa mereka akan dibantu dalam penyelesaian masalah yang dihadapi. Pengiklan dalam konteks ini telah memperlihatkan perulangan penggunaan kata ini sebanyak 25, (12.20%). Rujuk silang yang dilakukan memperlihatkan kata ini bersinonim dengan kata "memberikan" (Tesaurus Bahasa Melayu Dewan, 2015 hlm. 1046). Penggunaan kata "membantu" ternyata menjadi pilihan pengiklan kerana makna kata ini yang bermaksud penyelamat dalam situasi empunyai diri yang bermasalah sudah gagal menyelesaikan masalah mereka sendiri sehingga memerlukan bantuan produk dalam penyelesaian masalah mereka. Dalam kasus ini kata "memberi" tidak menjadi pilihan kerana makna kata ini yang kurang memberikan impak makna menolong secara eksplisit.

Seterusnya kelompok makna sinonim keempat, kata "menggebukan" dengan kata dasarnya "gebu" bermaksud penuh berisi, licin dan halus kulitnya (Kamus Dewan, 2015 hlm. 441). Kata ini ini menjadi pilihan pengiklan berbanding dengan kata sinonimnya "menghaluskan". Ini kerana makna kata "gebu" lebih mencakupi konsep makna yang luas berbanding "halus". "Gebu" tidak bermaksud gemuk sebaliknya penuh berisi yang berantonim dengan lisut, iaitu kecut yang menberikan kesan kendur dan berkedut berbanding penuh berisi yang memberikan kesan tegang sekali gus licin dan halus. Sehubungan itu, pengiklan ternyata bijak dalam melakukan pemilihan kata dalam menarik perhatian wanita.

Kelompok sinonim kelima, "membersih/membersihkan" bermaksud menjadikan sesuatu bersih (Kamus Dewan, hlm, 172). Kata ini menjadi pilihan pengiklan, iaitu berulang sebanyak 7 (3.42%). Walaupun kata ini bersinonim dengan kata "mencuci" (Tesaurus Bahasa Melayu Dewan, 2015, hlm. 104), kata "membersih/membersihkan" ternyata menjadi pilihan kerana kolokasi yang berlaku apabila menggunakan kata "bersih", maka kata yang dihubungkannya ialah "putih" – "putih bersih". Tidak berlaku kasus "putih cuci" tetapi "cuci bersih". Ini memungkinkan pengiklan lebih menekankan makna bersih yang digunakan dalam iklan produk kecantikan muka.

Kelompok sinonim keenam, "menaik/menaikkan" yang bermaksud menjadikan naik (tinggi) (Kamus Dewan, 2015, hlm.1066). Kata ini menjadi pilihan pengiklan dalam produk kecantikan muka kerana sering kali kata "menaikkan" ini dikolokasi dengan kata "seri", iaitu "menaikkan seri muka". Tidak berlaku dalam kasus kecantikan muka, kata "meningkatkan" digunakan dengan maksudkan seri muka yang dirujuk.

Kelompok sinonim ketujuh dan kelapan tidak memperlihatkan perbezaan yang siginifikan, sehubungan dengan itu, kedua-dua kelompok ini tidak dibincangkan dari aspek maknanya.

Sementara itu, hubungan leksikal antonimi dapat dilihat pada Jadual 3 yang berikut, iaitu kata kerja yang digunakan sama ada secara pilihan, iaitu salah satu kata kerja ini digunakan dalam iklan atau pun berlaku kasus, kedua-dua hubungan leksikal ini hadir secara serentak dalam slogan dan keterangan iklan. Paparan dapatan frekuensi ini disusun berdasarkan jumlah kekerapan tertinggi kepada jumlah kekerapan terendah. Jadual 3 dipaparkan dalam empat kolum, kolum 1 – Bilangan; kolum 2 – Kata Kerja; kolum 3 – Jumlah dan kolum 4 – Peratusan.

Jadual 3
Hubungan leksikal – antonimi

Bil.	Kata Kerja	Jumlah	Peratusan
1.	Mencerah/mencerahkan	36	17.56
	Memutihkan	1	0.49
	Menyerikan	1	0.49
	Memudarkan	1	0.49
2.	Melembap/melembapkan	16	7.81
	Mengeringkan	1	0.49
3.	Menaikkan/naik	6	2.93
	Meningkatkan	1	0.49
	Mengurangi/mengurangkan	6	2.93

Jadual 3 memperlihatkan kata yang berantonim dapat dikelompokkan kepada tiga. Kelompok pertama memperlihatkan hubungan pertentangan berkaitan dengan warna pada kulit muka; kelompok kedua berkaitan dengan kadar kelembapan kulit muka dan kelompok yang ketiga berhubungan dengan usaha memperbaiki keadaan kulit muka.

Ketiga-tiga kasus kelompok antonim ini memperlihatkan bahawa kata yang mempunyai makna positif dipentingkan oleh pengiklan dalam menarik perhatian khayalak penggunanya. Ini bertepatan dengan perbincangan antaranya Leech (1966), Dyer (1982), Emodi (2011) dan Lazović (2014). Pengiklan akan lebih cenderung menggunakan kata yang bermaksud positif bagi memberikan impak kepada produk yang dihasilkan dan memberikan keyakinan kepada pengguna. Kata-kata yang bersifat positif ini secara tidak langsung memberikan motivasi kepada pengguna, iaitu semangat dan harapan bahawa mereka difahami dan akan dibantu dalam masalah kecantikan muka yang dihadapi.

Kesimpulan

Kata kerja dalam slogan dan penerangan iklan digunakan oleh pengiklan secara terancang, iaitu dari aspek makna yang dirujuk bagi menarik perhatian khalayak sasarannya. Ini bererti pemilihan kata kerja tidak dilakukan secara sewenang-sewenangnya. Menurut Lazović (2014) syarikat pengeluar produk akan memilih kata yang signifikan dan relevan dengan produk yang dipasarkan bagi menarik perhatian khalayak sasaran mereka Dalam konteks produk kecantikan wanita, iaitu muka, kata kerja yang digunakan merupakan kata kerja yang mempunyai makna memberikan harapan atau janji yang dirujuk sebagai *weasel,* iaitu muslihat yang mendorong pengguna berfikir tentang kemampuan atau manfaat penggunaan produk walaupun makna kata tersebut tidak semestinya benar dalam konteks yang dirujuk (Synovitz & Larson, 2018). Ini bererti harapan dan janji akan kebekesanan produk tidak dapat dipastikan. Ini kerana sesetengah produk yang dipasarkan tidak melalui proses penyelidikan dan ada pula produk yang belum atau tidak mendapat kelulusan daripada Kementerian Kesihatan Malaysia (KKM). Kepentingan adanya penyelidikan dan kelulusan KKM sebelum memasarkan sesuatu produk ada dinyatakan melalui laman sesawang SIRIM Berhad (2019) tentang kepentingan R&D dalam kosmetik.

Dapatan analisis memperlihatkan pengiklan bijak dalam memilih kata kerja yang digunakan dalam slogan dan keterangan produk, iaitu kata yang signifikan dan relevan dengan produk yang dipasarkan. Frekuensi yang tinggi diperlihatkan dengan penggunaan kata “mencerah/mencerahkan”, “merawat” dan “membantu” yang merujuk kepada makna kemampuan produk tersebut bagi mencantikkan muka. Hubungan leksikal sinonimi pula memperlihatkan pilihan utama kata yang digunakan oleh pengiklan, misalnya kata “mencerahkan” berbanding “menyerikan”; “merawat” berbanding “memelihara”; “membantu” berbanding “memberi”; “menggebukan” berbanding “menghaluskan”; “membersihkan” berbanding “mencuci” dan “menaik”/menaikkan” berbanding “meningkatkan”. Kesemua makna kata ini mendukung makna yang positif. Hal yang sama untuk antonimi, iaitu makna yang berciri negatif dielakkan penggunaannya. Dapatan analisis memperlihatkan kata “memudarkan” dan “menggeringkan” tidak menjadi pilihan.

Penggunaan kata kerja ini menjadi daya tarikan kepada wanita untuk mencuba produk yang dipasarkan apatah lagi kadang kala iklan tersebut disokong dengan testimoni pengguna. Dalam kasus ini pengiklan ternyata menggunakan strategi pemasaran yang dirujuk sebagai AIDA, *attention* dengan maksud menarik perhatian pengguna; *interest,* meningkatkan minat; *desire,* keinginan dan *action*, melakukan tindakan, iaitu pembelian (Hadiyati, 2016). Sehubungan itu, kajian Leech (1966) tentang fungsi atribut kata kerja dalam bahasa iklan memperlihatkan pengiklan sememangnya bijak melakukan pemilihan kata kerja yang sesuai dengan produk yang dipasarkan bagi memastikan produk mereka terus mendapat sambutan.

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Penghargaan

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PEMBINAAN MODUL PEMBELAJARAN *‘ADAD* DAN *MA‘DŪD* BERPANDUKAN AYAT AL-QURAN

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Manuscript received 14 April 2019
Manuscript accepted 13 June 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1411.2019

ABSTRAK

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk membina sebuah modul yang berkesan bagi mengatasi masalah miskonsepsi dalam pembelajaran *‘adad* dan *ma‘dūd*. Kajian terdahulu menunjukkan pelajar sering terdedah kepada miskonsepsi dalam menguasai *‘adad* dan *ma‘dūd* Arab. Hal ini kerana sistem pembahagian, konsep dan jenis *‘adad* serta *ma‘dūd* dalam tatabahasa Arab yang berbeza dengan konsep yang digunapakai dalam bahasa asal pelajar. Hasil dapatan kajian terdahulu mendapati al-Quran mempunyai sumber yang mencukupi bagi membina sebuah modul pembelajaran berkaitan tajuk ini. Manakala pendekatan ADDIE didapati sangat membantu dalam membina sebuah modul pembelajaran. Melalui fasa-fasa yang dicadangkan, maka modul ini dibina dengan membahagikan *‘adad* kepada tiga kelompok sahaja berdasarkan kepada persamaan ciri dalam setiap kelompok berkenaan iaitu *‘adad* sama, *‘adad* berlawanan dan *‘adad* neutral. Pembahagian ini dilakukan untuk mengurangkan masalah kekeliruan dalam kalangan golongan sasaran seterusnya menangani permasalahan miskonsepsi yang diketengahkan. Melalui pendekatan ini diharap masalah miskonsepsi berkaitan tajuk ini dapat diatasi.

Kata kunci: miskonsepsi*, ‘adad, ma‘dūd,* gangguan bahasa Arab, nahu al-Quran

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ADAD AND MAʻDŪD LEARNING MODULE GUIDED BY QUR'ANIC VERSES

ABSTRACT

This study aims to develop an effective module to address misconceptions in learning ʻadad and maʻdūd. Previous studies have shown that students are often exposed to misconceptions in mastering Arabic ʻadad and maʻdūd. This is because of the division system, concepts and types of ʻadad and maʻdūd in Arabic grammar that differ from the concepts adopted in the original language of the students. The findings of the previous study found that the Qur'an has sufficient resources to build a learning module on this topic. The ADDIE approach is very helpful in building a learning module. Through the proposed phases, the module is built by dividing ʻadad into three groups only based on the characteristic equations in each of the respective groups ie ʻadad equals, ʻadad opposite and ʻadad neutral. This division was carried out to minimise confusion among target groups to address the problem of misconception presented. Through this approach it is hoped that misconceptions related to this topic can be overcome.

Keywords: *misconception, ʻadad, maʻdūd, Arabic language disturbance, gammar in al-Quran*

Pendahuluan

Miskonsepsi ialah kesilapan konsep dalam penggunaan tatabahasa sama ada dalam pertuturan ataupun penulisan (Kamarulzaman Abdul Ghani et al., 2012). Miskonsepsi sering terjadi dalam penggunaan ʻ*adad* dan *maʻdūd* dalam kalangan pengguna bahasa Arab hatta penutur jati bahasa ini sendiri (al-Rājihiy, 1998). Hal ini kerana terdapat kaedah yang pelbagai dan jenis *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* yang banyak dalam tatabahasa Arab. Setiap jenis *ʻadad* mempunyai kaedah khusus yang berbeza dengan jenis *ʻadad* yang lain. Keadaan ini menuntut penutur peka dengan setiap jenis *ʻadad* dan cara penggunaannya untuk mengelakkan daripada melakukan kesalahan tatabahasa.

Penutur Melayu jati yang mengaplikasikan penggunaan bahasa Arab yang dipelajari akan cenderung menggunakan unsur-unsur bahasa ibunda apabila menggunakan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* Arab. Mereka menggunakan ayat-ayat seperti وَاحِد كِتَاب (sebuah buku), اثنَانِ كِتَاب (dua buah buku) dan السَّاعَةُ إِحْدَى عَشْرَة (pukul sebelas) dalam penulisan dan percakapan (Mohamad Hussin, 2010). Hal ini kerana pengaruh gangguan bahasa ibunda yang sama sekali berbeza dengan tatabahasa Arab. Menurut Abdullah Hassan (1983), perlakuan kebudayaan dan linguistik yang sudah ada pada pelajar sentiasa mempengaruhi proses mempelajari bahasa kedua.

Dalam tatabahasa Melayu, *ʻadad* dinamakan kata bilangan dan kata bilangan berfungsi menjadi penerang jumlah kepada frasa nama. Kata bilangan hadir sebelum frasa nama dalam semua keadaan (Nik Safiah Karim, Farid M. Onn, Hashim Haji Musa, & Abdul Hamid Mahmood, 2011). Manakala dalam tatabahasa Arab pula, *ʻadad mufrad* satu وَاحِدٌ dan dua (اِثنَانِ) contohnya, tidak perlu dinyatakan dalam ayat.

Sekiranya dinyatakan, *ʻadad mufrad* kategori ini hadir selepas frasa nama dengan gender dan bilangan yang sama dengan *maʻdūd* seperti كتابٌ واحدٌ (sebuah kitab), dan berfungsi sebagai kata sifat. Manakala *ʻadad mufrad* daripada tiga ثَلَاثَةٌ hingga sembilan تِسْعَةٌ pula hadir sebelum kata nama, berlawanan dengan *maʻdūd* dari segi gender dan *maʻdūd* digunakan dengan pola jamak seperti أَرْبَعَ رَكَعَاتٍ (al-Rājiḥiy, 1998).

Perbezaan yang ketara antara dua sistem bahasa yang berasal daripada dua rumpun bahasa yang berlainan ini menyumbang kepada berlakunya miskonsepsi apabila pelajar menggunakan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* dalam penggunaan harian. Justeru, kajian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis permasalahan yang berlaku dan mencadangkan sebuah modul pembelajaran yang dijangka dapat menangani permasalahan ini.

Permasalahan Kajian

Kajian terdahulu mendapati tahap penguasaan pelajar yang mempelajari bahasa Arab secara keseluruhannya sama ada penulisan atau pembacaan atau pertuturan masih berada di tahap sederhana atau lemah (AlMuslim Mustapa, 2012; Ab Halim Mohamad 2002; Mohd Saiful Fahmi Mohd Nasir, 2017; Nik Mahfuzah Nik Mat, 2013; Zainol Abidin Ahmad, 2002). Masalah fonologi, morfologi dan masalah struktur ayat yang tidak sama dengan bahasa asal penutur merupakan antara cabaran dalam menguasai bahasa Arab (Ismail Hj. Ibrahim, 1974), lebih-lebih lagi topik perbincangan seumpama *ʻadad* dan pelengkapnya, *maʻdūd* yang merupakan sebuah topik yang rumit. Setiap jenis *ʻadad* mempunyai kaedah khusus yang berbeza dengan jenis yang lain (Ḍayf, 1986). Sungguhpun begitu bahagian ini penting kerana merupakan bahagian yang paling banyak digunakan oleh penutur sesuatu bahasa dalam penggunaan harian (al-Dīkiy, 2007).

Analisis yang dilakukan oleh Nurazizah Marup dan Harun Baharudin (2016) mendapati kesukaran menguasai topik ini adalah kerana keadah tatabahasa yang mengelirukan, mempunyai perkaitan dengan topik lain, kesukaran untuk membuat perbandingan dengan nahu Melayu dan topik yang kurang popular atau sering dipinggirkan serta masa interaksi yang diperuntukkan berdasarkan sukatan pelajaran adalah tidak mencukupi untuk disampaikan kepada pelajar. Manakala kajian yang dilakukan oleh Hakim Zainal dan Mohd Muslim Abdullah (2014) terhadap 50 orang pelajar di Temerloh mendapati sebanyak 927 kesalahan berkaitan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* dilakukan oleh responden. Kesalahan yang paling banyak adalah dalam aspek *iʻrab ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd*, diikuti oleh kesalahan padanan genus, seterusnya kesalahan yang berkaitan dengan penulisan *maʻdūd*, kesalahan dalam meletakkan kedudukan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd*, kesalahan padanan bilangan antara *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* dan kesalahan berkaitan penulisan *ʻadad*.

Justeru, suatu pendekatan yang berkesan perlu diketengahkan bagi mengatasi masalah miskonsepsi berkaitan dengan topik ini (Imam Mul Hakim 2012; Nurul Hudaa Hassan, Nik Mohd Rahimi Nik Yusof, & Ashraf Ismail, 2012). Kajian terdahulu menunjukkan pendekatan nahu al-Quran merupakan satu alternatif dalam pengajaran nahu Arab. Pendekatan nahu al-Quran bermaksud pendekatan menggunakan al-Quran sebagai medium utama dalam pengajaran dan pembelajaran tatabahasa Arab (Zambri Rajab dan Kaseh Abu Bakar, 2011). Pendekatan ini mula mendapat perhatian apabila al-Anṣāriy (1405H) menghasilkan kitabnya yang berjudul *Naẓariyyah al-Naḥwi al-Qur'āniy Nash'atuha wa Taṭawwuruha* yang menekankan tentang perlunya menjadikan al-Quran sebagai asas dalam meletakkan kaedah tatabahasa Arab.

Kajian Suhaila Zailani @ Haji Ahmad et al. (2012) mendapati pendekatan mengajar bahasa Arab melalui modul berteraskan al-Quran mengatasi pendekatan lain yang dicadangkan. 83.3% responden kajiannya mencadangkan agar pengajaran nahu menggunakan pendekatan al-Quran, manakala sebanyak 81.5% responden berharap pendekatan bacaan dalam solat dijadikan sebagai asas dalam pembinaan modul pembelajaran bahasa Arab. Manakala Zambri Rajab, Zulazhan Ab. Halim, dan Kamarul Shukri Mat Teh (2016) dalam kajian mereka menemui dapatan yang menyokong pendekatan nahu al-Quran ini. Beliau menegaskan bahawa mengambil syahid daripada al-Quran adalah merupakan pendekatan terpilih dalam pembelajaran bahasa Arab kerana al-Quran mesra dalam kehidupan seharian mereka. Mohd Zulkifli Muda (2015) menyatakan al-Quran merupakan sumber terbaik bagi meningkatkan penguasaan bahasa Arab. Hal ini kerana pelajar dapat menghafaz ayat-ayat berkenaan dan dapat menggunakannya semula ketika mempraktiskan bahasa Arab. Berkaitan dengan topik *'adad* dan *ma'dūd,* Hakim Zainal dan Mohd Muslim Abdullah (2014) menegaskan bahawa pengajaran berteraskan ayat al-Quran mampu membantu memudahkan pembelajaran tajuk ini. Sementelah pula semua jenis *'adad* serta pelengkapnya yang dibincangkan dalam tatabahasa Arab terdapat padanannya dalam al-Quran (Mohamad Hussin & Mohd Sukki, 2018). Ayat-ayat ini boleh dimanipulasi untuk dijadikan asas dalam pembinaan model pengajaran tajuk yang kerap mengundang miskonsepsi ini.

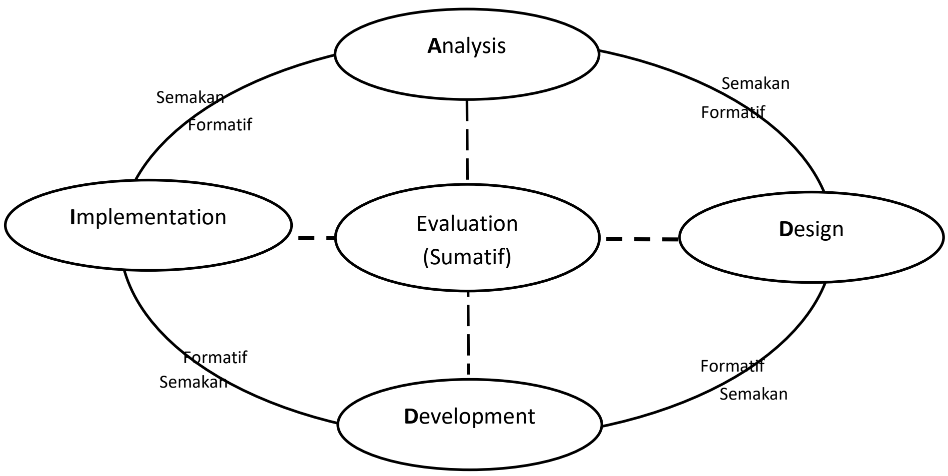
Oleh itu, kajian ini mengetengahkan pendekatan menerapkan pengajaran topik *'adad* dan *ma'dūd* dengan menggunakan pendekatan menerapkan ayat-ayat al-Quran berkaitan yang disusun sebagai pola berdasarkan kepada analisis keperluan. Melalui pendekatan ini permasalahan yang menjadi isu kajian akan dianalisis dan modul pembelajaran akan dibina. Dalam membangunkan modul kajian, pendekatan ADDIE yang mempunyai lima fasa iaitu Analysis, Development, Design, Implimentation dan Evaluation dijadikan sebagai kerangka rujukan.

Metodologi Kajian

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk membina sebuah modul yang mantap bagi mengatasi miskonsepsi dalam pembelajaran *'adad* dan *ma'dūd* dalam kalangan pelajar. Dalam menjalankan kajian ini pengkaji akan menganalisis dapatan kajian lampau bagi mengesan permasalahan berkaitan dengan tajuk kajian. Kajian yang ada dianalisis dan dirumuskan permasalahan yang timbul yang menyebabkan berlakunya miskonsepsi dalam menguasai topik ini. Hasil dapatan analisis, pengkaji akan membina sebuah modul berpandukan kepada model reka bentuk pengajaraan ADDIE. Justifikasi pemilihan model ADDIE adalah kerana prosedur model ini menunjukkan aliran sistematik, lengkap dan terarah bagi membantu penghasilan sebuah model baharu. Khairuddin Nisa (2008) menyifatkan penggunaan model ADDIE memberi banyak manfaat disebabkan wujud prosedur mantap serta saling memerlukan pada setiap peringkat kajian. Penerapan model ADDIE dalam mereka bentuk modul pengajaran juga akan memudahkan proses pembelajaran melalui interaksi daripada pelbagai situasi, sama ada interaksi dalam konteks, atau interaksi antara konteks (Branch, 2009).

Oleh kerana model ADDIE dibangunkan berlandaskan teori behaviorisme, maka pendekatan menerapkan pola ayat tertentu akan dijadikan asas dalam pembinaan modul. Hal ini kerana pendekatan pendokong teori behaviorisme yang mendakwa bahawa sesuatu lakuan yang terbentuk melalui lakuan yang diulang dan dikukuhkan adalah dasar untuk menyelesaikan masalah gangguan bahasa ibunda (Abdullah Hassan, 1983, hlm. 271). Melalui pendekatan ini, responden akan didedahkan dengan suatu ayat sebagai pola, mengingati ayat berkenaan, memahami konsep berkaitan tatabahasa berpandukan kepada ayat yang dijadikan pola dan mengunakannya semula apabila diperlukan. Melalui pendekatan ini, permasalahan miskonsepsi dijangka akan dikurangkan atau dapat diatasi dalam penggunaan harian.

Model ADDIE adalah sebuah model yang dikembangkan daripada model pembelajaran yang mula diperkenalkan oleh Universiti of Florida untuk kegunaan latihan tentera Amerika Syarikat pada tahun 1975 (Branson, Rayner, Cox, Furman, King, & Hannum, dipetik daripada Hays, 2006). Model ini merupakan salah satu model yang paling biasa digunakan dalam mereka bentuk modul pengajaran dan pembelajaran berkesan dan boleh dipraktiskan dalam mana-mana situasi pembelajaran sama ada bersemuka atau atas talian (Aldoobie, 2015). Model ini terkenal dengan nama ADDIE yang merupakan akronim kepada lima fasa yang dilalui dalam membangunkan sebuah model pengajaran iaitu Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, Evaluation. Setiap fasa pula saling berkait dengan fasa sebelum dan fasa selepasnya. Aplikasi model ADDIE boleh dijelaskan melalui Rajah 1:



Rajah 1. Model ADDIE (adaptasi daripada Branch, 2009).

Model ini merupakan model pengajaran interaktif. Melalui pendekatan model ini, keputusan ujian formatif di mana-mana bahagian akan membantu pengatur program untuk kembali semula ke mana-mana fasa sebelumnya.

Dapatan Kajian dan Perbincangan

Dalam proses membina modul kajian ini, semua fasa model ADDIE diaplikasikan. Fasa-fasa berkenaan melibatkan: (1) fasa analisis (Analysis), (2) fasa reka bentuk (Design), (3) fasa pembangunan (Development), (4) fasa pelaksanaan (Implementation) dan (5) fasa penilaian (Evaluation). Dapatan mengikut fasa boleh dipaparkan seperti berikut:

1. Fasa Analisis (Analysis)

Langkah pertama yang perlu dijalankan dalam mereka bentuk modul pengajaran mengikut fasa ADDIE adalah fasa analisis. Fasa Analisis merupakan asas untuk fasa-fasa seterusnya dalam mereka bentuk sesuatu pengajaran. Tujuan fasa analisis ialah untuk mengenal pasti punca-punca dan jurang prestasi (Branch, 2009).

Dalam fasa ini, beberapa analisis dijalankan dan antara yang terpenting adalah mengenal pasti masalah dan cara penyelesaiannya. Tujuan utama proses ini adalah untuk memastikan reka bentuk pengajaran yang akan dihasilkan menepati dan memenuhi keperluan pelajar yang sebenar. Masalah yang berkaitan boleh dikenal pasti melalui pelbagai kaedah atau teknik misalnya temu bual, pemerhatian, tinjauan, soal selidik dan sebagainya. Antara perkara yang perlu diambil perhatian dalam fasa analisis ialah mengesahkan jurang prestasi, menentukan matlamat pengajaran, menganalisis pelajar, menganalisis sumber yang tersedia, mengesyorkan sistem penyampaian potensi dan menulis rancangan pengurusan projek (Branch, 2009).

Secara ringkasnya, dalam konteks mereka bentuk modul pembelajaran *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* ini pengkaji merujuk kepada soal selidik yang dibina bagi tujuan melihat penguasaan pelajar terhadap topik yang akan dirawat. Hasil soal selidik kertas pensil yang dijalankan mendapati purata pencapaian responden terhadap semua bahagian ujian mengikut urutan adalah seperti berikut:

1) penguasaan terjemahan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* dari bahasa Arab kepada bahasa Melayu (90%)
2) melengkapkan ayat dengan *ʻadad* atau *maʻdūd* bagi membentuk ayat yang sempurna (39%)
3) penguasaan *ʻadad al-tartībiy* (37%)
4) pengetahuan asas *adad* dan *maʻdūd* (32.1%)
5) penguasaan terjemahan dari bahasa Melayu kepada bahasa Arab (30%)
6) menentukan padanan *ʻadad* dalam petikan berdasarkan fungsi nahuan (29.4%)
7) menentukan padanan *maʻdūd* dengan fungsi nahuan yang betul (24%)

8) penguasaan *iʻrāb ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* (11%)

Jelas bahawa pencapaian semua responden berada pada tahap yang lemah dalam kebanyakan bahagian soal selidik. Ini juga merupakan petunjuk bahawa penguasaan pelajar mengenai *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* ini masih lagi di tahap yang memerlukan penambahbaikan yang sewajarnya.

Kajian juga mendapati penguasaan *iʻrāb*, adalah merupakan bahagian paling lemah bagi kebanyakan pelajar. Untuk menguasai *iʻrāb* dengan baik, pelajar perlu menguasai keseluruhan sistem lakuan kata dalam tatabahasa Arab. Inilah merupakan halangan bagi pelajar dalam menentukan *iʻrāb* yang tepat bagi sesuatu perkataan. Pelajar bukan sahaja perlu menguasai tajuk *ʻadad* tetapi juga perlu menguasai tajuk-tajuk berkaitan dengannya seperti *mubtadāʼ* dan *khabar*, *muḍāf* dan *muḍāf ilayhi, tamyīz, naʻat, fāʻil, mafʻūl* dan lain-lain.

Dapatan ini adalah selari dengan dapatan Che Kamaruddin Kamel Che Muhammad (1999, hlm. 68) yang menyatakan bahawa penguasaan tatabahasa Arab dalam kalangan pelajar peringkat menengah adalah lemah. Kelemahan pelajar amat ketara dalam penggunaan *jumlah ʼismiyyah* dan *jumlah fiʻliyyah* yang mana 100% pelajar gagal menjawab soalan yang dikemukakan.

Mengenai penguasaan *ʻadad tartībiy* dan juga terjemahan bahasa Arab kepada bahasa Melayu, dapatan kajian menunjukkan sebahagian responden terkesan dengan bahasa ibunda mereka. Responden cenderung menggunakan unsur-unsur bahasa ibunda dalam menggunakan *ʻadad* terbabit yang menunjukkan kesukaran mereka menyerap budaya bahasa baru yang dipelajari. Pelajar cenderung menggunakan ayat-ayat seperti berikut وَاحِد مَنْزِل (sebuah rumah), اثنَانِ كِتَاب (dua buah buku), dan السَّاعَة احدَى عَشْرَة (pukul sebelas) dalam penulisan mereka.

Dapatan ini ada kaitannya dengan masalah gangguan dalam pemerolehan bahasa kedua. Dalam hal ini, lakuan kebudayaan dan linguistik yang sudah ada pada pelajar iaitu daripada bahasa ibundanya sentiasa mempengaruhi proses mempelajari bahasa kedua tersebut. Seorang pelajar bahasa kedua, perlu menguasai lakuan bahasa yang baru dan terpaksa memilih untuk menggunakan yang baru atau yang lama mengikut keperluan konteks (Abdullah Hassan, 1983, p. 270). Justeru, sesuatu perlu dilakukan supaya gangguan atau halangan berkenaan boleh dikurangkan.

Abdullah Hassan (1983, hlm. 271) menyarankan agar para pengajar bahasa, mengunakan pendekatan pendokong teori behaviorisme yang mendakwa bahawa lakuan itu terbentuk melalui lakuan yang diulang dan dikukuhkan sebagai dasar untuk menyelesaikan masalah gangguan bahasa ibunda. Melalui pendekatan ini, latihan perlu ditingkatkan dan digandakan terutamanya dalam bahagian yang mana lakuan bahasa ibunda mengganggu perbentukan lakuan bahasa yang sedang dipelajari. Melalui pendedahan yang diulang-ulang dan secara berterusan ini, pelajar akan menguasai konsep baharu dan dapat menggunakannya dengan baik, tanpa ada kekeliruan. Kekeliruan merupakan antara alasan dengan kekerapan yang terbesar yang dikemukakan responden. Mereka keliru dalam menentukan padanan *ʻadad* dengan *maʻdūd* yang sesuai, keliru dengan perubahan baris akhir atau tanda *iʻrāb*, keliru dengan penggunaan *maʻdūd* yang sepadan, sama ada kata nama tunggal atau kata nama jamaʻ, keliru dengan fungsi nahuan *maʻdūd* sama ada *naʻat* atau *muḍāf* *ilayhi* atau *tamyīz*, keliru dengan jenis-jenis *ʻadad* dan keliru juga untuk menentukan penggunaan sama ada *ʻadad aṣliy* atau *ʻadad al-tartībiy*.

2. Fasa Reka Bentuk (Design)

Reka bentuk atau *design* merupakan fasa kedua dalam merangka pengajaran mengikut modul ADDIE. Fasa kedua ini bertujuan menentukan dan mereka bentuk kaedah instruksional yang dikehendaki (Branch, 2009). Dalam proses mereka bentuk modul pembelajaran *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* bahasa Arab fasa ini akan menjawab persoalan yang dikemukakan dari fasa analisis.

ʻAdad dan *maʻdūd* adalah merupakan satu tajuk penting yang diajar dalam sukatan pelajaran bahasa Arab sama ada secara langsung atau tidak langsung. Pelajar telah didedahkan dengan topik ini sejak daripada tahap pengenalan bahasa Arab sehingga ke peringkat universiti. Hal ini kerana topik ini merupakan topik paling kerap digunakan terutama dalam praktis komunikasi seharian (al-Dīkiy, 2007). Kepentingan menguasai *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* ialah topik ini akan membantu pelajar dalam komunikasi. Saban hari pelajar terdedah dengan penggunaan nombor dalam banyak situasi baik dalam perbualan atau penulisan atau pembacaan. Pelajar yang menguasai *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* akan dapat membaca dengan lancar sebarang teks yang berkaitan nombor, akan menangkap dengan mudah bahan yang didengari, akan menulis dengan tepat jumlah nombor dan penjodoh bilangan serta tidak gusar untuk menerangkan jumlah tertentu dengan lancar.

Modul ini dibina dengan menggunakan teks-teks terpilih yang bersesuaian dengan latar belakang pelajar. Dalam mencapai objektif pembelajaran iaitu menguasai pembelajaran *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* bahasa Arab dan menangani masalah miskonsepsi dalam topik berkenaan, bahan-bahan yang bersumberkan al-Quran dipilih dan dijadikan sebagai pola. Langkah ini diambil kerana kajian terdahulu menunjukkan bahawa pendekatan nahu al-Quran merupakan satu alternatif dalam pengajaran tatabahasa Arab. Kajian Suhaila Zailani @ Haji Ahmad et al. (2012) mendapati pendekatan mengajar bahasa Arab melalui modul berteraskan al-Quran mengatasi pendekatan lain yang dicadangkan. Sebanyak 83.3% responden kajiannya mencadangkan agar pengajaran tatabahasa menggunakan pendekatan al-Quran, manakala sebanyak 81.5% responden berharap pendekatan bacaan dalam solat dijadikan sebagai asas dalam pembinaan modul pembelajaran bahasa Arab. Manakala Zambri Rajab et al. (2016) dalam kajiannya menemui dapatan yang menyokong pendekatan nahu al-Quran ini. Beliau menegaskan bahawa mengambil syahid daripada al-Quran adalah merupakan pendekatan terpilih dalam pembelajaran bahasa Arab kerana al-Quran mesra dalam kehidupan seharian mereka. Mohd Zulkifli Muda (2015) menyatakan al-Quran merupakan sumber terbaik bagi meningkatkan penguasaan bahasa Arab. Hal ini kerana pelajar dapat menghafaz ayat-ayat berkenaan dan dapat menggunakannya semula ketika mempraktiskan bahasa dalam komunikasi sebenar.

Justeru, kajian ini mengetengahkan pendekatan menerapkan pengajaran topik *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* dengan menggunakan pendekatan menerapkan ayat-ayat al-Quran berkaitan yang disusun mengikut jenis-jenis *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* Arab. Analisis dilakukan ke atas ayat yang mempunyai perkataan *ʻadad* di dalamnya yang merangkumi semua jenis *‘adad* sama ada *‘adad mufrad*, *‘adad murakkab*, *‘adad ‘uqūd*, *‘adad ma‘ṭūf* atau *‘adad tartībiy* mengikut pendekatan yang digunakan oleh Ḍayf (1986). Tujuan analisis ini dilakukan ialah untuk memastikan terdapat sejumlah data yang mencukupi daripada sumber kajian untuk memastikan data berkenaan boleh dijadikan landasan dalam membina modul kajian. Dalam proses menganalisis, pendekatan yang diambil ialah mencari ayat yang mengandungi *‘adad* dan padanan *ma‘dūd*nya sahaja. *‘Adad* ialah lafaz yang menunjukkan jumlah atau susunan, manakala *ma‘dūd* pula lafaz yang menunjukkan benda yang dihitung (Ḍayf, 1986).

Peringkat analisis seterusnya ialah menganalisis penggunaan *‘adad* dan *ma‘dūd* dalam al-Quran. Dalam melaksanakan analisis ini pengkaji membataskan kepada ayat-ayat yang menyatakan dengan jelas *‘adad* serta *ma‘dud* di dalamnya. Ayat-ayat yang dikumpul, dipilih dan dicerakinkan mengikut pembahagian jenis *‘adad* mengikut pendekatan nahu al-Quran yang diperkenalkan oleh Ahmad Makki al-Anṣāriy (1405H). Pendekatan nahu al-Quran ialah pendekatan yang menggunakan ayat dan ungkapan dalam al-Quran sebagai asas pembinaan kaedah tatabahasa Arab. Melalui pendekatan ini al-Quran dijadikan sumber utama tatabahasa kerana ia mempunyai sejumlah evident yang mencukupi dengan kaedah yang tekal serta dengan gaya bahasa yang menarik. Kemuncak kepada analisis ini akan membawa kepada kefahaman bahawa al-Quran merupakan suatu input bahasa Arab yang bermutu tinggi dan kemampuannya dalam menjelaskan pelbagai isu tatabahasa Arab adalah suatu yang sangat menarik untuk dikaji.

3. Fasa Pembangunan (Development)

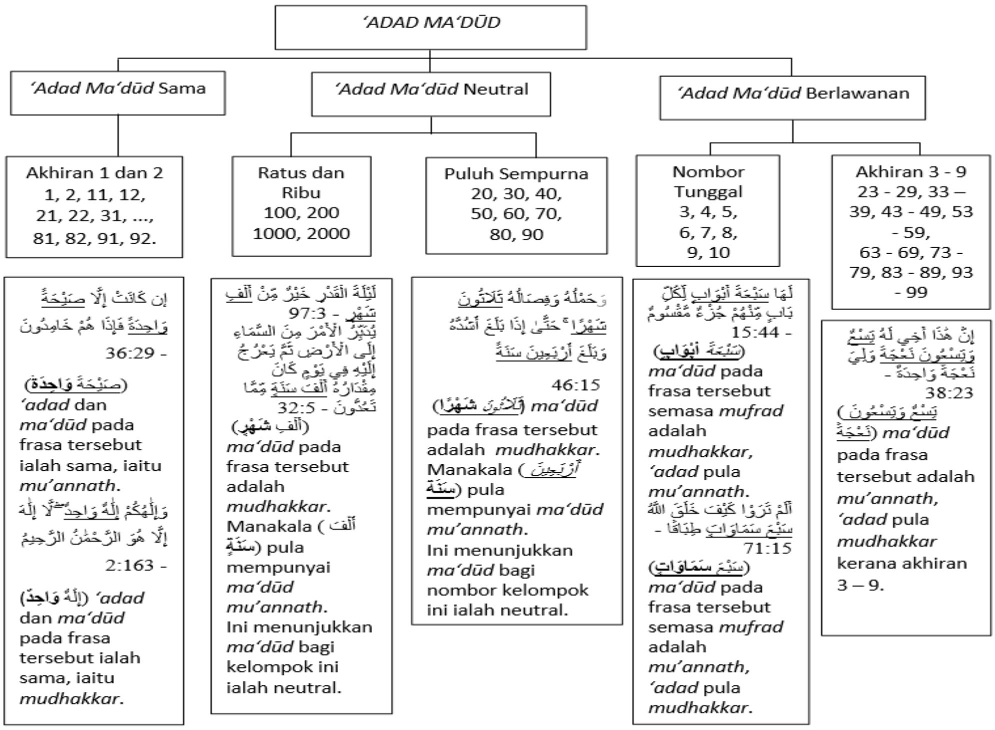
Tujuan fasa Pembangunan adalah untuk menjana dan mengesahkan sumber pembelajaran terpilih. Prosedur umum yang berkaitan dengan fasa pembangunan adalah seperti berikut:

1) menjana kandungan
2) memilih atau membina media penyokong
3) membangunkan panduan untuk pelajar
4) membangunkan panduan untuk guru
5) melaksanakan ujian formatif
6) mengendalikan ujian rintis (Branch, 2009).

Peringkat ini melibatkan proses membina sistem sebenar dengan menggunakan semua elemen yang terpilih berdasarkan keperluan. Fasa ini dibina berdasarkan kepada fasa analisis dan reka bentuk. Tujuan fasa ini ialah untuk menghasilkan rancangan pengajaran dan bahan pembelajaran yang bersesuaian. Output dalam fasa reka bentuk akan menjadi input kepada fasa pembangunan. Kerja-kerja pembangunan modul pembelajaran akan dilakukan mengikut spesifikasi keperluan yang dipersetujui. Setiap langkah dalam fasa pembangunan akan diuji agar konsisten dan dapat beroperasi dengan berkesan.

Oleh kerana hasil dapatan pada fasa analisis mendapati kekeliruan dan kesukaran menentukan padanan *‘adad* dan *ma‘dūd* merupakan penyebab miskonsepsi berkenaan topik ini, maka sebuah modul berasaskan kepada ayat-ayat al-Quran dibina sebagai langkah penyelesaian terhadap permasalahan berkenaan. Ayat al-Quran dipilih sebagai bahan kerana analisis kajian terdahulu mendapati responden yang berkaitan pembelajaran bahasa Arab lebih cenderung kepada pembelajaran berteraskan ayat al-Quran (Mohd Zulkifli Muda, 2015; Suhaila Zailani @ Haji Ahmad et al., 2012; Zambri Rajab et al., 2016). Melalui pendekatan ini modul dibina supaya pelajar dapat menghafaz ayat-ayat pilihan sebagai pola dan menggunakannya semula ketika mempraktiskan bahasa dalam komunikasi sebenar.

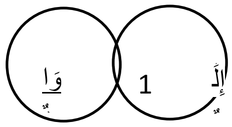
Untuk menangani masalah kekeliruan, modul yang dibina akan membahagikan *ʻadad* Arab kepada tiga kelompok sahaja iaitu *ʻadad maʻdūd* sama, *ʻadad maʻdūd* berlawan dan *ʻadad maʻdūd* neutral. Pembahagian ini dibuat berdasarkan kepada persamaan ciri antara kelompok *ʻadad* berkenaan. Pembahagian yang dilakukan boleh diringkaskan seperti Rajah 2.



Rajah 2. Pembahagian *ʻadad* kepada kelompok *ʻadad* sama, *ʻadad* berlawanan dan *ʻadad* neutral

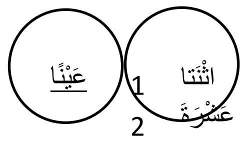
ʻAdad dan *maʻdūd* sama ialah *ʻadad* yang berakhir dengan nombor 1 dan 2 seperti 1, 2, 11, 12, 21, 22, 31, 32, 41, 42, 51, 52, 61, 62, 71, 72, 81,82, 91 dan 92. Berdasarkan kaedah tatabahasa Arab, *ʻadad* yang berakhir dengan nombor 1 dan 2 adalah sama dengan *maʻdūd* dari sudut gender (*mudhakkar*/*muʼannath*). Perhatikan contoh-contoh berikut (Rajah 3):

وَإِلَٰهُكُمْ إِلَٰهٌ وَاحِدٌ



mudhakkar *mudhakkar*

فَانفَجَرَتْ مِنْهُ اثْنَتَا عَشْرَةَ عَيْنًا



mu'annath *mu'annath*

Rajah 3. 'Adad dan *ma'dūd* sama

Daripada Rajah 3, dapat dilihat persamaan pada gender *'adad* dan *ma'dūd*. Sekiranya *ma'dūd mudhakkar* (إِلَٰه), maka *'adad* juga *mudhakkar* (وَاحِدٌ) dan sebaliknya sekiranya *ma'dūd mu'annath* (عَيْنًا), maka *'adad* juga *mu'annath* (اثْنَتَا عَشْرَةَ). Begitulah juga situasinya *'adad* lain yang berakhir dengan 1 dan 2 seperti أمة واحدة, إِلَٰهَيْنِ اثْنَيْنِ dan أحد عشر كوكبا. Bagi nombor puluh yang berakhir dengan 1 dan 2, hanya nombor 1 dan 2 yang sama dengan *ma'dūd*. Nombor pada rumah puluh pula kekal neutral. Contohnya: واحد وعشرون كتاب [21 buah buku] dan اثنتان وأربعون سيارةً [42 buah kereta].

'Adad dan *ma'dūd* berlawanan pula ialah setiap nombor yang berakhir dengan nombor 3 hingga 9. Menurut kaedah tatabahasa Arab, setiap nombor yang berakhir dengan nombor 3 hingga 9 digunakan secara berlawanan dengan *ma'dūd* dari sudut gender. Nombor 10 juga termasuk dalam kelompok ini. Perhatikan contoh-contoh berikut:

لَهَا سَبْعَةُ أَبْوَابٍ

سَبْعَةُ أَبْوَابٍ	
أَبْوَابٍ	سَبْعَةُ
mudhakkar	*mu'annath*

أَلَمْ تَرَوْا كَيْفَ خَلَقَ اللَّهُ سَبْعَ سَمَاوَاتٍ طِبَاقًا

سَبْعَ سَمَاوَاتٍ	
سَمَاوَاتٍ	سَبْعَ
mu'annath	*mudhakkar*

Rajah 4. 'Adad dan *ma'dūd* berlawanan

Daripada Rajah 4, dapat dilihat perbezaan pada gender *'adad* dan *ma'dūd*. Sekiranya *ma'dūd* adalah *mu'annath* (سَمَاوَاتٍ), maka *'adad* adalah *mudhakkar* (سَبْعَ) dan sebaliknya sekiranya *ma'dūd* adalah *mudhakkar* (أَبْوَابٍ), maka *'adad* adalah *mu'annath* (سَبْعَةُ). Begitu juga dengan setiap nombor puluh yang berakhir dengan nombor 3 hingga 9 juga termasuk dalam kategori *'adad* dan *ma'dūd* berlawanan. Oleh itu, nombor tersebut perlu digunakan secara berlawanan dengan *ma'dūd* dari sudut gender. Perhatikan contoh berikut:

لَهُ تِسْعٌ وَتِسْعُونَ نَعْجَةً وَلِيَ نَعْجَةٌ وَاحِدَةٌ		
تِسْعٌ وَتِسْعُونَ نَعْجَةً		
نَعْجَةً	تِسْعُونَ	تِسْعٌ
mu'annath	neutral	*mudhakkar*

Rajah 5. ʻAdad dan maʻdūd berlawanan

Seperti yang tertera dalam Rajah 5 nombor pada rumah puluh kekal neutral dan tidak terkesan dari sudut gender. Oleh itu, hanya nombor pada rumah sa (3 – 9) sahaja yang akan dipengaruhi oleh *maʻdūd*. Perhatikan Rajah 6:

25 rumah		
خَمسَةٌ وَعِشْرُونَ بَيْتًا		
بَيْتًا	عِشْرُونَ	خَمْسَةٌ
mudhakkar	neutral	*mu'annath*

38 bantal		
ثَمَانِي وثَلاثُونَ وِسَادَةً		
وِسَادَةً	ثَلَاثُونَ	ثَمَانِي
mu'annath	neutral	*mudhakkar*

Rajah 6. ʻAdad maʻdūd berlawanan

Manakala *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* neutral pula ialah nombor yang berakhir dengan sifar. Terdapat dua kelompok *ʻadad* bagi kategori ini iaitu:

1) puluh sempurna
2) ratus, ribu dan seterusnya.

Jika diperhatikan, semua nombor ini berakhir dengan sifar seperti 20, 30, 40, 100, 200, 1000 dan seterusnya. Bagi kelompok ini, unsur gender adalah neutral, iaitu nombor-nombor ini kekal dan tidak berubah sama ada dipadankan dengan *maʻdūd mudhakkar* atau *maʻdūd mu'annath* seperti dalam dua contoh berikut (Rajah 7):

أَلْفٌ

1000

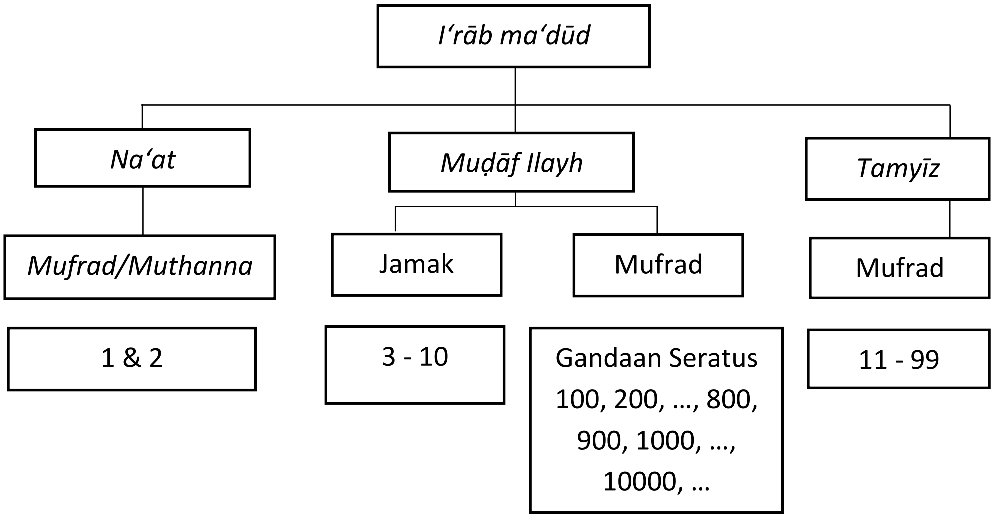
لَيْلَةُ الْقَدْرِ خَيْرٌ مِّنْ أَلْفِ شَهْرٍ   كَانَ مِقْدَارُهُ أَلْفَ سَنَةٍ مِّمَّا تَعُدُّونَ

شَهْرٍ *(mudhakkar)*   سَنَةٍ *(mu'annath)*

Rajah 7. ʻAdad dan *maʻdūd* neutral

ʻAdad أَلْفٌ kekal neutral dan tidak berubah walaupun dipadankan dengan *maʻdūd mudhakkar* (شَهْرٍ) atau *maʻdūd mu'annath* (سَنَةٍ). Begitulah juga keadaannya semua *ʻadad* yang berakhir dengan sifar seperti ثَلَاثُونَ شَهْرًا (tiga puluh bulan), atau أَرْبَعِينَ سَنَةً (empat puluh tahun).

Oleh kerana *iʻrāb maʻdūd* juga dikesan sebagai topik yang menimbulkan kekeliruan berdasarkan soal selidik yang dijalankan maka satu set khusus dicadangkan untuk menangani permasalahan ini. Penjelasan mengenai hukum *iʻrāb maʻdūd* boleh diringkaskan seperti dalam Rajah 8:



Rajah 8. Iʻrāb maʻdūd dalam tatabahasa Arab

Kesimpulannya terdapat tiga hukum *iʻrāb* bagi *maʻdūd* iaitu *naʻat*, *muḍāf ilayhi* dan *tamyīz* yang boleh diringkaskan seperti berikut:
- *iʻrāb ʻadad* 1 dan 2 ialah *naʻat.*
- *iʻrāb maʻdūd* bagi *ʻadad* 3 hingga 10 ialah *muḍāf ilayh* dan dalam pola jamak.
- *iʻrāb maʻdūd* bagi *ʻadad* gandaan seratus juga *muḍāf ilayh* dan dalam pola *mufrad*.
- *iʻrāb maʻdūd* bagi *ʻadad* 11hingga 99 ialah *tamyīz mufrad*.

Hukum *iʻrāb* ini terpakai kepada semua nombor kerana penentuan gender dan *iʻrāb maʻdūd* akan ditentukan oleh dua digit terakhir sahaja. Contohnya angka 1999 buah buku. Dua digit terakhirnya ialah 99. Jadi, *ʻadad* tersebut termasuk dalam kelompok *ʻadad* berlawanan dan *maʻdūd*nya adalah *tamyīz mufrad*. Justeru nombor ini diterjemahkan kepada bahasa Arab sebagai ألفٌ وتِسْعُمِئَةٍ وَتِسْعَةٌ وَتِسْعُوْنَ كِتَابًا

Setiap set kelompok yang dinyatakan di atas akan disertai dengan ujian formatif di akhir setiap set. Ujian formatif dibahagikan kepada tiga jenis iaitu latihan padanan *ʻadad*, latihan padanan *maʻdūd*, dan latihan terjemahkan ayat ke bahasa Arab. Manakala bagi set lima yang berkaitan dengan *ʻirāb maʻdūd* latihan berkaitan *iʻrab maʻdūd* dalam al-Quran dan dalam penggunaan harian diberi penekanan.

Sesuatu yang jelas ialah, pembahagian yang dicadangkan dalam fasa ini adalah berbeza sama sekali dengan kaedah pembahagian *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* Arab secara tradisi. Hal ini kerana kebiasaannya buku-buku tatabahasa Arab akan membahagikan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* kepada *ʻadad mufrad*, *ʻadad murakkab*, *ʻadad maʻṭūf*, *ʻadad ʻushur*, dan *ʻadad tartībiy* selain perbahasan mengenai *iʻrāb maʻdūd*. *ʻAdad-ʻadad* ini pula dibahagikan pula kepada beberapa kategori seperti *ʻadad mufrad* satu (واحد) dan dua (اثنان), *ʻadad mufrad* tiga (ثلاثة) hingga sembilan (تسعة) dan *ʻadad mufrad* seratus (مائة) serta gandaannya. Justeru, untuk menangani miskonsepsi, pendekatan membahagikan jenis *‘adad* dengan pendekatan baharu diperkenalkan dalam modul ini.

4. Fasa Pelaksanaan (Implementation)

Tujuan fasa pelaksanaan ialah untuk menyediakan persekitaran pembelajaran dan melibatkan pelajar dalam aktiviti pembelajaran. Prosedur biasa yang berkaitan dengan fasa pelaksanaan adalah seperti berikut:

i. sediakan guru
ii. sediakan pelajar (Branch, 2009).

Kebiasaannya, jika perancangan baik dalam fasa analisis, reka bentuk, dan pembangunan, peringkat pelaksanaan modul akan berjalan lancar dan dapat memotivasikan pelajar. Sebaliknya, pelaksanaan modul tidak berjaya apabila pelajar tidak memahami, tidak bersemangat dan tidak terlibat dalam proses pembelajaran. Hal ini berlaku apabila bahan yang disediakan terlalu mencabar atau terlalu mudah untuk pelajar sehingga membosankan mereka.

Untuk mencapai hasrat ini, pengkaji menjalankan kajian rintis iaitu pelaksanaan awal *Modul Pembelajaran ‘Adad dan Maʻdūd Berpandukan Ayat al-Quran* di Universiti Sultan Azlan Shah Kuala Kangsar. Kajian ini melibatkan seorang pendidik, dan 30 orang pelajar Diploma Tahfiz di universiti berkenaan. Institusi dan calon responden ini dipilih kerana mereka merupakan pelajar jurusan tahfiz yang berkecimpung dalam bidang pengajian al-Quran, manakala model yang dibina pula berteraskan ayat daripada kitab suci al-Quran. Tempoh pelaksanaan antara pre-test dan post-test ditetapkan sebulan iaitu pada Mac 2019. Justeru terdapat kesinambungan antara modul yang dibina dengan responden yang dipilih pada peringkat ini.

Tujuan kajian rintis ini dijalankan ialah untuk mengenal pasti kelebihan dan kekurangan *Modul Pembelajaran ‘Adad dan Maʻdūd Berpandukan Ayat al-Quran* dalam menangani permasalahan miskonsepsi berkaitan tajuk kajian. Berdasarkan dapatan kajian ini, pengkaji akan membuat penambahbaikan bagi setiap kelemahan yang ada semasa melaksanakan modul kepada golongan sasaran agar pembelajaran akan menjadi lebih baik dan sempurna serta permasalahan miskonsepsi berjaya ditangani. Sebanyak empat kategori soalan dikemukakan iaitu soalan berkaitan dengan menentukan padanan *‘adad*, menentukan padanan *maʻdūd*, *iʻrab ‘adad* dan *maʻdūd* serta terjemahan *‘adad* dan *maʻdūd* daripada bahasa Melayu kepada bahasa Arab.

Hasil pra-ujian (*pre-test*) menunjukkan bahawa tahap penguasaan responden kajian masih di peringkat sederhana. Pencapaian yang paling rendah ialah di bahagian menentukan i’rab *‘adad* dan *ma’dūd* yang mana hanya 7% responden sahaja yang memberikan jawapan yang tepat. Dalam bahagian menentukan padanan *‘adad*, hanya 42% responden kajian yang memberikan jawapan yang tepat. Seterusnya bahagian terjemahan padanan *‘adad* dan *ma’dūd* daripada bahasa Melayu kepada bahasa Arab juga menunjukkan pencapaian yang kurang memberangsangkan yang mana hanya 45% responden yang menjawabnya dengan betul. Manakala 64% responden kajian menjawab dengan tepat bahagian menentukan padanan *maʻdūd*. Dapatan ini memberi isyarat bahawa pencapaian responden masih di tahap sederhana dengan pencapaian purata di kebanyakkan bahagian masih di bawah 50%.

5. Fasa Penilaian (Evaluation)

Tujuan fasa penilaian adalah untuk menilai kualiti pengajaran produk dan proses, sebelum dan selepas pelaksanaan. Prosedur biasa yang berkaitan dengan fasa penilaian adalah seperti berikut:

1) menentukan kriteria penilaian
2) memilih alat penilaian
3) melaksanakan penilaian (Branch, 2009).

Fasa penilaian adalah satu tahap di mana bahan yang telah disediakan diproses untuk mengukur dan mendapatkan maklum balas pengguna modul terhadap keseluruhan rangka kursus. Fasa ini meliputi keempat-empat tahap dalam model ADDIE iaitu analisis, rekabentuk, pembangunan dan pelaksanaan. Dalam model ADDIE, keempat-empat tahap ini telah melalui fasa penilaian. Hal ini kerana setiap set modul yang dibangunkan akan dibuat penilaian formatif bagi mendapatkan respons mengenai keberkesanan reka bentuk dan kebolehgunaan modul tersebut.

Istilah penilaian merujuk kepada kedua-dua bentuk penilaian formatif dan sumatif tentang produk pembelajaran dan sistem yang dibentuk dan dilaksanakan. Penilaian sumatif terhadap keberkesanan pengajaran, bahan bantu serta pencapaian objektif khas atau hasil pembelajaran dilaksanakan setelah keempat-empat fasa awal dilaksanakan. Maklumbalas yang diperolehi digunakan untuk menambahbaik perancangan pengajaran untuk topik yang sama atau berlainan atau untuk pengajaran mata pelajaran lain yang sepadan. Aktiviti dalam fasa penilaian ini meliputi:

1) Penilaian Formatif – penilaian ini dijalankan secara berterusan sepanjang tempoh pendedahan modul untuk setiap set yang disediakan bagi menilai keberkesanan setiap tajuk dalam modul tersebut. Penilaian formatif ini merangkumi tiga bentuk soalan iaitu menentukan padanan *ʻadad*, menentukan padanan *maʻdūd*, dan terjemahan nombor dari bahasa Melayu kepada bahasa Arab. Melalui hasil dapatan penilaian ini penambahbaikan akan dilakukan untuk merancang pengajaran dan pembelajaran yang lebih baik.
2) Penilaian Sumatif – penilaian ini dijalankan pada hujung kursus yang merangkumi keseluruhan tajuk bagi memastikan modul tersebut efisyen dan berkesan. Penilaian ini juga bertujuan mengetahui sejauh mana pelajar dapat menguasai modul yang dibina dan direka bentuk itu dan sejauh mana pelaksanaan modul berjaya menangani miskonsepsi dalam pembelajaran tajuk *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* bahasa Arab.
3) Maklum balas pelajar dan pengajar – langkah ini dijalankan melalui soal selidik dan temubual secara langsung atau tidak langsung yang disediakan semasa fasa reka bentuk, pembangunan dan penilaian modul dilakukan.

Untuk tujuan menyukat sejauh mana isu berjaya ditangani, ujian pre-test dan post-test dijalankan. Hasil pencapaian daripada kedua-dua ujian dianalisis dan margin perbezaan pencapaian sebelum dan selepas penilaian akan menjadi data yang menunjukkan peratus keberkesanan modul yang diterapkan.

Setelah melalui proses mendedahkan responden kepada modul yang dibina selama sebulan post-test telah dijalankan. Hasil dapatan pasca-ujian *(post-test)* dibandingkan dengan pre-test serta perbandingan pencapaian antara keduanya dipaparkan seperti dalam Jadual 1.

Jadual 1
Perbandingan pencapaian antara pre-test dengan post-test

Elemen	Pencapaian Pre-test	Pencapaian Post-test	Perbandingan
Menentukan padanan *ʻadad*	42%	54%	12%
Menentukan padanan *maʻdūd*	64%	82%	18%
Iʻrab ʻadad dan *maʻdūd*	7%	74%	67%
Terjemahan padanan *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* dari bahasa Arab ke bahasa Melayu	45%	56%	11%

Berdasarkan jadual didapati terdapat perbezaan pencapaian responden dalam kedua ujian berkenaan. Semua bahagian yang diuji menunjukkan peningkatan. Bahagian iʻrab menunjukkan perubahan ketara dengan peningkatan sebanyak 67%. Hal ini kerana penggunaan model berkonsepkan carta memudahkan responden mengingati maklumat asas yang diperlukan untuk menguasai bahagian berkenaan. Hasil temubual dengan responden juga mendapati sebanyak 21 orang responden mengingati antara 6 hingga 7 ayat yang dijadikan sebagai pola dalam modul, manakala 38.7% responden mampu memberikan padanan ayat yang sesuai dengan ʻadad dan maʻdūd yang dikemukakan. Hal ini menunjukkan peningkatan yang positif terhadap penguasaan keseluruhan responden kajian.

Terdapat maklumbalas daripada responden yang mencadangkan supaya dikaitkan juga modul dengan istilah asal topik ini seperti *ʻadad ʻuqūd*, *ʻadad maʻṭūf* dan *ʻadad murakkab*. Hal ini kerana sumber rujukan lain selain modul ini menggunakan istilah berkenaan dalam membahaskan topik ini.

Dapatan daripada penilaian sumatif dan maklum balas daripada peserta kajian digunakan untuk membuat penambahbaikan terhadap modul yang dibina. Justeru, model ADDIE adalah satu bentu rangka pengajaran yang baik, kerana pendekatan modul ini dapat mengenalpasti permasalahan dan melakukan penambahbaikan terhadap modul yang dibina setelah melalui setiap fasa pembangunan modul.

Kesimpulan

Pembangunan modul pembelajaran *ʻadad* dan *maʻdūd* berpandukan ayat al-Quran adalah lengkap kerana telah melalui kelima-lima peringkat yang disarankan oleh model ADDIE. Model ADDIE pula didapati sangat efisien untuk diterapkan dalam pembinaan modul pengajaran, terutamanya berkaitan dengan topik yang memerlukan rawatan dan perhatian yang lebih. Hal ini kerana input pada setiap fasa akan menjadi output pula kepada fasa seterusnya. Keadaan ini menyebabkan analisis pada setiap fasa bersifat menyeluruh dan lengkap.

Satu penemuan baharu dalam kajian ini ialah cara pembahagian *'adad* yang dimurnikan. Berpunca daripada fasa analisis, ditemukan bahawa kekeliruan kepada jenis *'adad* yang banyak dengan kaedah yang pelbagai merupakan antara faktor miskonsepsi. Justeru, kajian ini mengetengahkan pembahagian baharu berdasarkan kepada persamaan antara setiap kelompok *'adad*. Melalui pendekatan ini diharapkan permasalahan ini akan ditangani.

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PRINSIP DAN STRATEGI KESANTUNAN PENULISAN DALAM ARTIKEL RUANGAN *AGENDA BAHASA*

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Manuscript received 1 Mar 2019
Manuscript accepted 9 June 2019
https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1405.2019

ABSTRAK

Kesantunan penulisan merujuk kepada kehalusan ketika menggunakan bahasa yang melibatkan penggunaan dan pemilihan kata, frasa, ayat dan ungkapan dalam penulisan. Aspek yang perlu diberi perhatian dalam kesantunan penulisan ialah penggunaan kata panggilan yang betul, pengaplikasian kata sapaan yang betul, gaya bahasa yang indah serta pemilihan kata dan ayat yang sesuai dengan konteks. Sementara topik dan isinya pula tidak menyentuh isu sensitif. Sehubungan itu, kajian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis strategi kesantunan penulisan dalam artikel Ruangan Agenda Bahasa dalam majalah Dewan Bahasa terbitan Julai 2018. Kajian ini mengaplikasikan tiga model kesantunan, iaitu Leech (1983), Grice, 1975) dan Asmah Omar (2000) yang membentuk pola kombinasi maksim + strategi. Kajian ini merupakan kajian kualitatif dengan memberikan fokus kepada analisis teks. Dapatan menunjukkan AR1 memperlihatkan pematuhan terhadap maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Relevan + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka manakala AR2 pula mematuhi maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Cara + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka. Dapatan ini merefleksikan bahawa kedua-dua penulis dalam ruangan agenda bahasa mematuhi peraturan penulisan dengan tidak mengabaikan aspek kesantunan berbahasa. Kesimpulannya, pematuhan penulis artikel terhadap aspek kesantunan penulisan memanifestasikan penulis dalam bidang akademik tidak meminggirkan inisiatif untuk melestarikan budaya santun.

Kata kunci: strategi kesantunan, isu sensitif, pola kombinasi maksim, kepatuhan, penjagaan air muka

PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIES OF WRITING POLITENESS IN ARTICLES OF THE AGENDA BAHASA COLUMN

ABSTRACT

Writing politeness refers to the refinement when using a language that involves the use and selection of words, phrases, sentences and expressions in writing. The aspect that needs to be addressed in writing politeness is the use of correct vocation, application of correct salutation, aesthetic *language style, as well as selection of words and sentences that is appropriate with context. The topic and contents, however, are not touching on any sensitive issues. In this regard, the study aims to analyse the writing politeness strategy in the article of Agenda Language column from Dewan Bahasa magazine, July 2018 issue. This study applied three models of politeness, namely, Leech (1983), Grice (1975) and Asmah Omar (2000) that form the maxim combination pattern + strategy. . This study is a qualitative study focusing on textual analysis. The findings show that AR1 demonstrates compliance with Maxim of Wisdom + Support + Quality + Relevance + Adherence to Title + Safeguard of personal honour while AR2 complies with Maxim of Wisdom + Support + Quality + Method + Adherence to Title + Safeguard of personal honour. This finding reflects that both writers in the language agenda column comply with the written rules by not neglecting aspects of language politeness. In conclusion, this shows that writers in the academic field do not neglect the initiative to preserve a culture of politeness.*

Keywords: *politeness strategy, sensitive issues, maxim combination pattern, compliance, safeguard of personal honour*

Pengenalan

Bahasa merupakan wadah, wahana atau alat komunikasi yang paling berkesan dalam sesebuah komuniti sehingga bahasa diibarat melambangkan bangsa. Sesebuah bangsa dikenali menerusi gaya dan lenggok bahasanya kerana bahasa ialah pakaian fizikal yang dapat diperhati, diteliti dan dihakimi dengan mata kasar oleh lingkungan di sekelilingnya. Bahasa yang diucap atau diujarkan oleh seseorang bukan sahaja dapat mencermin dan mencitrakan kehemahannya malahan dapat menyingkap dasar keperibadian dan kehalusan budi bicaranya. Hashim Ahmad (2016, hlm. 12) dalam makalah yang bertajuk “Bahasa Menggambarkan Peribadi” menegaskan bahawa bahasa yang diucapkan oleh seseorang itu menggambarkan latar akhlak masyarakat asalnya kerana bahasa merupakan warisan bangsa. Pandangan ini merupakan suatu representasi bahawa sebelum mengujar atau menyatakan sesuatu, unsur-unsur bahasa sewajarnya dipilih agar tepat, sesuai dan betul penggunaannya mengikut konteks supaya tidak mencalar dan menggores perasaan pihak lain. Ujaran atau pertuturan yang dizahirkan oleh seseorang dapat mencerminkan peribadi mahupun adabnya dalam berbahasa, sekali gus mewakili komunitinya. Oleh itu, perilaku dan adab dalam berkomunikasi sewajarnya dipelihara dan tidak boleh dipandang remeh.

Pendeta Zainal Abdidin Ahmad (1950) pernah berkongsi etiket dan perlakuan yang harus dipraktis dalam kehidupan seharian dengan turut memberikan penekanan terhadap tatacara berbahasa. Beliau menegaskan bahawa kelantangan suara perlu dikawal semasa berkomunikasi kerana kita tidak perlu menjerit untuk menyampaikan perkara yang hendak dibicarakan kepada orang lain. Sifat merendah diri pula sewajarnya menjadi perhiasan peribadi agar sentiasa disenangi orang yang berada di sekeliling kita. Sikap ini juga merupakan kunci pembawaan diri yang mustajab untuk berlaku sopan walau di ceruk mana seseorang itu berada kerana sikap menunjuk-nunjuk akan mengakibatkan pihak di sekeliling kita berasa meluat malahan benci. Oleh itu, sikap berhati-hati dengan mengambil kira faktor siapa lawan bicara, konteks dan tujuan dalam berkomunikasi perlu diberi keutamaan agar tiada pihak yang tersinggung mahupun tercalar maruahnya.

Robert Sibarani (2004, hlm. 216) berpendapat bahawa kesopanan berbahasa tercermin dalam tatacara berkomunikasi. Menurut beliau lagi, dalam berkomunikasi kita harus menghormati dan menyesuaikan norma-norma budaya dalam masyarakat. Jika berlaku sebaliknya, maka seseorang boleh dianggap sombong, tidak beradab malahan tidak berbudaya. Pandangan ini memperjelas bahawa tatacara berkomunikasi amat signifikan dan dititikberatkan dalam budaya masyarakat kerana dapat mencerminkan keperibadian selain mampu menggendalakan kelancaran komunikasi. Apabila komunikasi tergendala, perkara ini bukan sahaja menjejaskan pemahaman terhadap maklumat yang hendak disampaikan malahan mempengaruhi keberkesanan dalam komunikasi. Justeru, pematuhan terhadap tatacara berkomunikasi secara langsung akan mencitrakan kesopanan berbahasa sekali gus melancar dan mengharmoniskan komunikasi.

Tenas Effendy (2011, hlm. 1) menyatakan bahawa kesopanan menjadi asas kejatidirian Melayu yang terpuji sebagaimana dalam ungkapan adat Melayu, iaitu “berbuah kayu rendang daunnya, bertuah Melayu terbilang santunnya, elok kayu kerana daunnya, elok Melayu kerana santunnya”. Pandangan Tenas Effendy ini sejalur dengan gagasan Leech (1983) dalam Prinsip Kesopanan, iaitu memberikan penekanan terhadap tatacara, adab dan sopan dalam berkomunikasi agar kesopanan terpelihara sekali gus tidak menyinggung perasaan mana-mana pihak. Tenas Effendy (2011, hlm. 5) dalam karyanya *Kesantunan dan Semangat Melayu* memerihalkan kesopanan atau kesantunan sebagai perilaku yang “tahu diri” atau “sedar diri”, yakni perilaku yang mencerminkan kearifan dan kebijaksanaan dalam menilai dan mengukur kemampuan diri agar dapat menempatkan dirinya secara baik dan benar dalam kehidupan berumahtangga, bermasyarakat, berbangsa dan bernegara. Pandangan ini memanifestasikan bahawa aspek kesantunan amat signifikan dalam semua bentuk komunikasi sama ada secara lisan, tulisan, *verbal* dan *nonverbal*. Kesantunan dalam penulisan diberi penegasan oleh Sara Beden dan Indirawati Zahid (2014, hlm. 152) dengan menyatakan bahawa aspek kesopanan berbahasa bukan sahaja signifikan dalam penggunaan bahasa yang bersifat lisan semata-mata malahan memainkan peranan yang penting dalam penggunaan bahasa yang bersifat tulisan agar menjadi wadah yang berkesan untuk mentarbiah generasi muda. Tambahan pula, penulisan yang bermutu tidak akan meminggirkan aspek kesopanan berbahasa sebagai cerminan keintelektualan pengarangnya.

Kesantunan penulisan bermaksud kesopanan dan kehalusan ketika menggunakan bahasa yang melibatkan penggunaan dan pemilihan kata, frasa atau ungkapan dan ayat dalam penulisan (Sara Beden, 2018, hlm. 55). Aspek kesantunan yang perlu diberi perhatian dalam kesantnan penulisan ialah penggunaan kata panggilan yang betul, pengaplikasian kata sapaan yang betul, gaya bahasa yang tepat serta pemilihan kata dan ayat yang sesuai dengan konteks dan isi yang tidak menyentuh isu sensitif. Interaksi atau komunikasi bertulis merupakan suatu proses untuk menyampai dan menerima idea-idea serta maklumat daripada satu pihak kepada pihak yang lain secara bertulis. Penulisan ditakrifkan sebagai perihal atau kegiatan menulis (mengarang) dan lain-lain (Kamus Dewan Edisi Ketiga*,* 2000). Menurut Abdullah Hassan (2006, hlm. 79), gaya komunikasi yang utama dalam pengurusan ialah perkataan bertulis. Syarat utama dalam menulis ialah semua tulisan hendaklah ringkas, mudah dan mempunyai perkataan, ayat serta idea yang baik.

Dalam konteks kesantunan penulisan, beberapa faktor turut mempengaruhinya. Antaranya ialah tahap pendidikan, iaitu orang yang berpendidikan tinggi lazimnya lebih mengamalkan kesantunan berbahasa kerana mereka terdedah dengan ilmu pengetahuan tentang kesantunan berbahasa melalui pembacaan yang luas dan peka dengan pemilihan dan penggunaan bahasa berdasarkan konteks yang relevan. Aspek kesantunan juga ditandai dengan penggunaan bahasa yang gramatis, tepat dan betul dalam setiap hasil penulisan. Selain itu, pemilihan dan penggunaan frasa yang menarik dan sesuai dapat membantu penulis untuk menghasilkan sebuah penulisan yang menarik dan berkualiti. Setiap penulisan perlu mematuhi format dan peraturan penulisan. Permulaan, isi dan pengakhiran penulisan yang sempurna harus diberi penekanan dan dititikberatkan dalam kesantunan penulisan. Ketiga-tiga bahagian ini perlu ditulis dengan menggunakan bahasa yang sopan, lemah lembut, berbudi bahasa yang tinggi di samping mematuhi peraturan linguistik, sosiolinguistik dan pragmatik. Peraturan linguistik menitikberatkan ketepatan bentuk dan binaan sesuatu bahasa termasuk sebutan, intonasi dan tatabahasa manakala peraturan sosiolinguistik pula memberikan fokus terhadap aspek ketertiban dalam hubungan sosial antara penulis dan pembaca dalam bidang penulisan atau antara pembicara dan lawan bicara dalam komunikasi tatap muka. Yule (1996, hlm. 4) mengutarakan empat medan yang boleh dikaitkan dengan konsep pragmatik, iaitu kajian makna, kajian makna menurut konteks, bidang yang melebihi kajian makna dan kajian tentang bentuk ekspresi. Justeru, peraturan pragmatik menitikberatkan penggunaan bahasa yang sopan dan berkesan, pengguna serta penggunaannya dan konteks atau situasi agar hasrat komunikasi tercapai. Ketiga-tiga peraturan ini dikombinasi dalam menghasilkan wacana yang bukan sahaja utuh, runtut dan bertaut malah memiliki kesatuan selain terpelihara kesantunannya.

Selain itu, penggunaan gaya bahasa yang indah seperti bahasa kiasan menerusi ungkapan kata-kata yang melibatkan pengolahan idea juga perlu diberi perhatian. Bahasa kiasan menjadi rencah dan resepi yang melengkap, menguat, mengukuh, melembutkan ungkapan dan menjadikan maksud lebih jelas selain bertindak sebagai perhiasan yang "mencantikkan" bahasa dalam sesebuah wacana yang mantap. Berdasarkan sorotan, didapati kesantunan penulisan tidak hanya dibatasi oleh tatabahasa semata-mata tetapi turut mementingkan penggunaan kata ganti nama yang sesuai bertitik tolak atas faktor perkara ini berupaya menggambarkan penulisnya seorang yang berperibadi mulia dan bersopan santun. Penulis yang berhemah tinggi akan berusaha menyantuni pembaca selain memiliki tahap pendidikan yang tinggi.

Sehubungan itu, kajian ini diharap dapat menambah khazanah dalam bidang pragmatik khususnya dalam aspek kesopanan berbahasa dalam bidang penulisan dengan menggunakan artikel yang diterbitkan oleh Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka. Kepentingan bidang pragmatik ini dapat dikesan melalui pandangan Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah (2009, hlm. 30) yang memberi penegasan bahawa aspek kecekapan pragmatik perlu diterapkan kerana kecekapan pragmatik dapat menyerlahkan penggunaan bahasa sebagai aksi sosial, mewakili hajat seseorang dalam komunikasi.

Makalah ini memperincikan strategi kesantunan yang diaplikasi pengarang dalam artikel Ruangan Agenda Bahasa dalam majalah *Dewan Bahasa* terbitan Julai 2018. Data korpus dianalisis dengan menggunakan kombinasi tiga model pendekatan, iaitu Prinsip Kesopanan Leech (1983), Prinsip Kerjasama Grice (1975) dan Strategi Kesantunan Asmah Omar (1966, 2000). Leech (1983) mengetengahkan enam maksim dan diklasifikasikan kepada empat skala, iaitu skala Kos-Manfaat, skala Pujian-Cacian, skala Persetujuan dan skala Simpati. Sementara model Grice (1975) pula mengutarakan empat maksim, iaitu Maksim Kuantiti, Kualiti, Relevan dan Cara. Model Asmah (2000) pula mengemukakan strategi kesantunan dalam berbahasa yang perlu dipatuhi bagi memelihara kesantunan. Justeru, kajian ini dapat memperlihatkan aspek kesopanan berbahasa yang signifikan pada aras pemikiran yang lebih tinggi secara terperinci sebagaimana yang diaplikasikan oleh penulis artikel dalam ruangan agenda bahasa sekali gus berupaya memberikan panduan kepada para penulis dalam bidang penulisan ilmiah.

Objektif Kajian

Kajian ini bertujuan menganalisis aspek kesantunan berbahasa dalam penulisan artikel ruangan agenda bahasa dengan mengaplikasikan Prinsip Kesopanan Leech (1983), Prinsip Kerjasama Grice (1975) dan Strategi Kesantunan Asmah Omar (2000).

Pendekatan Kajian dan Metodologi

Kajian ini mengaplikasikan kaedah kepustakaan dan kaedah analisis teks. Kaedah kepustakaan melibatkan pembacaan dan pengumpulan bahan-bahan ilmiah sebagai sumber rujukan. Data korpus yang digunakan dalam kajian ini merupakan dua buah artikel daripada ruangan agenda bahasa yang bertajuk "Perjuangan Bahasa Melayu di Tangan Anak Muda" hasil tulisan Mohamad Syafiq Rohaizad Buyong (2018, hlm. 10-14) dan "Perjuangan yang masih berliku" tulisan Amirah Syazwani Baderol Sham (2018, hlm. 6-9) dalam Majalah *Dewan Bahasa* terbitan Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka keluaran bulan Julai 2018. "Perjuangan Bahasa Melayu di Tangan Anak Muda" dikodkan sebagai AR1 yang merujuk kepada artikel pertama. Sementara artikel yang bertajuk "Perjuangan yang masih berliku" dikodkan sebagai AR2, iaitu merujuk kepada artikel yang kedua sebagaimana dalam jadual 1 berikut.

Jadual 1
Artikel ruangan Agenda Bahasa

Artikel	Halaman	Kod
Perjuangan Bahasa Melayu di Tangan Anak Muda	10-13	AR1
Perjuangan yang masih berliku	6-9	AR2

Artikel-artikel ini dimuatkan dalam Ruangan Agenda Bahasa dalam "Majalah Dewan Bahasa" yang merupakan ruangan tetap dan setiap keluaran. Bahan ini dipilih sebagai data korpus kerana artikel-artikel dalam ruangan ini menyajikan agenda-agenda dan isu-isu bahasa yang "segar" dan relevan sebagai wadah bacaan kepada semua khalayak pembaca tanpa mengira peringkat umur dan status. Lanjutan itu, kajian kesantunan berdasarkan isu yang menjadi medan perbincangan dalam korpus ini berupaya membuktikan bahawa artikel-artikel ini bersesuaian dan relevan sebagai bahan bacaan arus perdana atas faktor memenuhi tuntutan ciri-ciri penulisan ilmiah sekali gus menjadi panduan kepada penulis-penulis lain.

Seterusnya, data-data dikod berdasarkan bilangan artikel, halaman dan perenggan. Misalnya, AR1/H10/P3, iaitu AR1 merujuk kepada artikel 1, H10 merujuk kepada halaman sepuluh dan P3 pula merujuk kepada perenggan tiga dan seterusnya bagi AR2 yang merujuk kepada artikel kedua. Pengekodan dilakukan adalah untuk memudahkan proses pengenalpastian data analisis.

Kaedah analisis teks dilakukan dengan mengenal pasti unsur-unsur bahasa yang digunakan oleh penulis dalam kedua-dua artikel yang berpadanan dengan maksim-maksim Prinsip Kesopanan Leech (1983), Prinsip Kerjasama Grice (1975) dan strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar (1996, 2000). Padanan data-data dengan maksim-maksim dan strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar dilakukan dengan memberikan fokus terhadap penggunaan kata, ungkapan atau frasa, ayat dan tajuk yang berpadanan dengan model-model kesantunan tersebut. Prinsip Kesopanan Leech memberi penekanan kepada perilaku dan persoalan beradab yang menghubungkan dua pihak dalam sesuatu proses komunikasi, yakni penutur dan pendengar. Leech (1993, hlm. 158) telah mengutarakan enam maksim, iaitu Kebijaksanaan, Kedermawanan, Sokongan, Kerendahan Hati, Persetujuan dan Simpati menerusi PS bagi menggambarkan kesopanan sebagaimana dalam paparan Jadual 2:

Jadual 2
Model Prinsip Kesantunan Leech (1983)

Maksim	Spesifikasi
Kebijaksanaan (*Tact*)	Maksim yang meminimumkan kos bagi orang lain dan memaksimumkan manfaat kepada orang lain.
Kedermawanan (*Generosity)*	Maksim yang meminimumkan manfaat bagi diri sendiri dan memaksimumkan kos bagi diri sendiri atau dengan kata lain menguntungkan orang lain.
Sokongan (*Approbation)*	Maksim yang meminimumkan cacian terhadap orang lain dan memaksimumkan pujian terhadap orang lain.
Kerendahan Hati (*Modesity*)	Maksim yang meminimumkan pujian terhadap diri sendiri dan memaksimumkan cacian terhadap diri sendiri.
Persetujuan (*Agreement*)	Maksim yang meminimumkan perbalahan antara diri sendiri dengan orang lain dan memaksimumkan persetujuan antara diri sendiri dengan orang lain bagi mencapai kesepakatan.
Simpati (*Sympathy*)	Maksim yang meminimumkan antipati antara diri sendiri dengan orang lain dan memaksimumkan simpati antara diri sendiri dengan orang lain.

Sementara Grice (1975) telah mengemukakan Prinsip Kerjasama untuk memperlihatkan kerjasama. Secara umumnya Prinsip Kerjasama Grice ialah prinsip atau tatacara yang perlu dipatuhi oleh penutur dan pendengar dalam perbualan mereka untuk menghasilkan komunikasi yang berkesan dengan kewujudan kerjasama kedua-dua belah pihak yang terlibat dalam perbualan. Grice (1975, hlm. 47) mengetengahkan empat maksim, iaitu Kuantiti, Kualiti, Relevan dan Cara sebagaimana paparan jadual 3 berikut:

Jadual 3
Prinsip Kerjasam Grice (1975)

Maksim	**Spesifikasi**
Kuantiti	Bermaksud memberi maklumat yang sempurna, iaitu merujuk kepada pemberian maklumat yang informatif dan mencukupi dan tidak memberikan maklumat yang berlebihan daripada yang diperlukan dalam komunikasi.
Kualiti	Bermaksud memberikan maklumat yang betul, iaitu tidak menyebut sesuatu yang anda tidak tahu atau benar dan tidak menyebut sesuatu yang anda tidak tahu dalil atau kesahihan buktinya.
Relevan	Bermaksud maklumat yang mempunyai pertalian atau ciri-ciri yang rapat, iaitu maklumat yang disampaikan haruslah berkaitan sama ada tersurat atau tersirat.
Cara	Bermaksud menyatakan sesuatu dengan cara yang betul dan mudah difahami bagi mengelakkan maklumat yang memperlihatkan ketaksaan, kekaburan dan berbelit-belit.

Seterusnya, Asmah Omar (1996, 2000) telah mengemukakan model kesopanan dengan membahagikannya kepada Kesopanan Asas dan Kesopanan Berkendala. Asmah Omar memerihalkan Kesopanan Asas merujuk pada kesopanan sedia ada yang menjadi pedoman kepada ahli masyarakat untuk berhubung antara satu sama lain dengan cara menunjukkan sikap berbaik-baik antara mereka manakala Kesopanan Berkendala merupakan usaha yang dilakukan dalam sesuatu interaksi dengan memberi perhatian pada kendala-kendala tertentu. Kesopanan Berkendala menekankan perhatian terhadap peranan sosial pemeran, latar, judul percakapan, sebab dan cara percakapan serta penyesuaian peraturan- pertuturan dengan keadaan ini secara sedar (Asmah Omar, 1996, hlm. 91). Bagi Asmah Omar, hal ini tidak bermakna Kesopanan Asas tidak memberi pertimbangan terhadap kendala-kendala tersebut. Dalam hal ini, peraturan dalam pertuturan tersebut diterapkan secara spontan tanpa perlu memikirkan kendala-kendala itu dengan lama. Oleh itu, Asmah Omar (2000, hlm. 91) merumuskan bahawa Kesopanan Berkendala letaknya di atas dan melebihi Kesopanan Asas.

Asmah Omar turut memasukkan strategi komunikasi dalam model beliau tetapi strategi komunikasi ini berbeza dengan strategi-strategi dalam model Brown dan Levinson (1987) kerana strategi komunikasi kedua-dua sarjana Barat tersebut bermotif untuk mencapai keinginan-keinginan tertentu. Bagi Asmah Omar (1996, hlm. 92) kesopanan bukanlah strategi semata-mata tetapi kesopanan merupakan ciri budaya yang menuntut ahli masyarakat bersopan santun dan menghormati antara satu sama lain. Asmah juga berpandangan bahawa Kesopanan Asas ada perkaitannya dengan didikan awal yang diterima oleh seseorang manakala kesopanan sebagai strategi merupakan tambahan kepada Kesopanan Asas. Oleh itu, Asmah Omar (1996) menyimpulkan bahawa Kesopanan Berkendala sebagai Kesopanan Asas yang disertai dengan strategi komunikasi (KA+S) seperti dalam Rajah 1 berikut:

: Kesopanan Berkendala :

: Kesopanan Asas + Strategi :

Rajah 1. Model Kesantunan Asmah Omar (1996) (Kesopanan Asas + Strategi (KA+S))

Kesopanan Asas + Strategi (KA+S) merupakan kaedah yang digunakan oleh pemeran untuk mencapai tujuan dalam komunikasi dan strategi komunikasi yang menandai kesopanan melibatkan enam strategi berikut. Pertama, ialah pengakuan adanya perkaitan peranan antara pemeran. Asmah Omar (1996) menjelaskan perkaitan peranan menghendaki pemeran bukan setakat menjalankan peranan dan mematuhi peraturan giliran berkomunikasi tetapi juga mengakui peranan yang dijalankan oleh pemeran lain. Kedua, kesedaran akan adanya perbezaan taraf sosial antara pemeran yang merujuk kepada perbezaan taraf sosial pula akan lebih disedari akibat wujudnya pertemuan bersemuka. Ketiga, kesedaran akan adanya kuasa pada peranan dan taraf tertentu, iaitu Asmah Omar (1996, hlm. 100) menjelaskan bahawa kewujudan kuasa ialah akibat pengakuan terhadap perkaitan peranan dan perbezaan taraf sosial yang terdapat pada peranan dan taraf tertentu. Strategi keempat pula merujuk kepada menjaga air muka. Asmah Omar (1996) turut menjelaskan bahawa air muka dalam budaya Melayu tidak sama dengan pengertian "muka" yang diutarakan oleh Brown dan Levinson (1987). Air muka mempunyai peranan bukan setakat masa berlangsungnya sesuatu komunikasi tetapi menjangkau ruang lingkup yang lebih daripada itu. Dalam berkomunikasi, seseorang itu harus berhati-hati supaya tidak ada air muka yang tercemar sama ada air muka diri sendiri atau orang lain. Kelima ialah kepatuhan pada tajuk atau bidang perbincangan atau perbahasan. Asmah Omar (1996, hlm. 102) memberikan penegasan bahawa kepatuhan kepada tajuk atau bidang perbincangan atau perbahasan merupakan salah satu ciri kesopanan dalam peristiwa bahasa. Penyimpangan daripada tajuk dan bidang menyebabkan ketergendalaan dari segi masa dan menimbulkan kekeliruan dalam perbincangan sesuatu peristiwa bahasa. Keenam, merujuk kepada kepatuhan pada peraturan mesyuarat. Peraturan dalam mesyuarat, forum, seminar dan sebagainya meliputi giliran dan jangka masa berucap. Walau bagaimanapun, strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar yang berkaitan sahaja akan diaplikasi dalam kajian ini bagi meneliti strategi kesantunan yang digunakan oleh penulis.

Ketiga-tiga model ini diaplikasi sebagai landasan analisis atas faktor gabungan ini berupaya memperincikan aspek kesantunan berbahasa dengan lebih holistik. Penggabungan ini juga berupaya memperlihatkan variasi kesantunan yang diaplikasikan oleh penulis dalam usaha menghaluskan komunikasi khususnya dalam penulisan. Sara Beden dan Indirawati Zahid (2015, hlm. 61) mendapati bahawa kombinasi model kesopanan Leech dan model kerjasama Grice berupaya memanifestasikan kesopanan berbahasa dengan jelas dan wujudnya pola-pola kombinasi maksim. Walau bagaimanapun, kedua-dua model tersebut didapati ada kekurangannya dalam menganalisis data korpus yang berkaitan dengan kepatuhan pada tajuk dan strategi penjagaan air muka sebagaimana yang diberi penekanan dalam model Asmah Omar (1996, 2000). Kekurangan ini menjadi titik tolak kepada penggabungan ketiga-tiga model tersebut sebagai kerangka analisis. Kombinasi ketiga-tiga model ini juga dilakukan setelah mengambil kira faktor keupayaan maksim-maksim dalam Prinsip Kesantunan Leech (1983) dan Prinsip Kerjasama Grice (1975) tidak sepenuhnya dapat dipadankan dengan korpus kajian dan memerlukan kombinasi model kesopanan Asmah (1996) dalam kasus-kasus tertentu.

Dapatan Analisis

Berdasarkan analisis, dapatan memperlihatkan pembentukan pola kombinasi maksim ditambah dengan strategi. Pola kombinasi maksim ditunjukkan menerusi pengaplikasian maksim-maksim PS Leech dan PK Grice manakala strategi diperlihatkan menerusi penggunaan strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar. Dapatan ini terdapat dalam Jadual 4 berikut.

Jadual 4
Dapatan kajian

Strategi	**Artikel**	**Pola kombinasi maksim + Strategi**
Prinsip Kesantunan Leech/ Prinsip Kerjasam Grice/ Strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar	AR1	Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Relevan + Strategi Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Strategi Penjagaan Air Muka
	AR2	Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Cara + Strategi Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Strategi Penjagaan Air Muka

Dapatan kajian menunjukkan kedua-dua artikel yang digunakan sebagai bahan kajian memperlihatkan pengaplikasian ketiga-tiga strategi kesantunan, iaitu Prinsip Kesantunan Leech, Prinsip Kerjasam Grice dan strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar yang membentuk pola kombinasi maksim + strategi. AR1 memperlihatkan pematuhan terhadap maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Relevan + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka manakala AR2 pula mematuhi maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Cara + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka. Dapatan ini menunjukkan bahawa kedua-dua penulis dalam ruangan agenda bahasa mematuhi peraturan penulisan dengan tidak mengabaikan aspek kesantunan. Kedua-dua artikel menunjukkan pengaplikasian maksim yang sama cuma perbezaannya kewujudan maksim Relevan dalam AR1 dan maksim Cara dalam AR2. Pengaplikasian strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar pula memperlihatkan persamaan, iaitu pengaplikasian strategi Kepatuhan pada Tajuk dan strategi Penjagaan Air Muka. Perkara ini menzahirkan bahawa kedua-dua penulis berusaha untuk menyantuni semua khalayak pembaca melalui penyampaian maklumat yang mematuhi topik perbincangan dan tindakan untuk menjaga air muka mana-mana pihak. Penggunaan aspek kesantunan dalam komunikasi bertulis menjadikan maklumat yang disampaikan lebih santun dan berhemah, memberikan manfaat kepada pembaca, mematuhi tatacara berbahasa, berkualiti, runtut, bertaut, jelas serta berkaitan selain mematuhi tajuk dan mementingkan penjagaan air muka. Sara Beden dan Indirawati Zahid (2016, hlm. 68) menegaskan bahawa pembudayaan dan penggunaan bahasa yang bercirikan kesopanan sudah tentu dapat melahirkan masyarakat yang berbudi bahasa dan tahu menggunakan bahasa di samping memiliki kepekaan untuk menyesuaikannya dengan pelbagai situasi.

Perbincangan Analisis

Perbincangan analisis dalam makalah ini dipapar berdasarkan AR1 dan seterusnya AR2 untuk memperlihatkan pola kombinasi maksim + strategi kesantunan yang digunakan oleh kedua-dua penulis.

Perjuangan Bahasa Melayu di Tangan Anak Muda (AR1)

Berdasarkan analisis terhadap AR1, didapati artikel ini menunjukkan pengaplikasian pola kombinasi maksim + strategi, iaitu Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Relevan + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka sebagaimana paparannya dalam Jadual 5 berikut.

Jadual 5
Pola kombinasi maksim + strategi, iaitu Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Relevan + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka

AR1/halaman	Artikel	Pola Pola kombinasi maksim + strategi
AR1/H12/P1	… dalam ikhtiar kita mengangkat martabat bahasa Melayu, kita sebenarnya memerlukan jalinan kerjasama serta buah fikiran daripada generasi muda.	Kebijaksanaan
AR1/H13/P3	Seharusnya kita mengambil peluang daripada kecanggihan teknologi dan memanfaatkan kemajuan yang dikecapi oleh negara untuk mengembangkan bahasa Melayu. Golongan muda harus bersedia dari segi minda dan tenaga untuk mengambil alih peranan yang dimainkan golongan muda terdahulu dan bersiap siaga dari segi ilmu untuk menggalas tanggungjawab ini demi kelangsungan dan kegemilangan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu.	
AR1/H13/P1	Sultan al-Fatih yang berjaya menawan kota Constantinopel pada usia 21 tahun, Usaman bin Zalid yang berjaya mengetuai angkatan tentera Islam ke wilayah Syam pada usia 18 tahun, Imam Syafiee yang layak mengeluarkan fatwa di Mekah pada usia 15 tahun dan Imam al-Ghazali yang sudah menjadi ilmuwan terkemuka pada usia 20 tahun.	
AR1/H13	... pejuang bahasa ... pencinta bahasa ... pelopor perjuangan ... generasi terdahulu ... generasi pewaris	
AR1/H11/P4	Sejarah tetap terpahat dan kita sebagai generasi pewaris sesungguhnya perlu berterima kasih kepada generasi terdahulu yang begitu gigih memperjuangkan nasib	

	bahasa Melayu hingga bahasa Melayu berjaya menjadi wadah utama dalam semua bidang.	
AR1/H13/P1	Sultan al-Fatih yang *berjaya* menawan kota Constantinopel pada usia 21 tahun, Usaman bin Zalid yang berjaya mengetuai angkatan tentera Islam ke wilayah Syam pada usia 18 tahun, Imam Syafiee yang layak mengeluarkan fatwa di Mekah pada usia 15 tahun dan Imam al-Ghazali yang sudah menjadi ilmuwan terkemuka pada usia 20 tahun.	Sokongan
AR1/H13/P1	Sultan al-Fatih yang berjaya menawan kota Constantinopel pada usia 21 tahun, Usaman bin Zalid yang berjaya mengetuai angkatan tentera Islam ke wilayah Syam pada usia 18 tahun, Imam Syafiee yang layak mengeluarkan fatwa di Mekah pada usia 15 tahun dan Imam al-Ghazali yang sudah menjadi ilmuwan terkemuka pada usia 20 tahun.	Kualiti
AR1/H10/P1	152. (1) Bahasa kebangsaan ialah bahasa Melayu dan hendaklah dalam tulisan yang diperuntukkan melalui undang-undang oleh parlimen.	
AR1/H11/P5	*Api perjuangan marak menyala*, walaupun batang tubuh yang memperjuangkannya sentiasa berubah.	Relevan
AR1/H10 (Tajuk)	Perjuangan Bahasa Melayu di Tangan Anak Muda”	Kepatuhan Pada Tajuk
AR1/H11/P3	Maka kita berpaling ke belakang untuk melihat sejarah.	Penjagaan Air Muka
AR1/H12/P3	Dalam hal ini, adakah kita terfikir untuk mendekati golongan muda? Pernahkah diadakan program khusus untuk orang muda mencurahkan buah fikiran dalam isu berkaitan bahasa?	
AR1/H11/P5	Melihat senario dan keadaan masyarakat pada hari ini berkemungkinan kita perlu *berlembut lidah* untuk memberikan kesedaran kepada masyarakat tentang kepentingan mengutamakan bahasa kebangsaan.	

Maksim Kebijaksanaan dalam AR1 diperlihatkan menerusi cadangan penulis bagi menyampaikan hasrat murninya kepada khalayak pembaca. Dalam usaha memelihara aspek kesantunan berbahasa, pengarang banyak memberikan cadangan yang konstruktif kepada generasi muda agar berjuang memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Cadangan tersebut terdapat dalam AR1/H12/P1. Cadangan ini memanifestasikan kredit dan kepercayaan yang diberikan oleh penulis kepada generasi muda dalam usaha menerajui perjuangan memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Sementara itu, ayat dalam AR1/H13/P3 turut menggambarkan cadangan pengarang artikel ini kepada seluruh rakyat Malaysia agar bersama-sama menggunakan kesempatan ini untuk memajukan bahasa rasmi menerusi capaian teknologi. Pemilihan dan penggunaan kata ganti nama "kita" dalam cadangan ini mewakili rakyat Malaysia dan menunjukkan pengarang hendak menonjolkan sifat kebersamaan dan kemesraan dalam penulisannya supaya seluruh rakyat Malaysia merasai kebersamaan tersebut. Di samping itu, AR1-H13/P3 merupakan cadangan yang bernas di samping menyelitkan kepercayaan yang tidak berbelah bahagi daripada pengarang bagi menyedarkan golongan muda hari ini agar membuat persediaan yang rapi dari segi mental dan fizikal untuk memikul tanggungjawab memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Cadangan-cadangan yang berupa peringatan mesra daripada pengarang kepada generasi muda sudah tentu dapat menjentik perasaan dan jiwa mereka untuk bertindak memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Jika disorot, didapati cadangan-cadangan ini berupaya minimumkan kos generasi muda atau pembaca yang membaca artikel ini, iaitu khalayak tidak berasa terbeban sebaliknya mengambil iktibar daripada cadangan-cadangan tersebut untuk berjuang memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Saranan dan cadangan ini juga disampaikan dengan cara yang sesuai selain berunsur pujukan. Perkara ini juga memperlihatkan kebijaksanaan pengarang melalui pemilihan dan penggunaan kata, frasa dan ayat yang bertepatan dan berkaitan dengan konteks perbincangan, iaitu memartabatkan bahasa kebangsaan. Kebijaksanaan dalam memberikan cadangan telah dikemukakan oleh Leech (1983) menerusi maksim kebijaksanaan, iaitu meminimumkan kos kepada orang lain, sebaliknya memaksimumkan lebih manfaat.

Maksim Kebijaksanaan turut diaplikasi menerusi penggunaan sapaan yang diperlihatkan menerusi pemilihan dan penggunaan kata sapaan yang sesuai dan tepat untuk mendekati orang lain. Penulis AR1 menzahirkan kepekaan dan kebijaksanaannya bagi menunjukkan sikap hormat dalam usaha menyantun tokoh-tokoh ternama seperti dalam AR1-H13/P1. Dalam artikel AR1, penggunaan kata panggilan hormat Imam untuk menggelar atau memanggil *Imam Syafiee* dan *Imam al-Ghazali* amat tepat dan santun bagi menandakan penghormatan terhadap kedua-dua tokoh yang telah memberikan sumbangan dan kejayaan yang besar dalam bidang agama Islam. Imam Syafiee merupakan ulama yang amalan mazhabnya menjadi pegangan sebahagaian umat Islam di dunia manakala Imam al-Ghazali pula merupakan tokoh pemikir Islam dan dianggap sebagai *al-mujaddid* yang juga wali Allah. Begitu juga dengan penggunaan kata sapaan rujukan kehormat untuk golongan istana, iaitu *Sultan* bagi menamakan *Sultan Al-Fatih*, amat sesuai dan bertepatan sekali dengan panggilan diraja bagi ketua yang memerintah sesebuah kerajaan.

Pengarang juga menggunakan ungkapan sapaan hormat yang tepat, sesuai dan santun dalam membincangkan isu ini bagi mencerminkan kesantunan. Penggunaan ungkapan sapaan atau panggilan untuk golongan aktivis yang berjuang memartabatkan bahasa Melayu turut dikenal pasti dalam artikel AR1/H10/P12-13, iaitu pejuang *bahasa*, *generasi pewaris*, *pelopor perjuangan*, *generasi terdahulu* dan *pencinta bahasa* amat bersesuaian dan bertepatan dengan resolusi dan agenda perjuangan golongan ini sama ada yang terdahulu atau sekarang. *Pejuang bahasa* merujuk kepada mereka yang sanggup berkorban masa dan tenaga untuk mendaulatkan bahasa Melayu di bumi Malaysia manakala *pencinta bahasa* pula merujuk kepada mereka yang setia dan memiliki sifat sayang kepada bahasa kebangsaan. *Generasi pewaris* merujuk kepada golongan muda yang bakal menjadi pewaris atau pelapis pada masa hadapan manakala *generasi terdahulu* merujuk kepada golongan veteran yang pernah berjuang demi kedaulatan bahasa Melayu. *Pelopor perjuangan* pula merujuk kepada golongan pejuang yang menjadi perintis yang mendaulatkan bahasa Melayu. Penggunaan ungkapan-ungkapan sapaan tersebut memperlihatkan ciri-ciri yang relevan dengan inti pati perbincangan tentang penghargaan terhadap pejuang-pejuang bahasa yang memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Pemilihan dan penggunaan ungkapan sapaan ini turut menzahirkan sikap kebijaksanaan penulis artikel AR1 demi mengukuhkan inti pati pendaulatan bahasa Melayu sebagaimana gagasan Leech (1983) dengan memaksimumkan manfaat kepada orang lain dan meminimumkan sebarang kos. Penulis artikel ini memperlihatkan kepekaan terhadap usaha untuk menghargai dan memberikan manfaat kepada pihak berkenaan melalui penggunaan ungkapan sapaan tersebut.

Pengarang juga mengaplikasikan maksim Kebijaksanaan menerusi selitan unsur nasihat dalam artikel ini menerusi AR1/H13/P4. Nasihat disampaikan penulis dengan penanda kata tugas *perlu* dalam ayat ini, iaitu rakyat Malaysia dinasihatkan agar mengenang jasa generasi terdahulu yang telah mendaulatkan bahasa Melayu. Kata tugas *perlu* ini turut bersinonim dengan berguna, berfaedah dan bermanfaat yang sesuai digunakan untuk memberikan nasihat (Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat, 2007). Penulis tidak menggunakan perkataan “mesti” dan “harus” atau “wajib” dalam menitipkan nasihatnya agar khalayak pembaca tidak berasa terbeban sebaliknya memberikan ruang kepada pembaca untuk membuat penilaian. Penegasan penulis menerusi ungkapan *perlu berterima kasih kepada generasi terdahulu* amat signifikan untuk menasihat generasi masa ini agar tidak seperti *kacang lupakan kulit.* Nasihat yang disampaikan dengan cara yang baik dan sopan sudah tentu memaksimumkan manfaatkan kepada khalayak dan tidak memaksimumkan kos mereka sebagaimana gagasan Leech (1983) menerusi maksim Kebijaksanaan. Sarjana Indonesia, iaitu Hamka (2002, hlm. 50) menegaskan bahawa kesantunan meliputi kata-kata yang lemah lembut dan beradab mampu melembutkan hati seseorang.

AR1 turut memperlihatkan pengaplikasian maksim Sokongan dalam AR1-H13/P1. Pengarang memuatkan pujian terhadap tokoh-tokoh berkenaan atas kehebatan dan kejayaan mereka menempah kegemilangan dalam usia yang masih muda dalam pelbagai bidang. Pengarang menandakan pujian menerusi kata kunci “berjaya” kepada kedua-dua tokoh yang telah menunjukkan kecemerlangan pada usia yang masih muda. Sementara itu, pujian terhadap Imam Syafiee ditandai kata kunci "layak", iaitu telah lulus atau diperakukan untuk mengeluarkan fatwa pada usia 15 tahun. Usia 15 tahun merupakan usia yang sangat muda tetapi tokoh ini telah melakar sejarah dan kejayaan yang besar. Pujian kepada Imam Ghazali pula ditandai frasa "ilmuan terkemuka" pada usia yang sangat muda, 20 tahun. Ilmuan terkemuka merujuk kepada cendekiawan atau cerdik pandai yang tersohor dan terkenal yang sukar untuk dicapai, tetapi mampu diraih Imam Ghazali pada usia muda. Pujian-pujian ini sewajarnya diberikan kepada tokoh-tokoh berkenaan atas jasa dan pencapaian mereka yang telah terlakar dalam sejarah. Pujian-pujian ini berkeupayaan untuk memberikan galakan dan dorongan kepada generasi muda agar menjadikan tokoh-tokoh ini sebagai teladan dalam mensinergikan perjuangan mereka memartabatkan bahasa rasmi negara. Abdul Mua'ti @Zamri Ahmad (2001, hlm. 37) menegaskan bahawa pujian yang ikhlas akan menjadi pendorong utama kepada pihak yang dipuji untuk meneruskan perbuatan baik dan merupakan petanda bahawa kita menghargai apa-apa yang mereka lakukan.

AR1 juga menunjukkan pengaplikasian maksim Kualiti yang diutarakan oleh Grice (1975). Berdasarkan ayat dan idea dalam AR1-H13/P1, pengarang memperlihatkan kekuatan dengan merujuk kepada sumber yang berkualiti, iaitu mengemukakan maklumat yang lengkap dan tepat tentang kejayaan tokoh-tokoh berkenaan. Misalnya, "Sultan al-Fatih yang berjaya menawan kota Constantinople pada usia 21 tahun", memperjelaskan bahawa tokoh ini terkenal di kota Constantinople, sebuah tempat yang ditawan oleh Sultan al-Fatih dan terpahat dalam sejarah Islam (Abdul Latip Talib, 2009, hlm. 70). Seterusnya, "Imam Syafiee yang layak mengeluarkan fatwa di Mekah" turut memperlihatkan penggunaan sumber yang sahih, iaitu tokoh imam yang benar-benar wujud dalam sejarah Islam dan terkenal di Mekah. Tindakan pengarang mengemukakan bukti atau fakta ini menunjukkan pengarang amat peka dan prihatin dengan sumber yang dirujuk bagi menghasilkan sebuah wacana yang berkualiti selain membuktikan wujudnya aspek koheren dan kohesi dalam penulisan. Perkara ini dapat dihubungkaitkan dengan maksim Kualiti yang dikemukakan Grice (1975), iaitu pengarang mengupas isu ini dengan mengutarakan contoh tokoh yang muktabar, berwibawa dan sememangnya wujud dalam sejarah Islam. Pembuktian ini menunjukkan bahawa wacana yang dihasilkan ini amat berkualiti atas faktor sumbernya tepat. Maksim Kualiti juga diperlihatkan dalam AR1-H10/P1. Penggunaan perkara 152 dalam perlembagaan merupakan bukti yang sahih dan kukuh bahawa bahasa Melayu telah diperuntukkan sebagai bahasa kebangsaan di Malaysia sebagaimana yang termaktub dalam Perlembagaan Malaysia. Pembuktian yang diberikan oleh penulis artikel ini menzahirkan kekuatan penulis dalam mengemukakan fakta yang sahih agar penulisannya berkualiti dan memenuhi tuntutan kesantunan.

Seterusnya, penggunaan maksim Relevan dalam Prinsip Kesantunan Grice diteliti menerusi AR1-H11/P5 "Api perjuangan marak menyala". Penggunaan ungkapan atau frasa yang indah atau puitis seperti *api perjuangan*, iaitu gaya bahasa metafora turut dipilih dan digunakan penulis bagi mencerminkan semangat perjuangan yang tinggi dan sewajarnya dimiliki rakyat Malaysia dalam usaha memartabatkan bahasa kebangsaan. Penggunaan ungkapan yang indah ini merupakan salah satu ciri kesantunan dalam bidang penulisan dan relevan dengan medan perbincangan dan agenda perdana dalam artikel ini, iaitu usaha menyemarakkan semangat untuk memartabatkan bahasa Melayu.

Artikel ini juga memperlihatkan penggunaan strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar (1996) bukan hanya pengaplikasian maksim-makism Leech (1983) dan Grice (1975). Strategi kesantunan yang diaplikasi dalam artikel ini ialah kepatuhan pada tajuk atau bidang perbincangan atau perbahasan. Tajuk yang dikemukakan oleh pengarang amat bertepatan dengan inti pati yang dibicarakan secara tuntas dalam artikel ini. AR1/10 bertajuk "Perjuangan Bahasa Melayu di Tangan Anak Muda", amat mematuhi medan perbincangan dalam artikel ini yang memberikan fokus terhadap saranan dan cadangan terhadap usaha yang wajar diambil generasi muda untuk mendaulatkan bahasa Melayu. Fokus perbincangan turut membicarakan usaha-usaha pejuang bahasa terdahulu dalam memartabatkan bahasa kebangsaan ini. Pengarang memulakan wacana dengan mengetengahkan perkara 152 dalam perlembagaan Malaysia yang memperuntukkan keistimewaan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan. Seterusnya, pengarang menelusuri sejarah perjuangan bahasa Melayu dalam menempatkan dirinya sebagai bahasa yang utuh, sejak dari zaman sebelum merdeka sehinggalah negara mengecapi kemerdekan. Seterusnya, pengarang membicarakan fungsi dan peranan penting golongan muda dalam memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Perbincangan dan kupasan yang bertepatan dengan tajuk artikel, membuktikan bahawa penulis mematuhi tatacara penulisan. Hal ini ditambah pula wacana ini memiliki kesatuan yang lengkap organisasi maklumatnya dari pengenalan, isi kandungan sehinggalah kepada penutupnya. Pematuhan terhadap tajuk perbincangan amat penting bagi memastikan artikel berkenaan memiliki kesantunan atau sebaliknya. Asmah Omar (1996) memberikan penegasan bahawa kepatuhan kepada tajuk atau bidang perbincangan atau perbahasan merupakan salah satu ciri kesopanan dalam peristiwa bahasa.

Penulis artikel ini juga mementingkan strategi penjagaan air muka sebagaimana yang diketengahkan oleh Asmah Omar (1996). Penjagaan air muka dilakukan bagi mengelakkan sesuatu pihak berasa tersinggung atau berkecil hati. Pengarang tidak menyalahkan atau mengutuk golongan muda sebaliknya memberikan cadangan agar golongan muda berjuang memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Pengarang menggunakan ungkapan dan ayat yang mencerminkan penjagaan air muka seperti dalam AR1-H11/P3 ketika mengetengahkan bahawa situasi bahasa Melayu masih terumbang-ambing atau tidak stabil dengan mengingatkan semua rakyat Malaysia agar menoleh dan mengkaji sejarah kegemilangan bahasa Melayu pada abad ke-19 dalam usaha memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Ayat ini menggambarkan bahawa penulis memohon agar masyarakat tidak melupakan sejarah silam dalam mendepani kemelut yang meracuni bahasa kebangsaan pada hari ini. Penulis sangat menjaga sensitiviti sehingga tidak ditemukan ungkapan-ungkapan yang menyinggung mana-mana pihak sebaliknya, menggunakan ayat secara berlapik dalam usaha memberikan pengajaran kepada khalayak pembaca.

Dalam mewujudkan kesantunan berbahasa menerusi penjagaan air muka pengarang turut menggunakan strategi pertanyaan. Pertanyaan yang dilontarkan oleh pengarang dalam artikel ini dapat memugar proses berfikir dan tidak menunjukkan unsur paksaan. Misalnya dalam AR1-H12/P3 "adakah kita terfikir untuk mendekati golongan muda?" dan dalam ayat "Pernahkah diadakan program khusus untuk orang muda mencurahkan buah fikiran dalam isu berkaitan bahasa?". Walaupun pertanyaan berfungsi bagi mendapatkan ketepatan maklumat namun dalam konteks artikel ini, pertanyaan berfungsi untuk menegaskan kepentingan isu memartabatkan bahasa Melayu oleh generasi muda. Pengarang membuat penegasan terhadap usaha untuk mendekati golongan muda dan program khusus untuk orang muda mencurahkan buah fikiran. Kedua-dua maklumat ini amat signifkan jika kita berhasrat untuk melihat generasi muda menjadi lebih proaktif dan progresif memainkan peranan mereka. Oleh itu, pengarang menggunakan strategi pertanyaan bagi menjadikan penulisannya lebih berkesan selain memugar daya fikir khalayak pembaca. Tersiratnya, pengarang sebenarnya membuat permintaan terhadap khalayak pembaca atau pihak-pihak yang berkepentingan agar isu ini dapat diatasi dan generasi muda dapat bersiap siaga memainkan peranan mereka. Hal ini bertepatan dengan pandangan Siti Hajar Abdul Aziz (2009, hlm. 97) yang mengaitkannya dengan kesopanan, iaitu salah satu cara untuk menjadikan permintaan nampak lebih sopan dan beradab adalah dengan menggunakan permintaan dalam bentuk pertanyaan. Dalam konteks analisis ini, penggunaan strategi pertanyaan ini turut memberikan ruang keselesaan dan kebebasan kepada golongan yang menjadi fokus perbincangan, iaitu generasi muda agar tidak menanggung kos atau terbeban. Sara Beden (2018, hlm. 58) turut menegaskan bahawa strategi pertanyaan memudahkan pembaca memahami dan memproses maklumat yang dihasratkan pengarang sekali gus menjadikan idea yang disampaikan jelas dan ringkas. Impaknya, penulisan AR1 ini menarik dan tidak memperlihatkan unsur paksaan.

Strategi penjagaan air muka turut terdapat dalam AR1-H11/P5. Ungkapan "berlembut lidah" dalam ayat tersebut merupakan ungkapan santun yang halus dan lembut dalam berbahasa yang membawa maksud bersuara lunak, merdu dan perlahan dalam usaha menyedarkan masyarakat tentang kepentingan mengutamakan bahasa kebangsaan. Penggunaan frasa *berlembut lidah* ini amat bertepatan dengan usaha memberi kesedaran kepada masyarakat dengan cara yang lebih lembut dan tidak agresif. Dalam usaha memberikan kesedaran, segala idea dan saranan wajar disampaikan dengan lembut dan beralas agar mudah dihadam dan diterima masyarakat. Berdasarkan ungkapan ini, ternyata penulis artikel ini amat menjaga air muka pembaca dengan membuat saranan secara berlapik agar tidak ada pihak yang sensitif dengan saranan tersebut.

Perjuangan yang Masih Berliku (AR2)

Seterusnya, berdasarkan analisis terhadap AR2 pula, didapati AR2 mematuhi maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Cara + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka sebagaimana dalam Jadual 6 berikut.

Jadual 6
Pola kombinasi maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Cara + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka

AR2/halaman	**Artikel**	**Pola Pola kombinasi maksim + strategi**
AR2-H6/P1	Campur tangan kesultanan Malaysia seperti titah Sultan Nazrin Muizzuddin Shah dalam usaha memartabatkan bahasa Melayu ...	Kebijaksanaan
AR2-H8/P3	*Profesor Datin Paduka Datuk Dr. Ramlah Adam* dalam kajiannya yang bertajuk ... ... apabila *Perdana Menteri Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad* membuat pengumuman bahawa ...	
AR2-H9/P2	Namun nada berbeza ... Felo Utana Institut Kajian Etnik , UKM Prof. Datuk Dr. Teo Kok Seong ...	
AR2-H8/P3	Hal ini membuktikan *komitmen dan kesungguhan* kerajaan untuk menjadikan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu yang tinggi tarafnya.	Sokongan
AR2-H9/P3	Bahasa Melayu yang paling layak dimartabatkan sebagai bahasa ilmu dalam setiap lapisan pendidikan negara kita berbanding dengan bahasa-bahasa lain di dunia.	
AR2-H7/P1	Perjuangan memartabatkan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan dibangkitkan oleh raja-raja Melayu dalam mesyuarat Durbar pada tahun 1903 ... ..Perlembagaan Persekutuan Tanah Melayu pada 5 Ogos 1957.	Kualiti
AR2-H8/P1	Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan 1963/1967- Akta 32 Kemas kini 2006 pula menetapkan bahawa “Bahasa Kebangsaan (bahasa Melayu) hendaklah digunakan bagi maksud rasmi”.	
AR2-H8/P2	... Barisan Bertindak Bahasa Kebangsaan dan berjaya menghimpunkan seramai 2000 nasionalis pada 3 Mac 1967. Peristiwa tersebut dirujuk sebagai “Keranda 152”.	
AR2-H9/P1	Antaranya, termasuklah masalah guru yang tidak dapat menyampaikan ilmu tersebut dengan berkesan disebabkan guru terbabit tidak mahir bertutur dalam bahasa Inggeris sehinggakan kebanyakan guru menggunakan campuran	

	bahasa Inggeris dan bahasa Melayu dalam PdP mreka seperti yang terdapat dalam laporan “Kajian Kompetensi Guru dalam PPISMI serta implikasinya terhadap Prestasi ke Arah Modal Insan”.	Cara
AR2-H6	Tajuk: “Perjuangan yang Masih Berliku”	Kepatuhan Pada Tajuk
AR2-H8/P3	Namun, perjalanan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan terutama bahasa ilmu disangka panas hingga ke petang rupanya hujan di tengah hari apabila kembali dihimpit isu-isu panas pada thun 1990-an.	Penjagaan Air Muka
AR2-H9/P2	Walau apa pun sebab dan alasan yang diberikan, pelaksanaan DLP ibarat luka lama berdarah kembali kepada semua pihak yang memperjuangkan pemansuhan PPSMI	
AR2-H9/P2	Perjalanan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan masih berliku biar pun PPSMI telah dimansuhkan.	
AR2-H9/P3	Berdasarkan pemerhatian, perjalanan bahasa Melayu terutamanya sebagai bahasa ilmu penuh dengan onak duri.	
AR2-H8/P4	Tindakan kerajaan untuk kembali menjadikan bahasa lain sebagai bahasa pengantar melalui Dasar Pengajaran S dan M dalam BI (PPSMI) pada tahun 2003 dilihat cuba mengurangkan fungsi bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu seperti yang ditetapkan oleh Perlembagaan Persekutuan, Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan, Akta Pendidikan dan Akta Dewan Bahasa Dan Pustaka.	

Maksim Kebijaksanaan dalam AR2 diperlihatkan menerusi ketepatan penggunaan sapaan rujukan kehormat kepada golongan istana dalam ayat AR2-H6/P1. Pemerintah Kerajaan Perak, digelar *Sultan* yang menandakan sapaan rujukan kehormat bagi golongan diraja. Penzahiran penggunaan kata sapaan rujukan kehormat untuk golongan berkenaan menandakan aspek kesantunan yang tinggi. Penulis menunjukkan kepekaan dengan tidak mengabaikan aspek ini dalam penulisan.

Sehubungan itu, dalam AR2 terdapat juga sapaan hormat terhadap golongan yang diberi gelaran kurniaan dan anugerah akademik atas pencapaian akademik tertinggi dan atas jasa atau sumbangan mereka kepada negara. Dalam AR2 -H8/P3 “Profesor Datin Paduka Datuk Dr. Ramlah Adam dalam kajiannya yang bertajuk ...”, memperlihatkan kepekaan penulis untuk menamakan tokoh ini dengan meletakkan anugerah akademik, gelaran kurniaan kerajaan dan kelayakan akademik tertinggi di Malaysia kepada beliau, iaitu "Profesor + Datin Paduka Datuk + Dr" Begitu juga dalam AR2-H9/P2, ayat "Namun nada berbeza ... Felo Utama Institut Kajian Etnik, UKM Prof. Datuk Dr. Teo Kok Seong ...". Dr. Teo Kok Seong turut dinamakan dengan betul anugerah akademik, gelaran kurniannya oleh kerajaan dan kelayakan akademik tertinggi di Malaysia, iaitu "Profesor + Datuk + Dr" Perkara ini juga terdapat dalam AR2-H8/3 berdasarkan ayat "... apabila Perdana Menteri Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad membuat pengumuman bahawa ...". Penulis tidak mengabaikan tatacara kesantunan penulisan dengan menamakan jawatan dan gelaran kurniaan kepada Perdana Menteri "Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamad". Gelaran "Tun" yang merupakan gelaran kurniaan tertinggi di Malaysia telah dikurniakan kepada beliau oleh di-Pertuan Agong atas jasa dan sumbangannya kepada kerajaan dan rakyat manakala Dr (bidang perubatan) merupakan profesion beliau sebelum melibatkan diri dalam bidang pentadbiran. Ketepatan dan kesesuaian penggunaan sapaan hormat ini menandakan pengarang seorang yang peka dan bijaksana dalam memastikan kesantunan penulisannya terpelihara.

Perbincangan penulis dalam AR2 turut mengaplikasikan maksim Sokongan dalam PS Leech (1983). Hal ini memanifestasikan bahawa pengarang tidak meminggirkan unsur pujian dalam penghasilan artikelnya. Strategi pujian diaplikasikan dalam AR2-H8/P3. Pujian diberikan kepada pihak kerajaan menerusi kata kunci "komitmen" dan "kesungguhan" dalam mendaulatkan bahasa Melayu. Hal ini menunjukkan penulis peka akan peranan dan inisiatif yang diambil kerajaan dalam meninggikan martabat bahasa Melayu walaupun banyak halangannya. Seterusnya, AR2-H9/P3 turut mencitrakan pujian kepada bahasa Melayu apabila penulis menggunakan frasa "paling layak" dalam menandai pujiannya. Kata penguat *paling* merujuk kepada darjah sangat tinggi dan *layak* pula diperakukan sah. Oleh itu, pujian ini amat menyenangkan hati pembaca khususnya pencinta dan pejuang bahasa. Strategi pujian yang diaplikasikan penulis AR2 ini bertepatan dengan gagasan Leech yang telah mengetengahkan maksim Sokongan dengan menggagaskan bahawa kita sewajarnya memaksimumkan pujian bagi menyenangkan hati pihak lain sama ada dalam komunikasi bertulis mahupun lisan. Berdasarkan Leech (1983), tiada pihak yang tidak menyukai pujian.

Pengaplikasian Prinsip Kerjasam Grice (1975) menerusi maksim Kualiti terdapat dalam AR2-H7/1. Penggunaan fakta yang sahih dan benar menerusi "mesyuarat Durbar pada tahun 1903" membuktikan bahawa pihak raja-raja Melayu telah berusaha memartabatkan bahasa Melayu pada masa itu. Sementara penggunaan "...Perlembagaan Persekutuan Tanah Melayu pada 5 Ogos 1957". Penggunaan fakta-fakta sejarah membuktikan ketelitian penulis artikel AR2 dalam penghasilan penulisan yang berkualiti sebagaimana gagasan Grice (1975). Seterusnya, bagi mengukuhkan fakta dalam penulisan, penulis menggunakan Akta Bahasa kebangsaan 1963/1967 menerusi ayat AR2-H8/P3. Akta ini menguatkan bukti perjuangan dan usaha pihak-pihak berkenaan dalam memastikan kedaulatan bahasa Melayu terpelihara. Begitu juga dengan penggunaan ayat AR2-H8/P3. Penggunaan fakta ini berupaya menyedarkan masyarakat tentang sejarah suram bahasa Melayu sehingga membawa kepada perhimpunan 3 Mac 1967. Penggunaan fakta yang tepat sebagai sumber rujukan dan bukti dalam penulisan menjadikan sesebuah penulisan tersebut berkualiti sekali gus menggambarkan penulis tidak hanya bersembang kosong. Perjuangan, pelaksanaan, peristiwa dan tindakan-tindakan pihak tertentu dalam usaha memartabatkan bahasa Melayu dibuktikan dengan sahih menerusi akta dan peristiwa dengan tarikh yang tepat.

Berdasarkan strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar, didapati penulis artikel ini menggunakan strategi Kepatuhan pada Tajuk. AR2 bertajuk "Perjuangan yang Masih Berliku". Isi kandungan artikel bermula dengan pengenalan, isi dan penutup yang mematuhi kehendak dan inti pati tajuk artikel. Bahagian pengenalan mengupas tentang kegoyahan dan nasib bahasa Melayu yang terumbang-ambing diancam isu-isu panas. Isi-isi atau inti pati AR2 pula membicarakan sejarah, akta-akta berkaitan dan program-program atau agenda pihak-pihak berkepentingan terhadap bahasa Melayu sehingga fungsi bahasa Melayu terjejas. Penutup AR2 pula menyimpulkan bahawa bahasa Melayu sewajarnya diangkat dan selayaknya menjadi bahasa ilmu selain menyeru agar semua lapisan masyarakat bersama-sama memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Keseluruhan perbincangan dalam artikel ini mematuhi ruang lingkup tajuk AR2 sebagaimana gagasan Asmah Omar menerusi strategi Kepatuhan pada tajuk. Kepatuhan pada tajuk amat penting dalam memastikan sesuatu penulisan tersebut berkualiti atau sebaliknya kerana ketidakpatuhan pada tajuk perbincangan menyebabkan hasil penulisan menyeleweng dan keluar dari tajuk, sekali gus mencerminkan pengabaian dan kepincangan terhadap kesantunan penulisan.

Penulisan AR2 juga memberi penekanan terhadap strategi penjagaan air muka yang melibatkan maruah. Strategi ini diaplikasi dalam AR2-H8 menerusi ayat "Namun, perjalanan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan terutama bahasa ilmu *disangka panas hingga ke petang rupanya hujan di tengah hari* apabila kembali dihimpit isu-isu panas pada tahun 1990-an". Penggunaan peribahasa *disangka panas hingga ke petang rupanya hujan di tengah hari,* mencerminkan strategi yang digunakan oleh penulis untuk menggunakan unsur bahasa kiasan atau figuratif agar agenda yang dikemukakan lebih berlapik untuk menggambarkan kemelut dan polemik yang mengancam bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan pada tahun 1990-an. Harapan dan impian menggunung para pejuang bahasa terkandas di tengah jalan apabila pihak berkepentingan melaksanakan dasar-dasar yang mengakibatkan ancaman kepada kedudukan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa kebangsaan. Penggunaan peribahasa ini menggambarkan penulis amat mementingkan kehalusan dalam mengungkapkan buah fikiran agar tidak menyinggung perasaan mana-mana pihak.

Selain itu, strategi penjagaan air muka juga terdapat dalam AR2-H9. Dalam ayat ini terdapat penggunaan perumpamaan, iaitu "ibarat luka lama berdarah kembali" bagi menzahirkan perasaan kecewa dan terkilan pihak pejuang bahasa apabila *dual-language program* (DLP) dilaksanakan bagi menggantikan PPSMI. Kekecewaan pejuang bahasa berulang kembali sebagaimana pada zaman PPSMI diperkenalkan dahulu namun diutarakan secara berlapik oleh penulis menerusi kias ibarat agar dapat menjaga perasaan semua pihak. Pencinta dan pejuang bahasa sudah tentu berasa kecewa dan terluka dengan perlaksanaan DLP yang bakal menggugat martabat bahasa rasmi. Penulis memiliki objektif untuk menjaga sensitiviti semua pihak menerusi penggunaan bahasa figuratif.

Sementara penggunaan ungkapan masih "berliku" dalam AR2-H9/P3 menandakan penggunaan bahasa beralas bagi mencitrakan ranjau perjalanan yang dilalui pejuang-pejuang bahasa dalam memartabatkan bahasa Melayu. Begitu juga dalam ayat "Berdasarkan pemerhatian, perjalanan bahasa Melayu terutamanya sebagai bahasa ilmu penuh dengan onak duri", turut memperlihatkan frasa atau ungkapan yang berlapik, iaitu "penuh dengan onak duri" bagi menzahirkan gelora, kendala-kendala dan pahit maung yang dihadapi bahasa Melayu dalam meniti perjalanan sebagai bahasa kebangsaan. Penulis AR2 menggunakan ungkapan-ungkapan ini sebagai asosiasi tidak berterus terang untuk mengekpresikan perasaan dan pandangan beliau tentang konflik dan nasib malang yang menimpa bahasa Melayu.

Pengaplikasian strategi Penjagaan Air Muka ini turut terdapat dalam AR2-H8/P1. Berdasarkan ayat tersebut, penulis menggunakan ungkapan "dilihat cuba mengurangkan fungsi bahasa Melayu" merupakan ungkapan yang berlapik kerana tidak secara terang-terangan atau secara tidak langsung menzahirkan bahawa peranan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu disempitkan dan terjejas setelah pelaksanaan PPSMI. Oleh itu, penulis menggunakan ungkapan "cuba mengurangkan" dalam memperlihatkan tindakan pihak-pihak tertentu yang memperkecil dan memperlekeh peranan bahasa Melayu sebagai bahasa ilmu untuk menjaga hati semua pihak. Perkataan *cuba* dalam konteks ayat ini bermaksud sekiranya atau seandainya atau tidak ada ketetapan yang mutlak (Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat, 2007) sebagai gambaran kehalusan bicara penulis agar berupaya menjaga air muka pihak-pihak berkepentingan atas tindakan mereka yang memperkecil kebolehan bahasa Melayu sekali gus menyantuni khalayak pembaca.

Stategi Penjagaan Air Muka yang digunakan penulis berupaya mengurangkan ketegangan pembaca apabila penulis membangkitkan polemik, ranjau dan liku-liku yang dihadapi bahasa Melayu sejak dari dahulu sehingga kini untuk menjadi bahasa kebangsaan yang mantap dan disegani dengan cara yang halus. Jeniri Amir (2009, hlm. 51) menegaskan bahawa penggunaan bahasa yang halus dan bersopan akan memberikan kesan yang besar terhadap minda khalayaknya, iaitu pendengar (pembaca) akan berasa tenteram dan bahagia. Jika sebaliknya, akan menyebabkan perasaan sesuatu pihak terhiris dan tersinggung. Pandangan ini bertepatan dengan tatacara penulis mengetengahkan isu pemartabatan bahasa Melayu dengan cara yang berhemah, halus dan santun kerana isu ini boleh menjadi isu panas dan membangkitkan sensitiviti pihak-pihak berkepentingan sekali gus mengecewakan para pejuang bahasa.

Kesimpulan

Berdasarkan analisis, didapati kedua-dua artikel yang menjadi data korpus ini sarat dengan aspek kesantunan berbahasa yang diperlihatkan menerusi pembentukan pola kombinasi maksim + strategi. AR1 memperlihatkan pematuhan terhadap maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Relevan + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka manakala AR2 pula mematuhi maksim Kebijaksanaan + Sokongan + Kualiti + Cara + Kepatuhan pada Tajuk + Penjagaan Air Muka. Hasil analisis terhadap data dalam kedua-dua artikel menunjukkan pengaplikasian maksim yang sama cuma perbezaannya kewujudan maksim Relevan dalam AR1 manakala maksim Cara dalam AR2. Perkara ini berlaku atas faktor setiap artikel yang ditulis mempunyai objektif yang tersendiri untuk menyantuni khalayak pembaca walaupun kedua-dua artikel diletakkan dalam ruangan yang sama. Impaknya, pengaplikasian maksim bagi setiap artikel menunjukkan perbezaan bagi memenuhi tuntutan objektif penyampaian maklumat. Pengaplikasian strategi kesantunan Asmah Haji Omar pula memperlihatkan persamaan, iaitu pengaplikasian strategi Kepatuhan pada Tajuk dan strategi Penjagaan Air Muka. Situasi ini memperlihatkan bahawa setiap penulisan sewajarnya mematuhi tajuk agar maklumat tidak menyeleweng daripada landasan sebenar. Penulis juga memperlihatkan sikap berhati-hati dengan mengutamakan strategi penjagaan air muka agar tidak menimbulkan sebarang konflik mahupun mencalar maruah mana-mana pihak.

Pematuhan kedua-dua artikel dengan mengaplikasikan maksim kebijaksanaan menunjukkan bahawa penulis berusaha untuk memberikan manfaat dan meminimumkan kos pembaca apabila maklumat yang disampaikan tidak membebankan khalayak pembaca. Maksim Kebijaksanaan didapati wujud dalam semua pola kombinasi maksim + strategi yang terbentuk. Penggunaan maksim kebijaksanaan memberikan gambaran bahawa aspek kesopanan berhubung rapat dengan kearifan seseorang dalam bidang penulisan agar mesej disampaikan dengan cara yang berhemah. Tenas Effendy (2010, hlm. 24) mengungkapkan tunjuk ajar dalam budaya Melayu yang berbunyi “Apa tanda orang yang bijak, berfikir dahulu sebelum bertindak, Apa tanda orang beradab, berfikir dahulu sebelum mengungkap”. Ungkapan ini menjelaskan bahawa budaya Melayu bukan sahaja memberikan penegasan agar berfikir sebelum melakukan sesuatu pekerjaan malahan kita diseru agar berfikir terlebih dahulu sebelum mengujarkan kata-kata. Maksim Kebijaksanaan ditandai menerusi ungkapan mencadang, menasihat, penggunaan kata sapaan hormat dan ganti nama yang betul dan tepat. Penggunaan kata sapaan hormat dan ganti nama yang betul dan tepat mencitrakan kehalusan berbahasa yang menjadi lambang jati diri ketamadunan bangsa Melayu. Cadangan dan nasihat pula bersifat negatif. Walau bagaimanapun, jika disampaikan secara berhemah dengan pemilihan kata yang sesuai, halus dan lembut atau tidak memaksa maka dapat memantulkan citra kesantunan berbahasa. Menurut Tenas Effendy (2011, hlm. 40), orang tua-tua ada mengatakan “Apabila hendak memberi saran, elokkan niat luaskan fikiran”. Pendapat ini merupakan suatu representasi bahawa pemikiran yang bernas dan niat yang ikhlas amat penting agar saranan memberikan manfaat kepada orang lain sebagaimana tindakan kedua-dua penulis dalam artikel yang dikaji.

Maksim Sokongan ditandai kata sifat yang positif, iaitu pujian kepada orang lain selain memberikan penghargaan atas jasa dan kesejahteraan seseorang. Tindakan ini dapat memaksimumkan pujian dan meminimumkan cacian terhadap orang lain sama ada dalam komunikasi bertulis mahupun lisan. Pujian perlu dalam kasus tertentu kerana ketiadaan pujian mengimplikasikan cacian (Leech, 1993). Unsur pujian dalam analisis ini diperlihatkan menerusi pujian terhadap tokoh-tokoh Islam bagi mencerminkan sokongan dan kekaguman penulis dengan sumbangan mereka sama ada dari segi ilmu pengetahuan mahupun kepakaran dan kemahiran.

Sementara itu, kehadiran Maksim Kualiti pula memperlihatkan keperluan pemberian maklumat yang benar atau sahih agar mesej menjadi efektif dan diyakini pembaca. Penggunaan maksim ini amat signifikan dalam analisis terhadap kedua-dua artikel dan memanifestasikan kepentingan nilai kejujuran sekali gus dapat meningkatkan kepercayaan pembaca. Abdullah Hassan dan Ainon Ahmad, (1999, hlm .15) menyatakan bahawa maklumat yang disampaikan dengan tepat dan tidak palsu atau mempunyai fakta perlu diberi keutamaan kerana berkaitan dengan etika. Penggunaan akta, peristiwa-peristiwa bersejarah dengan tahun kejadiannya dan nama-nama tokoh yang wujud secara realiti dalam data korpus ini memperlihatkan bahawa penulis sangat menitikberatkan kualiti penulisannya selain memaparkan bukti yang kukuh.

Maksim Relevan pula memaparkan pemberian maklumat yang mempunyai pertalian dan ciri-ciri yang rapat dengan sesuatu maklumat yang diekspresikan penulis. Penggunaan maksim ini dapat melancarkan pemberian maklumat yang berkaitan dengan sesuatu perkara yang menjadi topik perbincangan. Maksim Cara pula menzahirkan pemberian maklumat yang terperinci, tersusun dan padat agar mudah difahami dan jelas. Kehadiran maksim ini memudahkan pembaca memproses, memahami dan menerima atau menghadam sebarang mesej atau maklumat yang dibaca.

Pematuhan kedua-dua data korpus terhadap strategi kepatuhan kepada tajuk menunjukkan kedua-dua penulis amat peka dan prihatin dengan tugas sebagai penulis. Penulis bertanggungjawab menyajikan wadah yang bersesuaian dan relevan dengan tajuk perbincangan. Selain itu, pengaplikasian strategi penjagaan air muka dipaparkan menerusi strategi pertanyaan, peribahasa, perumpamaan dan ungkapan yang berlapik dalam usaha penulis artikel menyantuni pembaca. Penggunaan bahasa figuratif dalam penulisan kedua-dua artikel membuktikan bahawa bidang komunikasi bertulis mementingkan keindahan, kehalusan dan ketinggian pemikiran dalam menzahirkan daya keintelektualan penulis. Penggunaan bahasa ini turut berperanan sebagai penyokong hujah dan pernyataan penulis agar mesej yang disampaikan kepada khalayak lebih efektif selain memperlihatkan sikap berhati-hati penulis dalam menyampaikan maklumat. Noriati A. Rashid (2005, hlm. 235), menyatakan bahawa orang Melayu sangat mementingkan perasaan orang lain dan ini menjadi pertimbangan dan pengukur dalam membuat keputusan. Pandangan ini memanifestasikan bahawa setiap ahli masyarakat sewajarnya mementingkan perilaku yang santun dengan membuat pemilihan kata dan ungkapan yang tepat dan sesuai agar dapat menjaga air muka dan tidak menyinggung perasaan mana-mana pihak.

Kesopanan berbahasa amat signifikan untuk dibudayakan dalam kehidupan masyarakat keseluruhannya sama ada dalam komunikasi lisan atau bertulis. Mohd Fahmi Mohamed Zaki (2011, hlm. 14) menegaskan bahawa dengan bahasa kita menyembunyikan atau mengungkapkan fikiran dan dengan bahasa juga kita dapat mengakhiri sesuatu konflik dan pertelingkahan. Sementara Azlina Mohd Kiram (2010, hlm. 61) berpendapat bahawa Islam juga menegaskan umatnya supaya sentiasa memelihara aib diri dan orang lain, menjaga kesopanan tutur kata dan tingkah laku serta memelihara maruah kerana Allah. Tegasnya, kedua-dua pandangan tersebut, memperjelas bahawa bahasa yang sopan sama ada melalui saluran lisan mahupun bertulis berkeupayaan melahirkan bangsa yang bertamadun, berjati diri, memiliki sahsiah terpuji dan terhindar daripada sengketa.

Tuntasnya, kejelasan dan perincian aspek kesantunan penulisan dalam data korpus kajian memperlihatkan sejelasnya agenda besar dan signifikan Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka dalam usaha memartabatkan bahasa Melayu agar terus *mengakar ke bumi, menjulang ke langit*. Ruangan agenda bahasa, bicara bahasa, reaksi bahasa, bahasa dan pemikiran, dan penyelidikan bahasa bukan sahaja memberikan manfaat yang maksimum kepada khalayak bahasa malahan memperlihatkan aspek kesantunan berbahasa khususnya dalam bidang penulisan. Sewajarnya generasi muda sejak dari zaman persekolahan dididik menggunakan bahasa yang betul dan mendalami jati diri dan budaya berbahasa sama ada dalam bentuk lisan mahupun tulisan. Arina Johari, Nurul Jamilah Rosly, Sara Beden, dan Norlela Abdollah (2018, hlm. 108) menegaskan bahawa aspek pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa tidak seharusnya hanya berfokuskan mekanisme bahasa, sebaliknya menerapkan nilai budaya pragmatik yang berupaya mendedahkan tataadab komunikasi. Ringkasnya, bidang penulisan kekal signifikan sebagai medium untuk penyebaran maklumat namun aspek kesantunannya tidak boleh dianaktirikan oleh semua pihak khususnya yang mencintai bahasa kebangsaan.

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SIMILAR SOUNDING WORDS WRITING STRATEGY BY LEARNERS OF MANDARIN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Manuscript received 17 May 2018
Manuscript accepted 18 May 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1601.2019

ABSTRACT

A general feature observed in foreign language classroom is the usage of communication strategies by the learners in their attempts to manipulate a limited linguistics system to communicate. This research aims to investigate the usage of similar sounding words as a written communication strategy in learning Mandarin. The respondents were 59 second- and third-year Malaysian students learning Mandarin as a foreign language at a public university. An open-ended questionnaire was set to gauge respondents' perception on the strategies used, and was divided into four parts, namely the demographic data and three parts of written tasks. The respondents were required to write a dialogue, answer questions on their hobbies, and construct sentences using the words given. A total of 77 instances of similar sounding words were found. The results showed that similar sounding words strategy was mostly applied to retroflex, alveolar, affricate, fricative, plosive, aspirated and unaspirated sounds. Another one third of the data consisted of syllables which were formed based on the learners' understanding of the pronunciation. It was found that the strategy provides constructive help in getting the message across despite the inaccurate pronunciation. The findings also mirror the constructive learning attitude and aggressive struggle put in by the learners, and therefore, a positive strategy that should be encouraged.

Keywords: language learning, Similar Sounding Words Strategy, Mandarin, Malaysian learners

Introduction

Teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language debuted as early as 1950 in China, with the enrolment of 33 international students from European countries. Consequently, language centres were set up in various cities in China within the following 16 years in the objective to accommodate thousands of learners who came from more than 60 countries in the world. The worldwide enthusiasm of learning Mandarin as a second language became much greater in recent years as a result of massive economic development and open policy by the Chinese government in late 20th century.

In Malaysia, the teaching and learning of Mandarin as a foreign language at public universities started around 1970s. The classes at that point were conducted in a small scale by limited number of teachers. The number of higher institutions and private language centres which offer Mandarin classes, however, increases greatly in early 21st century. In 2013, for example, Mandarin is offered as a proficiency course in all 20 public universities in Malaysia. At University Technology MARA (UiTM), Malaysia, as an example, approximately eight thousand students enrol in Mandarin course every semester at the main campus alone. Most Mandarin as a second language courses today inherit the general objectives to equip learners with basic communication skill of the language. In Malaysia, a common feature of all Mandarin as a foreign language courses is the ethnicity of the students. A majority of them are Malay while relatively few others are Indian, aborigine, and of mixed ethnicity.

Nevertheless, learning a new language at a matured age is never an easy task, particularly if the linguistic and cultural features of a new language differ greatly from one’s daily language (Lado, 1957). Learners inevitably make mistakes due to insufficient knowledge and drills of the language at interlanguage stage. Regarding this, a general feature observed in foreign language classroom is the usage of communication strategies. As defined by Bialystok (1983), communication strategies are all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistics system in order to promote communication.

In this research, the researchers opted to investigate the use of one of the communication strategies by the learners, which is the “similar sounding word” strategy. According to Dörnyei and Scott (1997), this strategy refers to the use of an existing word which sounds similar to the intended one. Hence, the speaker compensates for a lexical item whose form he/she is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) that sounds more or less like the target item. By using “similar sounding word” strategy, a learner attempts to achieve the communication goal with insufficient knowledge. Compared with avoidance strategy that gives up the effort of communicating or passing across a message by either stopping the sentence, abandoning the message or switching to other topics, “similar sounding words” is counted as a type of achievement strategy which should be encouraged, if communication problem is encountered.

Review of Literature

There are many types of communication strategies identified by scholars throughout the years (Faérch & Kasper, 1984; Yule & Tarone, 1987), including interlingual strategies which outsource another language for remedy. These strategies include borrowing, lexical translation and foreignising. Intralingual strategies, on the other hand, attempt to resolve communication problems by using the same target language, by using approximation, word coinage, restructuring and appeals for assistance (Brown, 2000).

One major hurdle in acquiring a second language is the inadequacy of lexical items learnt. The learners may have also completely forgotten some words or are incapable of using some words confidently. Poulisse (1993) mentions that learners may resort to one of two main options in case of difficulties in lexical retrieval. They can either (1) abandon or change the original speech plan or (2) keep the macro-plan unchanged and modify the preverbal message only. These two options are parallel to the dichotomy of reduction and achievement behaviours by Færch and Kasper (1983), and both processes can be further broken down into different types of solutions. Ringbom (2006) further added that learners tend to avoid certain words because they may not feel at ease with those words.

Nemati and Taghizadeh (2013) claim that the properties and procedures enveloping the mother tongue directly apprise the ways of which the second is learnt. In the framework of learning vocabulary in a different language, the difficulties are further compounded by language systems that are so patently different from a learner's native language. For example, the Chinese writing systems are tremendously different from alphabets to a large extent in terms of correspondence between their symbols and their sound systems (Everson, 1988). Not only the written scripts, even the pronunciation of Chinese languages (including Mandarin, Cantonese, and other dialects) is dissimilar to other languages. Trying to find equivalence in the sound system, especially Mandarin and other languages from different language groups, is proven next to impossible.

Due to its irregular sound-to-symbol correspondence, Chinese orthography is not always easy to decipher when the learners try to link the symbol to its sound. Learners with alphabetic language background, in which sounds, and symbols are tightly correlated, would have to come up with approaches to learning Chinese writing, both in word recognition and production. Recent Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) studies have focused on the relationship between Chinese character recognition and production (Ke, 1996, 1998; Kuo et al., 2015; Lam et al., 2018; Lin, 2000).

One hypothesis suggests an "orthographic depth" strategy (Liberman, Liberman, Mattingly, & Shankweiler, 1980) of the Chinese writing system to predict the degree of learning difficulties to some extent. Some believe that the complexity of characters obstructs character recognition and production and finally the ultimate acquisition of characters (Hayes, 1987; Ke, 1996). Others recognise a strong correlation between being able to pronounce a word and being able to correctly identify its meaning (Everson, 1998; Yang, 2000).

In term of strategies in learning Mandarin, Sung (2012) attempted to examine the most recurrently used Chinese-character learning strategies and factors underlying those strategies, and the association between learners' strategy use and their language performance. Sung (2012) found seven most frequently used strategies, four of which were stroke-orthographic knowledge-based, while the remaining three were phonological-semantics knowledge-based.

McGinnis (1999) conducted a study among learners in an intensive nine-week programme, with the purpose of discovering the strategies used in their learning of Chinese characters. The result indicated that students used various strategies when it comes to learning characters. These strategies included rote repetition, creating idiosyncratic stories about how the characters looked or how they were pronounced, and using the character's semantic or phonetic information in the character's components. Nevertheless, the students did not favour the latter strategy: they preferred making up stories or memoriaing the characters by rote means.

In the other study, Ke (1998) also tried to investigate learners' strategies of Mandarin students at the beginner's level and found that learners value the use of character components in learning the characters. Nonetheless, Ke (1998) discovered that learners placed more value on learning the characters holistically through repeated writing of characters, especially practising characters in terms of the two-character compounds rather than practising characters individually.

Based on the problems and some previous research mentioned above, the issues of learners' strategies have yet to be explored comprehensively. Hence, this study was carried out to investigate the communication strategy used by Malaysian learners in foreign language classroom. Specifically, the study focuses on the usage of similar sounding words as a written communication strategy in learning Mandarin. Hence, all the data are in the form of words.

Methodology

This research used simple quantitative and descriptive method of data analysis. The respondents were second- and third-year Malaysian students who learn Mandarin as a foreign language at a public university. A total of 59 respondents participated in this study. There were five males and 52 females, aged around 20-22 years old. In terms of ethnicity, all of them were Malay except an Indian, a Kadazan, an Iban and two Chinese-Malay respondents. A majority of them acquired Malay language as their first language. Only five of them spoke English as their mother tongue, one spoke Tamil, and another spoke Iban language. In terms of daily language, a majority of them spoke Malay language, only one spoke Tamil, while 16 of them use English frequently in daily communication. A total of 44 participants were learning Mandarin at level two while 15 others at level three during this study. As there are 42 hours for each level, it can be assumed that all of them had at least 42 hours formal learning of Mandarin, and a quarter of them had learned at least 84 hours of Mandarin. This brief piece of information reveals that the participants were used to Malay or other languages for more than 20 years and their Mandarin proficiency was only at the beginning stage of about 42-84 hours.

In order to find out the communication strategies that participants might have used to overcome the inadequacy of language proficiency, a questionnaire was set as the instrument of the study. The questionnaire comprised four parts, namely, the participant's language information, and three parts of written tasks. The respondents were required to write a dialogue about daily activities, answer three open-ended questions regarding their hobbies, and construct six sentences using the words given. To ensure that the strategies are detectable, the participants were not allowed to erase but to strike through any word if they wanted to make changes. The participants were free to write in any form, such as Chinese character, *hanyu pinyin* (the Romanised written Chinese phoneme), punctuation, or even a mixture of different forms of word, if they had to.

Findings and Discussion

In this study, 16 types of communication strategies had been identified. Among some intralingual achievement communication strategies found were retrieval (68 instances), the use of all-purpose words (59 instances), approximation (58 instances), over-explicitness (51 instances), restructuring (8 instances), word coinage (2 instances) and circumlocution (2 instances). The frequencies were rather small for the latter three strategies probably due to the extra writing and language skills required which are beyond their ability. On the other hand, there were also a few interlingual communication strategies noted in the data, such as literal translation (47 instances) and code switching (36 instances). Out of these communication strategies, the strategy of using similar sounding words was found to be the third most popular strategy, placed after font switching from Chinese script to *Hanyu Pinyin* (365 instances) and self-repair strategy (198 instances). These two most popular strategies were easily noted due to the traces left behind by participants such as change of written scripts, scratched marks or strike though lines. Similar sounding strategy belonged to intralingual strategy as only the same language is used, of which in this case, Mandarin. A total of 77 instances were found.

From the analysis, the similar sounding words were noticed to linger around 14 types of words or sound elements (Table 1). These similar sounding words can actually be categorised into five major groups, namely, spelling (38 instancs), affricate-fricative (19 instances), finals (9 instances), homonym (6 instances), and plosive (5 instances).

From the written tasks, it was found that only six participants wrote purely using Chinese characters, others seemed to depend heavily on *hanyu pinyin*. There were 12 instances totally in *hanyu pinyin*, while majority (41 instances) are in a mixture of Chinese characters and *hanyu pinyin*.

The usage of similar sounding words strategy by learners was found to take place in three forms, firstly the morphological construction, secondly the phonetic construction and thirdly homonym. The results showed that about half of the strategies (38 instances) were bound to the morphological construction. These data looked like misspelt syllables or wrongly formed syllables which sounded close to the actual pronunciation. Another 38 instances were related to phonetic construction. The strategy of similar sounding words was mostly applied to some particular sounds only, namely, retroflex, alveolar, affricate, fricative, plosive, aspirated or non-aspirated sounds. It was mainly because the accurate sound cannot be confirmed by the learners.

Table 1
Grouping of similar sounding words

Category	Type of Similar Sounding Words	No.	Total
spelling	1. different spelling	30	38
	2. missing ending	3	
	3. extra ending	5	
affricate - fricative	4. unaspirated retroflex affricate *zh* and unaspirated alveolar affricate *z*	4	19
	5. aspirated retroflex affricate *ch* and aspirated alveolar affricate *c*	6	
	6. voiceless retroflex fricative *sh* and alveolar fricative *s*	1	
	7. retroflex affricate/ fricative *zh - ch - sh* and alveolar affricate/ fricative *z- c- s*	5	
	8. alveolo-palatal affricate *j-q* and alveolo-palatal fricative *x*	1	
	9. alveolo-palatal fricative *x* and alveolar fricative *s*	1	
	10. voiced retroflex fricative *r*	1	
plosive	11. unaspirated velar plosive *g* and aspirated velar plosive *k*	3	5
	12. unaspirated alveolar plosive *d* and aspirated alveolar plosive *t*	2	
finals	13． finals *i - e*	9	9
homonym	14. substitution with Chinese homonym	6	6
Total		77	

Morphological Construction in Spelling

From the results, it is found that similar but inaccurate spelling is most widely used among all types of similar sounding words strategy by the participants (38 instances). This particular type of similar sounding words applied to data which are written in *hanyu pinyin* only. The *hanyu pinyin* is spelt ambiguously based on the learners' understanding of the pronunciation. This similar but inaccurate spelling reflects the incomplete learning of the participants.

The similar spelling strategy takes place in a few ways of morphological construction. Basically, it involves consonant, vowel, or both consonant and vowel of a syllable. These similar sounds, especially when pronounced in a string of utterance as a sentence, may not be easily distinguished from the original sounds, unless the listener has a very sharp listening skill to catch the inaccurate pronunciation or the utterance is made too obvious that alerts the listener to the mistake.

The track of strategy, however, is very clear when the learners are asked to put the sound in writing. They have to spell out each alphabet and thus even minor difference such as “oa” or “ua” can be detected. Listed below are some examples of similar spelling strategy that involved consonant only. [Note: P: number of participant; T: Translation; ( ) correct spelling]

1)	P8 : *tia (xia) wu wo qu shi tang chi fan, ni ne?*	T: I will be going to the canteen for food in the afternoon. How about you?
2)	P31: *我的手机 kuai (huai)le.*	T: My mobile phone is out of function.
3)	P1: *Wo qu tu syu (shu)guan.*	T: I go to the library.

From these examples, it can be seen that similar sounding words were used because the participants were not sure of the exact pronunciation in Mandarin. The structure *kuai* exists in *hanyu pinyin* and thus looks normal even though it does not carry the intended meaning. On the contrary, the combinations *tia* and *syu* do not exist at all in *hanyu pinyin*. These structures clearly uncover the participants’ strategy in applying an ambiguous spelling to camouflage their uncertainty of the words.

More examples of similar spelling are found in certain vowels, especially *ao, ou, oa* as in the following examples.

4)	P36: *我 xi huan 吃 man tao(tou).*	T: I like to eat Chinese plain bun.
5)	P7: *wo xi huan chi man toa (tou).*	T: I like to eat Chinese plain bun.
6)	P51: *women duo (dou) qu ma?*	T: Are we all going?
7)	P57: *wo you (yao) chi mifan.*	T: I want to eat rice.
8)	P64: *wo yau (yao) qu yin hang qu qian.*	T: I want to go to the bank to withdraw some money.
9)	P7: *wang lao shi jioa (jiao)wo yue du ke*.	T: Teacher taught me reading.
10)	P1: 有空时，我喜欢做 *lui (lian) xi.*	T: During free time, I like to do some exercise.

The examples above highlight the fact that the morphological structure in similar sounding word strategy may vary from person to person. For *ou* sound, some participants may put a closer sound as *ao,* as in example (4) by P36, or *oa,* as in example (5) by P7, or *uo* in example (6). The *ao* sound is replaced by similar sound spelt as *ou* by P57, as in example (7), but as *au* by participant 64, as in example (8). Likewise, the same strategy applied for *iao* sound is spelt as *ioa* in example (9) by P7 and *ian* as *ui* in example (10) by P1.

From the examples, we can conclude that similar sounding word strategy in Mandarin share a common feature: they are noted to carry at least one vowel that is the same as the original sound. For example (4)-(7), *o* is found in both versions, either original or similar sound. The *o* in example (4)-(7), *a* in example (7)-(9), and *i* in example (9)-(10) are found in both original or similar sound versions. The shared vowel enables the words to sound similar.

Two other features that make the words similar to the original are addition or omission of *n* or *ng* at the end of vowels. In example (11) and (12) below, the ending of *pen and guan* is short of a *g*. On the contrary, the *pang* in example (12) is given an extra *g*. Both additional and shortage of alphabet are indicators of the participants' effort to get to the sounds required with their limited competency.

11) P7: *zhe shi wo <u>pen</u> (peng) you de shou ji*.	T: This is my <u>friend</u>'s handphone.
12) P59: *wo yao (you) yi bai zhang yin yue <u>guan</u> (guang) pang (pan).*	T: I have 100 musical <u>CD</u>.

Affricate and Fricative Sounds

In Mandarin, there are a few unique sounds that are too difficult to be differentiated by non-native speakers who come from different phonetic background. The affricate *zh, ch, z, c, j, q* and fricative *sh, s* and *x* in Mandarin are normally considered top in the list of problematic sounds to Mandarin learners. These few sounds are unique and do not have equivalence in the language systems such as English or Malay language.

In this study, the communication strategy of similar sounding words is related to affricate and fricative sounds, listed the second most common strategy by Mandarin learners. A total of 19 instances were found. Based on the similarity of sounds, these data can be divided into the following four groups as shown below.

i. retroflex affricate and alveolar affricate.

These two affricate sounds in Mandarin are easily mixed up by the learners due to the similarity of articulation process. The sounds involved are retroflex and alveolar. The simple way to explain the difference between the two is that retroflex sounds are pronounced with the tongue curled upwards and touching the hard palate while forcing the air out. On the other hand, alveolar sounds differ by letting the tongue lie flat instead.

In fact, based on the aspiration feature, there are two pairs of affricates. First, unaspirated retroflex affricate *zh* and unaspirated alveolar affricate *z*, and second, aspirated retroflex affricate *ch* and aspirated alveolar affricate *c.* The difference in retroflex and alveolar affricates only lies in the existence of *h* in written form. There is a *h* for retroflex affricate *zh* but no *h* for alveolar affricate *z*. In this research, the respondents were found to use the sound in the same pair as a communication strategy to present words which they were not sure of. In examples (13) and (16), the participants P20 and P60 used retroflex affricate in the place of alveolar affricate by adding an extra *h*, while it is the contrary for participant P62 in example (14) and participant P9 in example (15) who dropped the *h*.

13) P20 : *Ni de man tou zhen (zen) me yang? Hao chi?*	T : How is your Chinese plain bun? Is it delicious?
14) P62 : *这是我的家的 zao (zhao) pian.*	T : This is the picture of my family.
15) P9 : *你 xi huan ci (chi) 什么 ?*	T : What do you like to eat?
16) P60: *wo wu dian qu chao (cao) chang duan lian shen ti.*	T : I go to the field to exercise at 5 o'clock.

ii. retroflex fricative and alveolar fricative.

Some foreign language learners were found to have the tendency of using a sound which shares a common feature or belongs to the same phonetic category whenever they were unsure of the pronunciation. This psychology is applied by learners in Mandarin pronunciation not only to retroflex affricates *zh, ch* and alveolar affricates *z, c,* but also to retroflex fricative *sh* and alveolar fricative *s*. In example (17), participant P1 knew that she had to choose a fricative but her uncertainty of the word was revealed when she wrongly chose an alveolar fricative instead of retroflex fricative.

17) P1: *Wo zhi si (shi) di yi ke (ge) chi man tao (tou) eh.*	T: I only being the person to eat Chinese plain bun.

iii.retroflex affricate/fricative and alveolar affricate/fricative.

While learning the phonemes, the learners are introduced to affricate and fricative sounds in Mandarin consecutively in a row, that is *zh, ch, sh, r* and *z, c, s.* To many foreign language learners, these sounds are very much alike. It is, therefore, not surprising to find such similar sound words used as a substitution for one another in the data. The results showed that unaspirated affricate *zh, z, j* and aspirated affricate *ch, c, q* are found rather mixed up. Fricative *sh, s, x* are also found to be substituting one another. Even an aspirated retroflex affricate *ch* was found to be similar and was sometimes used instead of unaspirated alveolar affricate *z* or unaspirated retroflex affricate *zh,* as in examples (18) and (19). A retroflex fricative *r* was wrongly attached to final *e* by participant P1 in example (20). The usage of similar sounding words always ends up with errors in the learners' scripts but it shows the strategic effort that the learners put in to get the correct words. The participants were found to swap retroflex sound and alveolar sound as these two are the most alike compared to others such as plosive or palatal.

18) P2: *我要吃 bao <u>chi</u> (zi).*	T: I want to eat <u>bun</u>.
19) P41: *你 <u>chi</u> (zhi) <u>tao</u> (dao)汉语吗？*	T: Do you <u>know</u> Chinese language?
20) P1: *Wo er (e) le.*	T: I am hungry.

Though leaving behind a bad impression of the inaccurate pronunciation, the use of similar sounding words strategy is helpful most of the time because an alveolar affricate or fricative, which is easier to pronounce and common in the mother tongue, sounds similar to a retroflex affricate or fricative and always enable listeners to guess the meaning and get the message across. As long as the choice made in the communication strategy does not coincidently carry a diversified or far deviated meaning, similar sounding word strategy in the case of alveolar and retroflex is easy to apply and worth trying.

iv. alveolo-palatal affricate / fricative and alveolar fricative.

In Mandarin phonetic system, another group of problematic phonemes to beginners is alveolo-palatal which consists of unaspirated alveolo-palatal affricate *j*, aspirated alveolo-palatal affricate *q* and alveolo-palatal fricative *x.* To some learners, these alveolo-palatal sounds are so similar that they are not only hard to be differentiated among themselves but also sound like alveolar group which consists of unaspirated alveolar affricate *z*, aspirated alveolar affricate *c*, and alveolar fricative *s.* The communication strategy of using similar sounding words is evident in the interchangeable use within this alveolo-palatal group, as *j* and *q* in example (21), and also with alveolar set of sounds, such as *s* in example (22).

21) P25: *你是不是坐 <u>ji</u> (qi)车去？*	T: Are you going by <u>car</u>?
22) P1: *In (Yin) wei wo <u>si</u> (xi) huan man tao (tou).*	T: Because I <u>like</u> Chinese plain bun.

The rather frequent use of the similar sounding word in this particular group for affricate *zh, ch, z, c, j, q* and fricative *sh, s* and *x* can be explained. These sounds share a common feature especially friction during articulation. However, they are made different by other features especially location of tongue which thus form alveolar, alveolo-palatal or retroflex sounds. These different combined sets of features are further multiplied by adding another feature which is either aspirated or unaspirated. The learners are smart enough to identify these affricates and fricative sounds as a group which have similar pronunciation. In the examples of similar sounding words strategy, it is noticeable that affricate *zh, ch, z, c, j, q* and fricative *sh, s* and *x* are used randomly in replacing any sound that falls under this group.

Plosive Sound

Besides affricate and fricative, similar sounding word communication strategy is also applied to another consonant part, namely, plosive sound. There are three types of plosive sounds. First, unaspirated bilabial plosive *b* and aspirated bilabial plosive *p;* second, the unaspirated alveolar plosive *d* and aspirated alveolar plosive *t;* and third, unaspirated velar plosive *g* and aspirated velar plosive *k.* Bilabial plosive *b* and *p* are not found in the data collected in this study.

As compared to 19 instances for similar sounding words strategy related to affricate and fricative sounds, only five instances of similar sounding words strategy involved plosive sound. Other than example (19), another example of similar sounding word strategy related to plosive sound is given in example (23), of which the unaspirated velar plosive *g* is replaced by aspirated velar plosive *k.*

23) P1: *ni chi ji* <u>*ke*</u> *(ge)*? T : How many have you eaten?

Due to the common articulatory feature of these plosive sounds, the plosive sounds, either alveolar *d* and *t*, or velar *g* and *k*, or even bilabial *b* and *p*, are very similar. These pairs of plosive sounds are merely differentiated by the aspirated or unaspirated feature. In the eyes of learners, these aspirated or unaspirated sounds are somehow switchable and even replaceable. As the articulatory organs used are the same, the confusion and misunderstanding caused is less noticeable and not as serious as affricate and fricative sounds. However, as every initial and final differentiates and determines the meaning in tonal language, the plosive sounds, of course, should not be replaced by other plosive sounds.

In fact, the application of similar sounding words communication strategy is most likely influenced by the other languages acquired by the participants especially the mother tongue or English language. In Malay language, alveolar *t*, velar *k*, or bilabial *p* are pronounced unaspirated. Therefore, the unaspirated plosive is used in the place of aspirated plosive sounds in Mandarin. The usage of similar sounding words as a communication strategy also indicates the participants' awareness on the similarity of the phonetic features of plosive sounds.

Finals i-e

Most of the types in communication strategy of similar sounding word found in this study are concerning initials (consonants), such as plosive, fricative and affricate. Out of 77 instancs, there are only nine cases are related to finals, especially *i* and *e* sounds. These two finals are considered confusing to learners. For example, quite a number of learners could not differentiate *zhi* and *zhe, chi* and *che, ri* and *re*. To handle this problem, some learners opted for the communication strategy of similar sounding words with the hope that they might have a higher chance to get the correct sound. The three instances of such usage are shown in examples (24) to (26).

24) P3: *Wo* <u>*che*</u> *(chi) mian tiao he bao zi.* T : I <u>eat</u> noodle and bun.

25) P64: *Wo men zuo <u>chi</u> (che) qu yin hang.*	T : We take a car to the bank.
26) P41: *Wei shi (shen) me ni chi hen tuo(duo) man tao (tou)?*	T : Thanks for having meal with me.

Finals *i* and *e* are obviously misplaced in these three sentences. The participants spelt *chi* as *che*, *che* as *chi,* and *shen* as *shi.* Though all spellings are incorrect, the meaning can still be guessed based on the context and the similar sound of the syllable. The strategy is thus seen as a good attempt by the participants to get the correct spelling or convey the meaning.

Chinese Homonym Characters

As the research design focussed on the written aspect of communication strategy, this study investigated how the foreign language learners manipulated the Chinese characters to achieve their communicative purpose. In most cases (or 71 out of 77 cases), *hanyu pinyin* is used as an alternative to substitute Chinese characters that cannot be written by the participants. There are, however, 47 cases that involve the usage of Chinese characters, either totally or partially.

One of the unique features of Chinese characters is homonym. It refers to words that have similar pronunciation but carry different meanings. For example, 和, 合,何,河 are homonyms with the same pronunciation *hé* but the meaning are distinguished by the structure and component elements of the characters. There were as many as six participants who applied the communication strategy related to homonym. The usage of homonym is not frequent due to the requisite that the participants must have the knowledge of other Chinese characters which share the same phonetic features. Without any homonym in mind, it is impossible to apply this communication strategy. The usage of this unique written strategy can be explained based on examples (27) and (28).

27) P12: 你<u>合</u>（和）我 *yi qi* 去 *chaoshi,* 好吗？	T : Would you like to go <u>with</u> me to the supermarket?
28) P20: 你<u>习环</u> (喜欢) 吃什么？	T : What would you <u>like</u> to eat?

These two examples above, in fact, demonstrate two different methods applied in the same communication strategy of homonym. The former is based on a comprehensive similar sounding word strategy which involves the syllable and also the tone of the homonym. The latter covers only the aspect of syllable but not the tonal aspect of homonym. In example (27), participant 12 used 合, a homonym of 和, to represent the meaning “together with”. Both 合 and 和 not only share the same syllable, *he,* but also the tone, which is *hé.* Similarly, in example (28), participant 20 substituted 喜欢 with 习环. This example is obviously strategically applied because combination of 习 and 环 does not exist in Mandarin. The Chinese characters 习 and

环 are put together to represent the sound *xihuan*. However, 习环 does not carry the same tone as 喜欢. 喜欢 is pronounced as *xǐhuān* (third tone and first tone) while 习环 is pronounced as *xíhuán* (second tone and second tone). The created combination of 习 and 环 implies that the strategy is formed based on syllable alone. The issue of tone was not in the consideration of participant 20.

Despite the difference in syllable and tone, the homonym in the form of Chinese characters is somehow helpful in passing across the message to the readers. By using this communication strategy of similar sounding Chinese characters, the phonetic clue is enough to guide the readers to guess the correct word and the intended meaning based on the sound of the homonym. This communication strategy of homonym can be possibly applied to other languages that have homonym as in Mandarin.

Conclusion

Usage of similar sounding words strategy is indeed a smart choice by the learners. By giving a phonetic link for others to find the target words, it provides constructive help in getting the message across despite the inaccurate pronunciation. Compared with other communication strategies such as topic avoidance, message abandonment and omission, using communication strategy of similar sounding words reflects the positive learning attitude and aggressive effort put in by the learners. It is, therefore, a strategy that should be encouraged in times of need. The results of this study also highlight a crucial issue about the learning problems in Chinese phonetics for foreign language learners.

The overall findings indicate that the learners attempted to communicate but were unable to get the accurate pronunciation due to the incomplete learning of Mandarin. In this study, the problems encountered by the Mandarin learners are clearly related to the construction of syllable, plosive, finals, affricate and fricative, especially alveolo-palatal, velar and retroflex sounds. In other words, the learners normally cannot master the typical unique Mandarin pronunciation which is not found in the learners' long acquired pronunciation system. The results, however, to our relief, shows that the learners are aware of the grouping of sounds. They will not, for example, substitute *t* in the place of *sh*. The confusion is just within retroflex, velar or other similar sounds. Hence, more application in actual usage setting, or more drillings and exercises in classroom setting on these Chinese phonetic aspects in listening, speaking and reading are needed to increase the understanding and awareness of the learners to the usage and differences in phonetic systems. It has to be highlighted that the communication strategy of similar sounding words should not be seen as a failure of the learners but must instead be taken as an indicator for immediate remedial action and further improvement in foreign language teaching and learning.

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Acknowledgement

This research is funded by Universiti Putra Malaysia under the Putra Grant vote 9515500.

THE EFFECT OF LEARNING MATERIALS ON STUDENTS' LANGUAGE GAIN

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Manuscript received 20 November 2018
Manuscript accepted 23 May 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1280.2019

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effectiveness of the English programme for year one students, at Baish Community College (Males, BCCM), Jazan Community Colleges (Males, JCCM and Females, JCCF), College of Engineering (Males), and College of Design and Architecture (Females). Research tools were a programme evaluation form and two short placement tests to determine students' progress of learning English. Two placement tests were used: one at the beginning of the semester, and the other in the second half of the semester with a two-month gap. The average of all groups on the first placement test was 18.5 out of 50. ANOVA analysis showed no significant differences between group averages at $p > 0.05$ (p-value was 0.26). The level at the start is similar to all groups (homogeneous students). The second placement test showed a slight learning progress. The average of all groups was 21 out of 50, but with a high variation in percentages of gain amongst groups. Therefore, the second ANOVA analysis showed significant differences between the groups' averages at $p < 0.05$ (p-value was 0.0079). A third analysis was conducted on both tests to ensure further validity of the results; t-test for paired samples was used. All groups were positive except for Jazan Girls Community College which showed no progress at all.

Keywords: language gain, instructional materials, language programme

Introduction

In recent years, Jazan University founded a new polytechnic college in Baish Governorate, Jazan Region, Saudi Arabia. This college is called Baish Community College (BCC). Facilities and partnerships with bigger corporations, such as Saudi Electricity and Saudi Water Authorities, made decision makers at Jazan University think of generalising the experience of the BCC to all Jazan Colleges. Some of the changes done in BCC included: 1) three semesters for English while other colleges have only two; 2) 20 contact hours per week while other colleges have only 15; and 3) having English native speakers while other colleges have their majority of teachers as non-native English speakers.

The English Language Centre (ELC) (now English Language Institute ELI) decided to conduct several studies if such a "context" is to be generalised since Jazan University needed a huge budget to generalise this excellent "programme structure" to more than 25 colleges, where more than 18,000 students will be directly affected—positively or negatively. The current study is the first one in these series, where Baish Community Male College (BCCM) remains central. It is compared to two colleges of similar status, mainly Jazan Community College (Males, or JCCM) and Jazan Community College (Females, or JCCF), and two colleges of higher status, *viz*. Engineering (Males) and Architecture (Females). The instructional materials used at the BCCM match the admission language level of the students (post-beginners), whereas they (materials) are higher for the other four colleges. Therefore, the authors were highly interested to investigate the effect of the instructional materials on language gain. As pointed out by Larsen-Freeman and Long (2014), apart from studying effects of instructions on processes, "a further major question remains unresolved and in need of serious attention: How does instruction affect SLA?" (p. 536). It is the aim of this study to evaluate the English language programmes (specifically the instructional materials) offered at Jazan University across its colleges and obtain insights on its effects on students' language gain. Specifically, it will answer the following research questions:

1) Will the BCC students show language improvement better than the rest of other colleges since they have better facilities, as it is evident in the 'Programme Context'?
2) Is the progress, if any, for every college significant and tangible?
3) How can we direct future research for the English language programme at the ELC?

Review of Literature

Assessment versus Evaluation

Assessment is a fact-finding activity that describes conditions that exist at a particular time. No hypotheses are proposed or tested, no variable relationships are examined, and no recommendations for action are normally suggested. It is more or less related to exams. Normally it is directed to measure students' progress through various means and methods. Collins and O'Brien (2011, p. 42) commented that "assessment may affect decisions about grades, advancement, placement, instructional needs, and curriculum."

Evaluation, on the other hand, is concerned with the application of assessment findings. It implies some judgment of the effectiveness, social utility, or desirability of a product, process, or programme in terms of carefully defined and agreed-upon objectives or values. It may involve recommendations for action. Collins and O'Brien (2011) view evaluation as:

> The systematic investigation into the process or outcomes of the implementation of a particular educational programme, also synonymous with "programme evaluation": such investigations answer calls for accountability, assist in decision making, aid programme development and planning, and serve research. (p. 143)

They, later, narrow down the definition of programme evaluation to "[a] process in which academic programmes are appraised in terms of criteria chosen to judge effectiveness or the rate of efficiency (Collins & O'Brien, 2011, p. 143). However, according to Ahmed (2008), evaluation is not concerned with generalisations that may be extended to other settings. As Norris (2009, p. 7) puts it, "evaluation can contribute to understanding and improving language teaching practices and programmes". The current evaluation is not a full review of the language programmes investigated in this study. It is directed to one component of a language programme; that is, the effect of material selection on students' learning, and thus the effectiveness of the programme itself. Desheng and Varghese (2013) briefly write about the purpose of evaluation as determining the quality of a programme through judgment on its merits. There are also studies conducted on the need to evaluate the effectiveness of learning programmes (Alobaid, 2016; Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005; Kunnan, 2014). This introduction is for a broad understanding about the context of evaluation in language programme. Subsequently, the following paragraphs provide the general picture of what type of tests are considered in this study.

Criterion-referenced testing is widely understood to measure "knowledge, skill or ability in a specific domain" where performance is measured against certain "existing criterion level of performance" (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 370). On the other hand, norm-referenced testing is defined as tests where "the score of any individual is interpreted in relation to the scores of other individuals in the population" (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 373). The study adopted the criterion approach so as to objectively measure the true level of English for each college. However, the comparison among groups is obviously norm-referenced.

English Language Programmes at Jazan University

Jazan University attained its institutional accreditation early in 2018 and is planning for a wide-scale and comprehensive programme accreditation. Therefore, the reference of this study's programme evaluation must not be confused with the programme evaluation of Saudi National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) (Now it is replaced with the Education Evaluation Commission, EEC). This study is concerned with a specific component within a non-awarding certificate programme, whereas the latter focuses on details directly related to the academic and administrative domains for purposes of accreditation and the like. The NCAAA programme evaluation is a lengthy process. It starts with individual course reports, field studies, annual programme reports, and regular programme self-studies. The reader is advised to take this into consideration so as to differentiate this type of evaluation from the EEC/NCAAA evaluation. The general NCAAA standards are summarised below (NCAAA, 2015, pp. 27-28). This type of programme evaluation is based on a wider scale reporting on “the eleven specified standards and each of the sub-standards” (NCAAA, 2015, p. 30).

1) Mission and Objectives
2) Programme Administration
3) Learning and Teaching
4) Student Learning Outcomes
5) Student Administration and Support Services
6) Learning Resources
7) Facilities and Equipment
8) Financial Planning and Management
9) Employment Processes
10) Research
11) Relationships with the Community

Methodology

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative measures were used in order to answer the research questions. The instruments used in the study were an evaluation form and two placement tests.

Instruments

An evaluation form containing 25 descriptors was used to collect qualitative data for the five different language contexts at Baish Community College (Males, henceforth BCCM), Jazan Community Colleges (Males, henceforth JCCM and Females JCCF), College of Engineering (Males), and College of Design and Architecture (Females). This form contained the seven main areas related to the English programme from admission to practice through to final summative assessment as follows:

1) Intake and Placement
2) Materials
3) Curriculum
4) Assessment
5) Teaching and Learning Environment
6) Instructors
7) Programme Environment

These parameters were selected from the review of several references which focused generally on the success of language programmes, such as Weir and Roberts (1994) and Lynch (2003).

The second instrument was a placement test taken from Penguin Readers Placement Tests (Fowler, 2005) which is designed to place language learners according to their levels from A1 (level 1) to C2 (level 6) according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Verhelst, Van Avermaet, Takala, Figueras, & North, 2009). In this context we will refer to the learners' language proficiency by numbering (CEFR) language levels for direct correspondence with the CEFR coding. These levels should not be confused with the levels of the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE, 1998), where, for example, level 3 corresponds with the ALTE level 2 (but it exactly matches CEFR level B1).

The placement test is composed of two parts, each of which carries 25 items. The first part is a mixture of levels 1 and 2, whereas the difficulty of part 2 is based on level 3. Random items were selected from Penguin Readers Test. Conducting longer Placement Tests with large samples can greatly assist in recommending the level of admission or selection of the instructional (teaching) materials. However, for purposes of quick analysis, totals of both parts were taken collectively. Score interpretation is reported below, which applies to individual learners. For the purpose of analysis, the overall average score of each college is treated as an individual learner.

- If the score is less than 15, then the level is 1.
- If the score is less than 30, then the level is 2 (which is acceptable for community colleges)
- If the score is between 31 and 49, then the level is 3 (which is required for engineering colleges)
- If the score is 40 and above, then the instructional material for that group (college) should be replaced with a higher level.

The second placement test was a replication of the first test. A period of two months was the time gap between these two tests in order to allow learning to take place. The students who sat for the first test also sat for the second test so as to control the variable of language progress (gain). The placement tests were used to measure language learning progress by comparing the group means in the total test grades for the first and second tests.

Methods of Analysis

The methods of analysis consist of the following successive steps: 1) calculating the points for the language programme contexts; 2) running analysis of variance for each test results; and 3) conducting the t-test to measure the significance of the language learning gain. We hoped that these analyses collectively would provide insights on the role of the instructional materials in the effectiveness of language programmes. The instructional materials used in BCCM are matching the admission language level of the students, whereas they were higher for the other four colleges.

To answer the first research question (language gain measured via placement tests), ANOVA and t-tests were used along with the necessary descriptive statistics to ensure the validity of the conclusion (Randolph & Myers, 2013, p. 85). Soh (2016) seems not to advocate the use of ANOVA and t-tests in the educational context, unless certain assumptions are met. However, Soh (2016, p. 31) rightly reiterates that "ANOVA answers the question "Is there at least one significant difference among the … classes?" and the t-test answers the question "Which pair of classes has a significant difference?"'' (Emphasis in the original). Moreover, since the main tool of discrimination is a language test administered twice in five different environments/conditions (programme contexts), our hypotheses were statistically tested. Thus, we assumed in both situations that:

- Null Hypothesis (H_0): $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4 = \mu_5$
- Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4 \neq \mu_5$

μ = mean, and subscript numbers indicate colleges (treated as groups, since we have samples only from these colleges). The stages of analysis were as follows:

1) Analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) to test the significance of the difference between group means in the first placement test.
2) Analysis of variance to test the significance of differences between group means in the second placement test. Therefore, the second ANOVA analysis should lead to three possibilities:
   a) At least one (or more) group will score a higher average (than the rest), and therefore there will be a significant difference at alpha probability level of 5% ($p < 0.05$) so that differences in averages become meaningful.
   b) All groups score higher averages in the second placement test (than the first placement test) but they show no significant differences at $p < 0.05$. This means that there is an increase in learning among the five groups, and this leads to the question: Is this change in learning (the increase of language gain) significant for each group?
   c) One (or more) groups will show no progress so that its (their) second average remains (plus or minus) near its (their) first test average, and therefore there is no significant difference at p. < 0.05. If such a finding is obtained, then a dilemma is present and a wider scale study must be conducted to find causes and recommend solutions.
3) In order to look into these three scenarios above, and to test the difference for each group (independently), placement test scores were examined using the t-test for paired groups (matched-pair t-test). Thus, error types I and II are eliminated. Everitt (2006, p. 414) defines type I error as "the error that results when the null hypothesis is falsely rejected'', and type II error as "the error that results when the null hypothesis is falsely accepted". For further explanations with examples see, Jupp (2004, p. 307) and Woods, Fletcher,

and Hughes (1986, pp. 115-7). See Appendix 1 for explanation of statistical analyses.

Results

Language Context of Five Colleges based on Programme Evaluation Scores

The major areas consisted of several descriptors each of which was rated on a scale of four points. The highest possible "Programme Context" score is 100 points, which is the multiplication of the highest score of a descriptor (4) by the total number of descriptors in the evaluation form (25). A descriptor would be rated 4 if it fully fulfilled the actual indication of the descriptor and would be rated 1 if it only met the least requirements. This form, admittedly, was neither comprehensive nor was it completely objective; it was merely a logical subjective evaluation. It remained, however, practical for the purpose of abstracting the language programme for each college, and to assign a qualitative weight for each programme. The descriptors were related to the language programme itself, but not to the type of learners, though.

It is evident that the BCCM was, and is still, well catered for and well equipped (refer to Table 1). Other programmes needed some slight improvements. The major difference was the instructional material because it matched the level of the students at the BCCM, whereas it was higher in the rest of the colleges. One may rightly point to another difference which was the class streaming according to the admission placement test but this is not practical for the BCCM since all students at that college study the same instructional material. The instructional materials adopted for each college during the conduct of this study is presented in Table 2.

Table 1
Results of the five language programmes, Jazan University

Criterion and its Descriptors	BCCM	ENGNG	DESIGN	JCCM	JCCF
Intake and Placement					
A. Admission Policy	4	3	3	3	3
B. Classes streamed based on Placement Testing	4	1	1	1	1
Materials					
A. Technology (smart boards, overhead projectors, etc)	4	4	3	3	2
B. Internet accessibility 24hours	4	4	2	3	2
C. Standardised tests	4	2	2	2	2
D. Supplementary material	4	2	2	1	1
E. All materials graded to students' level	4	1	1	1	1

Curriculum					
A. Number of contact hours per week	3	3	3	3	3
B. Specified outcomes	4	4	4	4	4
C. Comprehensive approach to teaching all skills	4	4	4	4	4
D. Daily Homework	4	4	4	3	3
Assessment					
A. Frequency of standardised quizzes	4	3	2	2	2
B. Varied Assessments	4	4	4	4	4
C. Student surveys	4	4	4	4	4
D. Student Interviews	4	2	2	2	2
Teaching and Learning Environment					
A. Teacher to Student ratio	4	3	2	2	2
B. Classroom management policy	4	4	4	4	4
C. Student-centreed, not lecture style	4	3	3	2	2
D. Classroom environment standardization	4	3	3	2	2
E. Class size	4	3	2	2	2
Instructors					
A. Native English speakers	4	2	2	2	2
B. Experienced qualified teachers	4	4	4	3	3
C. Ongoing professional development	4	4	4	4	4
Programme Environment					
A. Quality Assurance system in place	4	4	4	4	4
B. Disciplinary and Absence policies	4	4	4	4	4
Total	99	79	73	67	65

Table 2

Textbooks adopted for Year One, semester one

COLLEGE	Hours/ semester	INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS	CEFR LEVEL
BCCM	300	• The New Headway Beginner (2006) • Supplementary material, too	A1
JCCF JCCM	225	• The New Headway Plus Pre-Intermediate (2010)	A2

DESIGN ENGINEE-RING	• Access Interactions, Diamond Edition: Reading and Writing (2009) • Access Interactions, Diamond Edition: Listening and Speaking (2009) • Basic English Grammar, Third Edition, (2006)	A2+

One should note that not all units of these students' books are covered due to the limited amount of contact hours per week, except for the BCCM. A year later of conducting this study, the instructional materials were replaced with more appropriate textbooks, but with one more level above. Contact hours were increased, too.

Language Progress based on Results of First and Second Placement Tests

The ANOVA results for the first placement test in Tables 3 and 4 show that the averages of the colleges are almost identical for the first test. This is an advantage for the second ANOVA in examining the hypotheses of this study. The level "starting" point is identical to the running start line.

Table 3
Summary of ANOVA single factor (test one) for first placement test

	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
BCCM	17	310	18.24	59.19		
JCCF	25	438	17.52	8.51		
JCCM	32	557	17.41	38.31		
DESIGN	20	413	20.65	39.19		
Engineering	27	525	19.44	30.95		
Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F-ratio	P-value	F critical Value
Between Groups	179.85	4	44.96	1.34	0.26	2.45
Within Groups	3888.23	116	33.52			
Total	4068.08	120				

The following conclusions were drawn from the first ANOVA analysis.

1) The Null Hypothesis is not rejected, which states that there are no significant differences among the averages of the five groups at $p<0.05$ (F 4, 116 = 1.34, $p = 0.26$). We can be sure 95% that the minor differences are due to chance. Note that the F-critical value is 2.45, which is higher than 1.34, i.e. the F-ratio.
2) Variance within groups is accepted because they are not grouped according to a pre-set criterion, e.g. placement test. They were selected randomly with varied language levels. Only JCCF shows a small variance.
3) All groups scored lower than the expected level, which we set to be 25 out of 50.

4) The limitation of this test, though reliable, is the small size of the samples.
5) Since ANOVA is designed to examine the significance of differences within and between groups, there remain some data hidden. Therefore, further descriptive statistical analyses were conducted for each group separately. Summaries are tabulated in the following section.

The conclusion for the first ANOVA is that there are no major differences in group averages, and therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. Majority of the students in these colleges almost have similar language levels. They are at the beginning of level 2 (A2) on the Scale of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

In order to find the true meaning of the means of these groups, we performed some basic descriptive analysis. The conclusions were as follows:

1) All groups were positively skewed to the right, where a majority of the observations laid in the first half of the normal distribution. This means that the majority scored below the average in general.
2) No major differences were observed between the means, modes, and the medians. In addition to this, their standard errors were small, which indicates that these samples can be true representatives of their populations (Hinton, 2004).

Table 4

Placement test one: Results summary for first placement test

	BCCM	JCCF	JCCM	Design	Engineering
Mean	18.24	17.52	17.41	20.65	19.44
Standard Error	1.87	0.58	1.09	1.40	1.07
Median	17	17	16	19.5	18
Mode	18	17	14	19	17
Standard Deviation	7.69	2.92	6.19	6.26	5.56
Sample Variance	59.19	8.51	38.31	39.19	30.95
Skewness	3.17	1.28	1.68	1.85	1.35
Range	37	12	30	26	27
Minimum	9	14	10	14	10
Maximum	46	26	40	40	37
Confidence Level (95%)	3.96	1.20	2.23	2.93	2.20

The confidence limits can easily be affected by single extreme results (Peers, 2006). Therefore, we looked into the interquartile range (IQR) which should clearly show the true range because the medians are not influenced by extreme cases. The Interquartile Range for all groups is given in the table below. The first quartile (Q1) is the first 25% of the sample who scored below the Q1 value, whereas the third quartile (Q3) is the upper 25% who scored above the Q3 value. Table 5 shows that the true range is not high.

Table 5
IQR for first placement test

	1st Quartile (Q1)	3rd Quartile (Q3)	IQR
BCCM	16	18	2
JCCF	15	18	3
JCCM	13.75	20	6.25
DESIGN	16.75	22	5.25
Engineering	16	21	5

Though the first ANOVA analysis for the second placement test results showed identical language levels for the students during admission, certainly there are variations within the students' individual abilities. Because we were interested to measure students' means, a second language test (of the same difficulty as the first one) was administered to the same groups, with a time gap of two months: 120 contact hours for the BCCM and 90 contact hours for the rest of the colleges.

Table 6
Summary of ANOVA single factor (second placement test)

	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
BCCM	11	238	21.64	96.46		
JCCF	19	317	16.68	9.23		
JCCM	24	485	20.21	40.61		
DESIGN	20	489	24.45	56.47		
Engineering	21	424	20.19	27.86		
Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F-ratio	P-value	F critical value
Between Groups	606.63	4	151.66	3.69	0.0079	2.47
Within Groups	3694.80	90	41.05			
Total	4301.43	94				

The first conclusion is that the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis, which states that there is a significant difference among the averages of the five groups at $p > 0.05$ (F 4, 90 = 3.69, $p = 0.0079$). Because the p-value is so small, we conducted ANOVA at 0.01% level, and it proved to be less than 0.01% (with slight increase for the F-critical value but remained smaller than the F-ratio). Therefore, we can be sure 99% that the differences between these averages are not due to chance, and that they are meaningful.

But the question is: Are these differences due to teaching or individual hard work and self-study? Many latent factors appear to play a role, yet the instructional materials have an influence. The colleges that have instructional materials higher than the students' level showed some progress, except for JCCF which requires further investigation.

Though there was an increase of language learning among all colleges, it was small and less than expected. Follow-up analyses would show that some colleges made better progress than others, and yet the same colleges showed variation among individuals. The question is: Why some students benefitted from the English programme better than their classmates? One may argue that it is due to individual differences (as one factor amongst many) (Dörnyei, 2005; Dornyei & Ryan, 2015). This is noted to be a possible gap that could be addressed in the future.

Descriptive analysis was conducted after the second ANOVA test**.** The high confidence level of BCCM is due to the high range (two extreme cases) combined with the small number of the sample. Therefore, their true average lies between 17.5 and 22.5 (see the IQR, Table 8). High confidence levels may render the conclusions unreliable. The use of the IQR will solve the issue of reliability of conclusions as it will be evident in the argument.

Table 7
Summary of second placement test

	BCCM	JCCF	JCCM	DESIGN	Engg
Mean	21.64	16.68	21.61	24.45	20.19
Standard Error	2.96	0.70	1.56	1.6803	1.15
Median	19	17	20	22	19
Mode	17	18	18	16	14
Standard Deviation	9.82	3.04	6.62	7.52	5.28
Sample Variance	96.46	9.23	43.78	56.47	27.86
Skewness	2.41	-0.75	2.42	0.73	0.50
Range	39	12	30	24	18
Minimum	10	9	14	16	13
Maximum	49	21	44	40	31
Confidence Level (95%)	6.60	1.46	3.30	3.52	2.40

The language ability, according to these results, of the College of Design and Architecture was better than the rest of the colleges. The JCCM showed a good percentage of progress, when compared to the BCCM, despite the fact that they had less contact hours and under-rated programme evaluation points. In short, averages of all groups showed slight improvement, except for JCCF which showed a slight decline. We would not assume that it was due to the curve of language learning, where a learner goes back at one stage, and then moves up but at a higher stage than the first point of the curve until at one stage learning becomes stable, and the curve goes up steadily. Such a process is technically known as restructuring. Restructuring, in brief, “involves knowledge changes that can be large or small, abrupt or gradual, but always qualitative and related to development or progress” (Ortega, 2014, pp. 117-118).

Table 8
Interquartile Range (IQR) for second placement test

	1st Quartile	3rd Quartile	IQR
BCCM	17.5	22.5	5
JCCF	14.5	16.5	4
JCCM	18	23.75	5.75
DESIGN	19	29.5	10.5
Engineering	16	24	8

Matched-pairs t-test was used to compare the increase, if any, for each group. Summary of the results are shown in Table 9. The hypothesised mean difference for all groups is 1 (one). The assumption was that there should be an increase of learning English between the first placement test and the second one. The time lapse between the two tests was almost two months. However, if we are assuming to examine whether there is a difference or not, then the hypothesised mean difference would be 0 (zero).

Table 9
Summary of the t-test statistics for second placement test

	BCCM	JCCF	JCCM	DESIGN	Engineering
Observations	10	19	18	20	21
Pearson Correlation	0.84	-0.27	0.83	0.63	0.77
Degrees of freedom	9	18	17	19	20
t Statistics	-2.27	0.14	-6.32	-3.55	-2.31
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.025	0.445	0.000	0.001	0.016
t Critical one-tail	1.833	1.734	1.739	1.729	1.725
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.049	0.891	0.000	0.002	0.032
t Critical two-tail	2.262	2.101	2.110	2.093	2.086

First, the p-value is less than 5% for all colleges, except for JCCF. Though it remains small (less than 9%), the small negative correlation means that there is no progress at all (in fact a decline). Second, the correlations are quite significant for colleges of BCCM, Engineering and JCCF but slightly significant for Design, though they scored better than the rest. Percentage of progress based on mean difference is given in Table 10.

Table 10
Percentage increase of learning progress during a two-month period between first and second placement tests

	Test 1	Test 2	% increase
BCCM	18.24	21.9	20.1%
JCCF	17.52	16.68	- 4.8%
JCCM	17.41	21.61	24.1%
DESIGN	20.65	24.45	18.4%
Engineering	19.44	20.19	3.9%

Implications and Conclusions

Admittedly, the drawback of this study is that it tested directly grammar and vocabulary as the underlying skills. Other skills were not directly tested, such as speaking and writing. But it was fair to a higher degree because all the five groups received the same treatment. Though all colleges showed some progress, we expected the BCCM to show a higher percentage of progress due to the structure of the programme and the higher contact hours: 120 vs 90 accompanied with some supplementary material (results of the matched-pair t-test). We attributed the language progress of other colleges to the higher level of materials adopted. Instructional materials were about “half a level” higher. However, if the instructional materials are “one full level” higher, they may have a negative effect as it was the case with JCCF. These conclusions are to some extent based on the second ANOVA results which rejected the null hypothesis $p > 5$ (F 4, 90 = 3.69, $p = 0.0079$).

Placement tests can be used to determine the level of the students at the time of admission, and accordingly colleges may assign materials which are slightly higher than the test outcomes along with extra contact hours. In other words, a language policy must be reinforced upon which the selection of instructional materials and assessment are based.

The study shows a need for further investigation on the role of instructional materials on language progress. A similar study with a standardised test of 100 question items divided evenly between levels of post-elementary (A2), pre-intermediate (B1) and intermediate (B2), can be administered on four groups from different colleges, of which two groups will be treated as controlled groups and will receive instructions higher than their level. Students can be chosen from year three where they have no English classes at this level, except that of the experiment.

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Appendix 1. Explanation of statistical analyses

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA One Way Single Factor)
ANOVA essentially compares the amount of variation between groups (normally more than two groups) with the amount of variation within groups. If the average difference between groups is similar to that within groups, then the F ratio is about 1. Interpretation is as follows (Coolican, 2014; Hinton, 2004).

- First, as the average difference between groups becomes greater than that within groups, the F-ratio becomes larger than 1, and therefore should be larger than the F-critical value. If the F-critical value is higher than the F-ratio, the null hypothesis is not rejected.
- Secondly, if there is a significant difference among groups, then the P-value becomes smaller than that of the set p-value (which is defined in this study to be < 5%). In other words, the alternative hypothesis is accepted if the p-value is less than 0.05.

T-Test for Paired Groups
A matched-pair t-test (single factor) is defined by the Cambridge Dictionary of Statistics (Everitt, 2006, pp. 250-251) as:

> A Student's t-test for the equality of the means of two populations, when the observations arise as paired samples. The test is based on the differences between the observations of the matched pairs. The test statistic is given by
>
> $$t = \frac{d}{sd\sqrt{n}}$$
>
> where *n* is the sample size, *d* is the mean of the differences, and *sd* is their standard deviation.

To sum up: a *p*-value is used in hypothesis testing to help in supporting or rejecting the null hypothesis. Here we are examining the significance of the difference between means for each group separately, that is the difference between the first scores and the second scores where:

- Null Hypothesis (H_0): $\mu_1 = \mu_2$
- Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

The interpretation of p-value of the t-critical value (in the t-test) is similar to the f-critical value of ANOVA, since the latter is essentially a combination of t-tests (Randolph & Myers, 2013, p. 133).

- A small p (≤ 0.05) will reject the null hypothesis. This is strong evidence that the null hypothesis is invalid. It means some learning progress is observed.
- A large p (> 0.05) means that the alternative hypothesis is weak, so the null hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, learning did not take place.

UJARAN SALING MEMAHAMI DALAM FILEM NORDIN AHMAD

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Manuscript received 18 Mar 2019
Manuscript accepted 19 May 2019
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https://doi.org/10.33736/ils.1351.2019

ABSTRAK

Ujaran saling memahami merupakan hubungan dua hala antara penutur dengan pendengar yang memperlihatkan ujaran penutur dalam menyatakan sesuatu dapat difahami oleh pendengar walaupun ujaran tersebut mengandungi pelbagai bentuk bahasa. Dalam penyelidikan ini, objektif yang terdapat penyelidikan ini ialah menganalisis ujaran saling memahami menggunakan pendekatan pragmatik. Data penyelidikan diperoleh daripada empat buah filem Melayu klasik, iaitu filem Semerah Padi (1956), filem Hang Jebat (1961), filem Seri Mersing (1961) dan filem Lancang Kuning (1962). Hasil penyelidikan ini mendapati, untuk mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami unsur lakuan bahasa dan bentuk bahasa berperanan dalam membantu pendengar memahami ujaran penutur. Bahasa yang melatari sesuatu ujaran dapat diinterpretasi makna sebenarnya berdasarkan kognitif seseorang, faktor lakuan bahasa dan pengetahuan ilmu yang maksimum. Penggunaan teori pragmatik dalam penyelidikan ini ialah Teori Relevans (Sperber & Wilson, 1986) dan Teori Lakuan Bahasa (Searle, 1969) dilihat amat berwibawa dalam merungkai makna hajat komunikatif penutur, diinterpretasi dan difahami oleh pendengar dan seterusnya mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami.

Kata kunci: Ujaran saling memahami, filem Melayu, lakuan bahasa, teori relevans, pragmatik

MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING IN NORDIN AHMAD'S FILMS

ABSTRACT

Mutual understanding is a two-way relationship between the speaker and the listener in that the speaker's utterance in saying something can be understood by the listeners even though the utterances contain various forms of language. This research aimed to analyse the utterances of mutual understanding using a pragmatic approach. The data were obtained from four classic Malay films, Semerah Padi (1956), Hang Jebat (1961), Seri Mersing (1961) and Lancang Kuning (1962). This analysis showed that to establish a mutual understanding, the elements of language and the form of language plays a role in helping listeners understand the utterance of speakers. The true meaning of the utterances can be interpreted based on cognition, the linguistic factor and the maximum knowledge. The use of pragmatic theory, the Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson, 1986) and Speech Acts Theory (Searle, 1969) are seen to be very authoritative in decoding the communicative intentions of speakers, interpreted and understood by the listeners, thus establishing mutual understanding.

Keywords: *Mutual Understanding, Malay films, speech acts, relevance theory, pragmatics*

Pengenalan

Ujaran merupakan bahasa yang digunakan oleh penutur semasa berinteraksi. Yus (2003) mengatakan bahawa ujaran adalah suatu tindakan yang disertakan dalam ujaran yang lebih khusus, misalnya permintaan maaf, keluhan, pujian, undangan, janji, atau permohonan. Sesuatu ujaran, penutur biasanya berharap maksud komunikatifnya akan difahami oleh pendengar/lawan tutur. Huang (2015) pula mengatakan bahawa ujaran ialah penggunaan satu bentuk bahasa baik kata, perkataan, frasa, ayat atau jujukan ayat oleh seseorang penutur semasa sesuatu peristiwa. Dalam mengungkapkan sesuatu ujaran, tujuan ujaran merupakan salah satu aspek yang harus hadir dalam sesuatu ujaran kerana tujuan ujaran tersebut adalah untuk mencapai suatu hasil yang dikehendaki oleh penutur.

Ujaran saling memahami merupakan ujaran dua hala antara penutur dengan pendengar di mana hajat komunikatif penutur dapat difahami oleh pendengar, walaupun ujaran tersebut mengandungi maklumat linguistik seperti bahasa kiasan, implikatur dan eksplikatur. Spencer-Oatey (2011) mengatakan bahawa ujaran saling memahami ialah bahagian memproses hal yang paling utama, iaitu mengambil alih dalam penerimaan maklumat linguistik. Proses-proses ini mempunyai hubungan yang kompleks dan berbeza dengan anggapan darjah kesedaran dan kawalan. Sesetengah jenis ujaran yang diterima adalah berbeza darjah kesedarannya, iaitu penerimaan secara automatik dan secara automatik tanpa sedar dan di bawah kawalan. Dengan kata yang lebih mudah, ujaran saling memahami ini ialah ujaran yang mengandungi proses-proses yang menghubungkan penerimaan maklumat yang sedia ada dan penerimaan maklumat baharu dalam konteks yang bermakna (Spencer-Oatey, 2010).

Aspek kejelasan penyampaian sesuatu ujaran yang dihasilkan oleh penutur kepada pendengar perlulah relevan supaya pendengar memahami makna ujaran yang ingin disampaikan. Blakemore (2002) mengatakan bahawa interpretasi ujaran bergantung pada keupayaan pendengar membekalkan tanggapan tentang budaya, kepercayaan, keagamaan, peraturan dan emosi penutur. Walau bagaimanapun, sesuatu ujaran itu sendiri tidak semestinya bersifat eksplisit semata-mata, ujaran bersifat implisit juga banyak digunakan semasa berkomunikasi. Menurut Thomas (1995), ujaran yang diucapkan oleh seseorang penutur itu tidak semestinya mengandungi maksud seperti yang diucapkan (literal or abstract meaning) tetapi kadang-kadang menjangkau kepada makna mengikut konteks (utterances meaning). Grice (1978) pula mengatakan bahawa interpretasi ujaran secara umumnya, dibezakan maksud penutur kepada apa yang diujarkan dan apa-apa yang sebenarnya dimaksudkan (what is said and what is implicated). Dalam hal ini, penentuan makna ujaran amat bergantung pada penggunaannya mengikut konteks kerana konteks wujud dengan kepelbagaian kemungkinan pengertian menurut setiap perspektifnya.

Keberkesanan sesuatu ujaran adalah bergantung pada bentuk linguistik yang digunakan atau disampaikan oleh penutur kepada pendengar. Jika ujaran yang diujarkan tidak difahami oleh pendengar, maklumat atau informasi yang hendak disampaikan tidak berjaya. Perkara ini akan menyebabkan ketidakfahaman atau salah faham yang menyebabkan komunikasi tergendala dan seterusnya menggagalkan komunikasi. Kaur (2010) mengatakan bahawa terdapatnya perbezaan antara "salah faham" dengan "ketidakfahaman", iaitu "salah faham" terjadi apabila pendengar menginterpretasi ujaran atau perkataan dengan makna literal yang ada pada perkataan atau ujaran dan bukannya tujuan atau maksud yang hendak disampaikan oleh penutur, sedangkan "ketidakfahaman" berlaku apabila pendengar gagal untuk memahami makna ujaran atau perkataan.

Hubungan resiprokal saling memahami amat bergantung pada ujaran. Jika ujaran yang diujarkan mengandungi pelbagai leksikal atau makna yang kabur, perkara ini akan memberikan keraguan kepada pendengar untuk memahami leksikal dan seterusnya menyebabkan hubungan saling memahami gagal. Walau bagaimanapun, ujaran berimplikatur sering kali diujarkan oleh penutur disebabkan untuk menjaga maruah seseorang atau untuk menyatakan sesuatu secara tidak langsung, namun ujaran tersebut dapat difahami sekiranya pendengar memahami konteks dan kesan kognisi untuk menginterpretasi ujaran tersebut. Oleh itu, untuk memahami ujaran tersebut, pendengar harus memahami konteks dan memperoleh maklumat yang maksimum semasa berkomunikasi.

Permasalahan Kajian

Sesuatu komunikasi mempunyai pelbagai tujuan antaranya untuk menyatakan hasrat, menyampaikan maklumat dan memberikan informasi. Komunikasi amat bergantung pada kejelasan leksikal, makna, konteks dan maklumat yang mencukupi. Sesuatu komunikasi akan gagal sekiranya penutur tidak dapat memberikan maklumat yang diperlukan oleh pendengar. Hal ini berdasarkan kenyataan daripada Ishamina Athirah (2015) dan Mustafa Atan (2010) yang mengatakan bahawa sesuatu komunikasi akan berjaya sekiranya penutur memberikan maklumat yang tepat, jelas dan berbaloi untuk diproses. Bertitik tolak daripada kenyataan ini, masalah yang timbul dalam penyelidikan ini ialah ujaran saling memahami tidak akan berjaya dicapai sekiranya penutur gagal memberikan maklumat yang tepat, jelas dan berbaloi untuk diproses oleh pendengar, dan pendengar gagal untuk memahami maklumat yang disampaikan.

Selain faktor kognitif, faktor kerelevanan dan kesesuaian leksikal yang digunakan dalam ujaran juga merupakan faktor untuk mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami. Mohd. Shahrizal Nasir (2015) dan Johnson (2012) mengatakan bahawa dalam sesuatu ujaran kosa kata, leksikal, paralinguistik merupakan elemen yang penting dalam menentukan keberkesanan sesuatu komunikasi. Penggunaan kosa kata dan leksikal yang tidak relevan dalam ujaran akan mengakibatkan pendengar memproses maklumat yang salah dan seterusnya menggagalkan komunikasi. Senada dengan itu, masalah yang timbul dalam penyelidikan ini ialah penggunaan kosa kata, leksikal dan paralinguistik dalam ujaran oleh penutur memberikan kesan yang berbeza kepada pendengar sama ada pendengar memahami maksud yang hendak disampaikan atau sebaliknya. Penggunaan kosan kata yang tepat dan relevan dalam ujaran akan memudahkan pendengar memahami dan memproses menjadi maklumat dan seterusnya mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami.

Berdasarkan penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh Ishamina Athirah (2015), Mohd. Shahrizal Nasir (2015), Johnson (2012) dan Thije (2003) berkisar tentang ujaran dan faktor komunikasi saling tidak memahami berlaku. Penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh sarjana ini terdapat kelompangan. Oleh hal yang demikian, penyelidikan ini adalah untuk mengisi kelompangan itu dari sudut ujaran saling memahami. Bertitik tolak daripada penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh Ishamina Athirah (2015) komunikasi antarabangsa tidak akan berjaya sekiranya mengandungi ujaran salah faham atau tidak saling memamhami. Penyelidikan oleh Ishamina Athirah (2015) disokong oleh Johnson (2012) yang mengatakan komunikasi tidak akan berjaya jika komunikator saling tidak memahami. Oleh yang demikian, masalah yang hendak dikaji dalam penyelidikan ini ialah ujaran kurang memahami atau salah faham (misunderstanding) menyebabkan ujaran tersebut tidak difahami dan komunikasi yang berlangsung gagal.

Mustafa Atan (2010) menjalankan penyelidikan yang bertajuk “Implikatur dalam Ujaran Watak dalam Filem Seniman Agung P. Ramlee” mendapati bahawa masyarakat Melayu menggunakan pelbagai bentuk bahasa dalam ujaran-ujaran yang bertujuan untuk menyampaikan mesej atau maksud seperti penyataan yang berlebihan, bahasa sindiran, bahasa kiasan, metafora dan ketidaksesuaian masyarakat konteks. Penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh sarjana ini memberi ilham kepada penyelidik untuk menyelidik fenomena bahasa dalam filem. Oleh hal yang demikian, penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh sarjana ini mempunyai kelompangan, iaitu dari sudut ujaran. Bertitik tolak daripada kelompangan inilah penyelidik ingin mengisi kekurangan yang terdapat pada penyelidikan terdahulu. Oleh itu, masalah yang hendak dikaji ialah bidang perfileman sesuai dijadikan bahan kajian seperti yang dijalankan oleh Mustafa Atan (2010), namun penyelidikan dari sudut ujaran saling memahami dalam filem Melayu perlu diteroka dengan meluas.

Sorotan Kajian

Kajian yang dijalankan oleh Nor Afiqah Wan Mansor dan Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin (2016) yang bertajuk "Makna Implisit Bahasa Kiasan Melayu: Mempertalikan Komunikasi, Kognisi dan Semantik" mendapati bahawa ketersiratan makna masam, manis, masin dan pahit serta makna yang berasosiasi dengan rasa juga dapat dicungkil dan dikaitkan dengan akal budi penuturnya. Kajian ini merupakan kajian semantik dan akal budi Melayu yang menyelidik mengenai deria rasa masam, masin, manis dan pahit dalam kiasan Melayu. Kajian ini menghuraikan makna implisit dan makna implisit kompleks bahasa kiasan khususnya peribahasa dan kaitannya dengan akal budi Melayu. Kajian berbentuk kualitatif ini mengaplikasikan teori semantik dengan kaedah inkuisitif yang menggabungkan data, teori, kognitif dan falsafah sehingga membawa kepada tafsiran akal budi Melayu. Kaedah inkuisitif dilakukan bagi mencungkil makna sebenar yang ingin disampaikan. Hasil kajian juga mendapati kiasan Melayu mempunyai kaitan yang rapat dengan budaya dan akal budi Melayu. Pengkategorian mengikut medan makna juga membuktikan bahasa kiasan berunsurkan deria rasa tidak hanya memperlihatkan makna teras rasa, malah juga mendukung makna pinggiran lain.

Juma'a Qadir Hussein dan Imran Ho Abdullah (2016) menjalankan penyelidikan yang bertajuk *"The Role of Cognitive Context in The Interpretation of Riddles: A Relevance Theory Perspective*" adalah untuk mengenal pasti peranan kesan konteks/kognisi dalam menginterpretasi makna teka-teki dalam kerangka TR. Dalam penyelidikan ini, beliau memfokuskan atau mengehadkan pada satu jenis teka-teki, iaitu teka-teki metafora yang dipilih daripada buku "The Language of Riddles" oleh Pepicello dan Green (1984). Berdasarkan dapatan yang diperoleh, teka-teki yang diberi dapat dijawab oleh pendengar dengan menggunakan TR. Hal ini kerana dengan adanya konteks dan kesan konteks yang terdapat pada ensiklopedia penutur dan pendengar memudahkan komunikator memproses maklumat dan memperoleh jawapan dengan mudah. Faktor kesan kognitif/kognisi merupakan elemen yang penting dalam menginterpretasi jawapan teka-teki.

Penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh Muhammad Zuhair Zainal (2015) yang bertajuk "Makna Ujaran Tak Langsung dalam Skrip Drama Terpilih dari Sudut Pragmatik" mendapati bahawa penggunaan ujaran tak langsung dalam skrip drama terpilih dapat mencerminkan budaya halus dan akal budi tinggi yang dimiliki oleh masyarakat Melayu. Penyelidikan yang dijalankan ini adalah untuk mengenal pasti ujaran tak langsung, menghurai dan menjelaskan makna ujaran tak langsung dalam skrip drama terpilih dengan menggunakan pendekatan pragmatik berdasarkan prinsip makna dalam Interaksi Thomas (1995). Data penyelidikan ini bersumberkan ujaran tak langsung yang terdapat dalam skrip drama terpilih hasil tulisan Mustapha Kamal Yassin dan Usman Awang. Dapatan kajian dirumuskan bahawa penggunaan ujaran tak langsung dalam penulisan skrip drama terpilih mengandungi perlakuan ujaran tertentu dan disampaikan dalam bentuk ayat yang berbeza, iaitu ayat penyata, ayat tanya dan ayat perintah. Ujaran tak langsung yang dikaji mempunyai makna implisit yang dapat difahami makna sebenarnya berdasarkan makna abstrak, makna konteks, makna niat penutur dan interpretasi pendengar. Hasil kajian mendapati penyampaian makna ujaran tak langsung disampaikan secara tersembunyi bertujuan untuk bersantun, menjaga air muka seseorang, menjadikan sesuatu bahasa lebih menarik atau kurang menarik, untuk mencapai matlamat yang berbeza dalam satu masa dan untuk menjelaskan niat penutur.

Penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh Han dan Ni (2015) yang bertajuk *"On the Subtitle Translation of Mirror Mirror from Relevance Theory*" mendapati bahawa strategi dan peranan TR dapat membantu dalam menterjemah sarikata filem kepada bahasa sasaran. Dalam kajian ini filem yang digunakan ialah filem *Mirror Mirror* yang dijadikan bahan untuk menganalisis strategi penterjemahan sari kata menurut TR. Terdapat lima strategi yang dikemukakan, iaitu yang pertama menawarkan pengenalan yang ringkas kepada latar belakang penyelidikan dan isu-isu bersama-sama dengan strutktur kajian. Yang kedua ialah menyediakan TR dan hubungannya dengan beberapa teori dalam penterjemahan sarikata, manakala yang ketiga ialah memberi tumpuan kepada kajian mengenai strategi penterjemahan sari kata filem *Mirror Mirror* dari perspektif TR di mana analisis secara terperinci masalah yang sukar dan starategi respon akan dijalankan. Strategi yang keempat ialah kesimpulan dan yang terakhir adalah untuk membuktikan bahawa TR dapat diaplikasikan dalam penterjemahan sari kata untuk menjadi panduan penterjemahan dan memperbaiki kualiti penterjemahan sari kata.

Penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh Ghazali Lateh dan Shamsudin Othman (2014) yang bertajuk "Tinjauan Interaksi Lisan Bahasa Melayu dalam Kalangan Remaja Malaysia dari Sudut Etnografi Komunikasi" mendapati bahawa aspek kognitif banyak mempengaruhi interaksi lisan sampel kajian. Penyelidikan yang dijalankan oleh sarjana ini memberi fokus kepada bentuk-bntuk bahasa yang digunakan oleh sampel kajian dalam interaksi lisan, kemampuan berbahasa, dan pertimbangan-pertimbangan komunikasi dalam perbualan formal. Penyelidikan ini juga membincangkan aspek kognitif yang mempengaruhi interaksi lisan kajian sampel. Perbincangan kedua-dua objektif ini dilaksanakan dalam kerangka teori etnografi komunikasi dan juga TR. Daripada dapatan yang diperoleh, bentuk-bentuk bahasa yang digunakan oleh sampel kajian adalah antaranya pengulangan, penyoalan kembali, penukaran kod, hentian, penggunaan peribahasa, bunyi bukan verbal, penggunaan kata sapaan dan nama rujukan, penggunaan ucap selamat, bahasa Melayu tinggi dan "Dia Orang" sebagai Kata Ganti Diri Ketiga.

Kerelevanan dan perkaitan antara kajian lepas yang dinyatakan dengan penyelidikan ini ialah ujaran yang digunakan dalam kajian-kajian lepas mempunyai perkaitan dengan penyelidikan ini, iaitu ujaran saling memahami. Walaupun kajian lepas tidak menyentuh kepada aspek ujaran salaing memahami, namun penganalisisan, dapatan dan implikasi kajian mempunyai perkaitan dengan penyelidikan ini. Sebagai contoh, kajian yang dijalankan oleh Muhammad Zuhair (2015) menunjukkan bahawa ujaran tidak langsung disampaikan dengan cara yang berbeza dalam ayat yang berbeza. Begitu juga halnya dengan penyelidikan ini, iaitu untuk memperlihatkan ujaran saling memahami berdasarkan konteks, ayat, kosa kata, dan leksikal yang digunakan dalam menyampaikan sesuatu maklumat ataupun hajat komunikatif penutur.

Metodologi Kajian

Data utama dalam kajian ini ialah filem Melayu lakonan Nordin Ahmad. Filem yang dijadikan data utama ialah filem Semerah Padi (seterusnya FSP), filem Hang Jebat (FHJ), filem Seri Mersing (FSM) dan filem Lancang Kuning (FLK). Pemilihan filem yang dilakonkan oleh beliau adalah kerana kualiti dan penggunaan bahasanya yang indah dan berpengaruh. Pemilihan filem dibuat adalah antara tahun 1956 hingga 1962. Pada tahun 1956 menerusi FSP nama beliau kembali memuncak menerusi watak utama, iaitu watak Taruna. Pemilihan tahun (1956 – 1962) tersebut dibuat adalah kerana pada tahun tersebut nama beliau dan filem yang dilakonkan membuatkannya kembali bersinar dan memuncak. Daripada 19 buah filem yang dilakonkan sepanjang tempoh tersebut, empat buah filem yang membuatkan namanya terus menyinar dan memberi kesan sehingga kini, iaitu FSP (1956), FHJ (1961), FSM (1961) dan FLK (1962). Pemilihan keempat-empat buah filem adalah berdasarkan sampel daripada populasi filem terkenal yang dilakonkannya dari tahun 1956 hingga 1962.

Penulis telah memfokuskan pemerolehan data, iaitu ujaran saling memahami yang diujarkan dalam watak-watak filem. Pemilihan data ini dibuat adalah berdasarkan ujaran saling memahami akan mewujudkan satu bentuk hubungan resiprokal dan mencerminkan keperibadian seseorang melalui bahasa yang digunakan. Hubungan resiprokal yang wujud membuktikan bahawa ujaran yang wujud, walaupun berdasarkan skrip tetap mencerminkan ujaran saling memahami kerana skrip yang terhasil merupakan manifestasi daripada budaya pengarang itu sendiri. Ujaran saling memahami yang wujud ini termasuklah bahasa kiasan dan implikatur yang diperoleh daripada filem yang dikaji akan dianalisis menggunakan teori Relevans (seterusnya TR) (Sperber & Wilson, 1986) dan teori lakuan bahasa (TLB) (Searle, 1969). Oleh yang demikian, data dianalisis berdasarkan teori yang digunakan, iaitu menggunakan TR dan TLB. Setiap ujaran yang dipilih akan dianalisis berdasarkan TR yang mengemukakan tiga elemen penting, iaitu Konteks, kesan konteks dan usaha memproses, manakala TLB pula mengemukakan lima paradigmatik, iaitu direktif, asertif, komisif, ekspresif dan deklaratif.

Teori Relevans dan Teori Lakuan Bahasa

Prinsip relevans lebih menekankan bentuk komunikasi yang dapat difahami antara penutur dengan pendengar (Sperber & Wilson, 1986). Penutur seharusnya dapat menjamin yang diperkatakan itu benar-benar relevan serta sesuai untuk difahami oleh pendengar. Penutur dapat memastikan yang diperkatakan itu mempunyai ciri-ciri relevans yang optimum. Relevans yang optimum bermaksud setiap ujaran itu mempunyai kesan konteks yang maksimum yang dapat dirumuskan dalam masa sesingkat. Dengan itu, konteks haruslah seimbang dengan masa memproses untuk menghasilkan kandungan maklumat yang diharapkan (Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin, 2014).

Semasa menyampaikan ujaran, penutur seharusnya bertanggungjawab untuk memastikan ujarannya mengandungi maklumat yang sama dengan perhatian pendengar. Hal ini demikian kerana pendengar akan memberikan perhatian yang relevan pada dirinya. Penutur haruslah memberikan maklumat yang relevan dengan penaakulan dan persepsi pendengar dengan memberikan andaian tambahan kepada persekitaran kognitif pendengar (Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah & Ahmad Fuad Mat Hassan, 2011). Terdapat tiga konsep yang penting dalam TR dalam pentafsiran makna, iaitu konteks, kesan konteks dan usaha memproses.

TLB memperlihatkan bahawa bahasa yang dituturkan mempunyai lakuan bahasanya yang tersendiri. Pengertian asas dalam teori ini tertumpu kepada cara menghubungkan makna dan lakuan dengan bahasa. Pengertian ini bertepatan dengan hipotesis Searle (1969) yang mengatakan "bercakap dengan sesuatu bahsa bererti menceburkan diri ke dalam satu bentuk perlakuan yang terikat dengan peraturan". TLB menekankan bahawa pengklasifikasian LB memainkan peranan penting dalam perlakuan komunikasi dan berdasarakan teori ini, komunikasi bukan sahaja bererti perlakuan bagi mendapatkan maksud pengucap, tetapi juga perlakuan bagi mendapatkan maksud atau niat pengucap tersebut terlaksana dan dapat dikenal pasti. Dalam TLB ini, terdapat lima kategori yang digariskan oleh Searle (1969), iaitu asertif, direktif, komisif, ekspresif dan deklaratif.

Dapatan dan Perbincangan

Daripada keselurahan filem yang dikaji, didapati terdapat ujaran saling memahami yang diperoleh daripada filem Melayu terpilih. Pengungkapan sesuatu ujaran saling memahami dilihat dapat menentukan keperibadian seseorang melalui bahasa yang digunakan, terutamanya bahasa kiasan di samping mewujudkan suasana yang harmoni dalam komunikasi. Pengungkapan ujaran saling memahami bersifat kiasan dilihat dapat memancarkan akal budi bangsa Melayu.

Ujaran saling Memahami Menggunakan Bahasa Kiasan

Penggunaan bahasa kiasan dalam ujaran saling memahami merupakan satu dapatan yang menarik untuk dikaji. Hal ini demikian kerana dalam ujaran saling memahami kadang kala perkara yang diujarkan mempunyai nilai benar terhadap sesuatu perkara. Dengan menggunakan bahasa kiasan, ujaran yang dilontarkan dapat menyerlahkan keperibadian dan makna sebenar hajat komunikatif penutur. Perhatikan jadual di bawah yang memaparkan ujaran saling memahami menggunakan bahasa kiasan.

Jadual 1
Ujaran saling memahami dalam FSM

Filem				**Ujaran**
FSM	D1	U1	Malau	Apakah hajat kau?
		U2	Damak	Saya nak pulang ke Pahang. Itulah hajat saya.
		U3	Malau	Jangan pulang, Damak kerana orang-orang kampung di sini sangat suka kepada kau supaya tinggal di Mersing.
		U4	Damak	Saya telah merasai bagaimana pahitnya hidup di tempat orang. **Hujan emas di negeri orang, hujan batu di negeri saya. Adalah lebih baik di negeri**

				saya, Pak Malau.
		U5	Malau	Perkara yang sudah, janganlah diulang lagi, Damak, tetapi kuharap terimalah tawaranku ini.
		U6	Damak	Tidak. **Kajang Pak Malau kajang berlipat, kajang saya mengkuang layu, dagang Pak Malau dagang bertempat, dagang saya musafir lalu.** Saya pergi dulu.

Jadual 2
Ujaran saling memahami dalam FHJ

Filem				**Ujaran**
FHJ	D2	U7	Dang	Bang Jebat. **Janganlah Dang menjadi seumpama bahtera yang tidak berhaluan, berlabuh tidak bersauh.**
		U8	Jebat	Mengapa Dang berkata begitu?
		U9	Dang	**Kerana Dang adalah seumpama pokok yang sedang berputik hanya menunggu masa berbuah.**
		U10	Jebat	Apa yang Dang maksudkan? Apa Dang hamil?
		U11	Dang	Hmmm.

Dialog yang diujarkan merupakan ujaran saling memahami yang mengandungi bahasa kiasan. Ujaran saling memahami tersebut tergambar apabila penutur menuturkan sesuatu ujaran dan pendengar memberi respon yang relevan. Sebagai contoh, dalam jadual 1 D1 U4 dan U6, ujaran daripada Damak melalui ujaran “Hujan emas di negeri orang, hujan batu di negeri saya” dan “Kajang Pak Malau kajang berlipat, kajang saya mengkuang layu, dagang Pak Malau dagang bertempat, dagang saya musafir lalu”. Ujaran tersebut merupakan ujaran berbentuk kiasan yang menyembunyikan hasrat atau niat penutur daripada berterus terang. Penutur kadang kala sengaja memilih untuk menuturkan ujaran yang mengandungi makna implisit bagi mengelakkan tanggapan negatif pendengar atau untuk tujuan tidak menjejaskan orang lain (Carston, 2010). Ujaran tersebut jika diamati bait-bait perkataan, makna penutur adalah untuk menyampaikan kesedihannya kepada pendengar. Hal ini dapat dilihat pada leksikal yang digunakan, iaitu “Hujan emas di negeri orang, hujan batu di negeri saya” dan “dagang Pak Malau dagang bertempat, dagang saya musafir lalu”. Kedua-dua leksikal ini mempunyai makna implisit dalam menyatakan kesedihan penutur.

Leksikal implisit “Hujan emas di negeri orang, hujan batu di negeri saya” merupakan peribahasa yang mempunyai makna susah senang seeloknya di negeri atau di tempat sendiri (Abdullah Hassan & Ainon Mohd, 2011). Berdasarkan konteks perbualan ini, leksikal ini merujuk kepada kesusahan yang dihadapi apabila merantau ke negeri orang. Pemerolehan makna implisit ini adalah berdasarkan konteks pemula dan andaian awal berdasarkan ujaran penutur, iaitu “Saya telah merasai bagaimana pahitnya hidup di tempat orang”. Berdasarkan ujaran awal ini, pendengar tidak mempunyai masalah untuk memahami makna sebenar ujaran dan leksikal tersebut dengan memberi respon yang positif dan relevan. Dengan erti kata yang mudah, leksikal tersebut mudah difahami kerana leksikal yang digunakan amat bertepatan bagi merujuk kepada perasaan.

Leksikal "Kajang Pak Malau kajang berlipat, kajang saya mengkuang layu, dagang Pak Malau dagang bertempat, dagang saya musafir lalu" jika dilihat secara literal, leksikal ini merupakan pantun empat kerat, namun jika diperhatikan pada sudut konteks perbualan, leksikal tersebut mempunyai makna yang implisit. Menurut Fatin Rabiha Abdul Kadir dan Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah (2017), ujaran tersebut mempunyai makna maklumat konteks pantun tersebut bermaksud atap rumah Pak Malau atapnya berlipat elok dan daripada bahan yang berkualiti, manakala atap rumah Damak dibuat menggunakan mengkuang yang sudah layu berkemungkinan atapnya tidak tahan lama berbanding Pak Malau. Walaubagaimanapun, makna implisit dalam filem tersebut bukan sekadar penerangan mengenai aspek fizikal keadaan atap rumah Pak Malau dan Damak semata-mata, tetapi mencerminkan maksud bahawa Pak Malau dari tempat atau golongan yang elok, baik dan berharta sedangkan Damak digambarkan dari tempat dan golongan yang serba kedaifan dan kekurangan. Dalam erti kata yang lain, Damak merendah-rendahkan martabatnya sebagai seorang perantau dan meninggikan Pak Malau sebagai orang yang berkedudukan di Mersing (Fatin Rabiha Abdul Kadir & Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah, 2017). Berdasarkan andaian awal daripada ujaran terdahulu, pendengar dapat menginterpretasi makna sebenar penutur kerana leksikal yang digunakan amat relevan pada konteks perbualan.

Sperber dan Wilson (1986) mengatakan bahawa implikatur ujaran adalah seperti andaian secara umum mungkin berbeza dari segi kekuatannya. Lebih tinggi kenyataan bersama-sama bagi hajat komunikatif untuk menjadikan nyata beberapa andaian tertentu, lebih tinggi andaian ini dikomunikasikan. Kemungkinan implikatur yang paling kukuh adalah yang premis dan kesimpulan ditentukan sepenuhnya, yang mesti sebenarnya dibekalkan jika interpretasi hendak selaras dengan prinsip relevans, dan yang mana penutur bertanggungjawab sepenuhnya. Implikatur yang kuat adalah yang premis dan kesimpulan, yang pendengar digalakkan dengan kuatnya, tetapi bukan sebenarnya dipaksa untuk membekalkannya. Lebih lemah galakkan, dan lebih lemah implikatur tersebut.

Penginterpretasian dan pemahaman terhadap ujaran yang diterima dipengaruhi oleh faktor LB, konteks, kesan konteks dan usaha memproses. Berdasarkan jadual 1, dalam U1 melalui lakuan direktif, Malau telah mengujarkan ujaran yang memperlihatkan ujaran saling memahami seperti U3 lakuan komisif, dan lakuan komisif dalam U5. Lakuan direktif dalam U1, iaitu "apa hajat kau?" merupakan satu pertanyaan penutur yang disampaikan secara eksplisit dan ujaran ini mudah difahami oleh Damak dalam U2. Ujaran Damak dalam U2 difahami oleh Malau, lalu dibalas oleh Malau melalui ujaran U3 "Jangan pulang, Damak kerana orang-orang kampung di sini sangat suka kepada kau supaya tinggal di Mersing" yang merupakan satu lakuan komisif, iaitu satu penyataan yang mengehendaki penutur melakukan sesuatu pada masa akan datang. Damak yang memahami maksud ujaran Malau telah membalas ujaran Malau melalui U4, iaitu "Saya telah merasai bagaimana pahitnya hidup di tempat orang. Hujan emas di negeri orang, hujan bati di negeri saya. Adalah lebih baik di negeri saya" melalui lakuan ekspresif yang menyatakan sikap psikologis penutur. Walaupun ujaran Damak dalam U4 berbentuk kiasan, namun dapat difahami oleh Malau apabila Malau melalui lakuan komisif dalam U5 telah mengujarkan "Perkara yang sudah, janganlah diulang lagi, Damak, tetapi kuharap terimalah tawaranku ini". Ujaran Malau dalam U5 difahami oleh Damak lalu melalui lakuan ekspresif, Damak telah mengujarkan, "Kajang Pak Malau kajang berlipat, kajang saya mengkuang layu, dagang Pak Malau dagang bertempat, dagang saya musafir lalu" yang merupakan satu penyataan mengekspresikan sikap psikologis penutur. Urutan peristiwa dan penggunaan bahasa oleh kedua-dua watak dapat memahami kandungan ujaran memperlihatkan penutur dan pendengar mewujudkan hubungan resiprokal saling memahami dalam menyatakan perasaan terhadap sesuatu.

Ujaran Malau (U1, U3, dan U5) dan Damak (U2, 4, dan U6) didapati kedua-dua penutur dan pendengar mudah memahami mesej yang hendak disampaikan lalu berlangsungnya komunikasi. Maklumat yang disampaikan antara kedua-dua watak selaku penutur dan pendengar ini diproses berdasarkan konteks dan kesan konteks yang melatari perbualan tersebut. Konteks dalam TR adalah pembinaan kognitif secara eksplisit. Konteks ditentukan terlebih dahulu dalam proses pemahaman. Andaian yang dilahirkan secara eksplisit oleh ujaran dilihat sebagai bergabung dengan konteks yang ada dalam minda pendengar pada permulaan lakuan ujaran. Dengan kata lain, konteks merupakan seberkas andaian tentang dunia yang dibina secara psikologi oleh pendengar (Sperber & Wilson, 1986; 1995). Konteks yang dibina dalam perbualan yang memperlihatkan "ujaran saling memahami" melibatkan andaian tentang budaya dan kepercayaan terhadap pemikiran penutur yang disampaikan menggunakan kiasan, eksplisit dan implisit (Aminnudin Saimon & Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah, 2016).

Menurut Sperber dan Wilson (1986), fakta nyata dimanifestasi kepada individu adalah pada waktu tertentu jika dan hanya jika dia mampu pada masa itu mewakilinya secara mental dan menerima perwakilannya itu sebagai benar atau mungkin benar. Sementara itu, persekitaran kognitif individu adalah satu situasi yang diwujudkan kepadanya, manakala andaian-andaian yang lebih nyata pada individu dalam suatu masa tertentu atau pada saat tertentu adalah fungsi daripada lingkungan fizikalnya di satu sisi dan kemampuan kognitifnya pada sisi yang lain. Hal ini menjelaskan bahawa dalam ujaran saling memahami suatu fakta yang diujarkan oleh penutur dapat dimanifestasikan oleh pendengar berdasarkan lingkungan fizikal dan persekitaran kognitif pendengar itu.

Sehubungan itu, ujaran Malau dapat difahami oleh Damak dan begitu juga sebaliknya kerana Malau sebagai penutur telah membekalkan maklumat konteks untuk ditafsir oleh Damak sebagai pendengar. Dengan berbekalkan maklumat konteks, Malau dan Damak mudah memahami maklumat yang disampaikan kerana maklumat konteks yang terbina dalam ujaran perbualan mereka adalah menyentuh pengalaman yang sudah tercatat dalam ensiklopedia penutur dan pendengar. Tegasnya, dalam ujaran saling memahami, maklumat yang tidak berkaitan dengan persekitaran kognitif sedia ada tidak akan mempunyai implikasi kontekstual, walaupun ia mungkin mempunyai implikasi logiknya sendiri (Aminnudin Saimon & Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah, 2016). Sebaliknya, maklumat yang ada dalam persekitaran kognitif penutur akan menambah maklumat baharu, tetapi maklumat tersebut harus mempunyai hubungan dengan persekitaran sedia ada bagi menghasilkan kesan kontekstual yang paling maksimum, termasuklah menafikan, memperkuat, dan memperkaya andaian sedia ada bagi meminimumkan kos proses.

Usaha memproses ujaran berdasarkan jadual 1 adalah minimum kerana konteks dan kesan konteks yang dibina membentuk ujaran saling memahami. Ujaran berkias yang diujarkan dapat diinterpretasi maknanya dengan mudah. Hal ini terpancar pada perbualan dan respon yang diberikan oleh pendengar yang relevan pada konteks perbualan tersebut. Pengetahuan yang luas terhadap unsur alam, persekitaran, budaya dan bahasa Melayu yang melatari sesuatu ujaran seperti yang terdapat dalam jadual 1, memudahkan lagi pendengar untuk menginterpretasi makna sebenar penutur. Usaha memproses menjadi rendah juga dipengaruhi oleh kehadiran leksikal dan maklumat linguistik yang membantu memudahkan pemprosesan ujaran.

Penginterpretasian ujaran saling memahami dalam U4, “Hujan emas di negeri orang, hujan batu di negeri saya. Adalah lebih baik di negeri saya” dan U6 “Kajang Pak Malau kajang berlipat, kajang saya mengkuang layu, dagang Pak Malau dagang bertempat, dagang saya musafir lalu” yang diujarkan dalam bentuk kiasan mudah diproses berdasarkan konteks, walaupun usaha memproses maklumat ujaran ini melibatkan kos proses yang tinggi. Hal ini demikian kerana maklumat linguistik yang disampaikan menggunakan kiasan merupakan maklumat bahasa dan budaya yang telah ada tersimpan dalam ensiklopedia penutur dan pendengar. Justeru itu, ujaran tersebut mudah difahami oleh penutur dan pendengar, walaupun memerlukan kos pemprosesan yang tinggi. Maklumat yang maksimum dapat diterima sebagai relevan, malah telah membantu pendengar untuk menginterpretasi ujaran sehingga memperlihatkan komunikasi antara Damak dengan Malau terus berlangsung dan sekali gus menunjukkan mesej ujaran dapat difahami oleh Damak dan Malau disebabkan adanya maklumat konteks dan kesan kognitif yang melatari komunikasi tersebut dengan kos proses yang minimum. Hal ini sejajar dengan matlamat komunikasi, iaitu untuk meningkatkan lagi persekitaran kognitif penutur dan pendengar.

Jadual 3
Ujaran saling memahami dalam FSP

Filem				**Ujaran**
FSP	D3	U12	Bapa Taruna	Maafkan kami, Penghulu. Kedatangan kami ke mari ialah untuk mengembalikan sirih adat ini, tanda putus tali pertunangan dia antara Dara dan Taruna.
		U13	Penghulu	Apa artinya ini? Taruna minta dilekaskan, kau pulak minta diputuskan. Aku tak mengerti.
		U14	Bapa Taruna	Penghulu, **kami tak mahu membeli buah yang telah ditebuk tupai.**
		U15	Penghulu	Darakah yang kau maksudkan?

Jadual 4
Ujaran saling memahami dalam FLK

Filem				Ujaran
FLK	D4	U16	Ali	Saya malu Tok Pawang. Malu kerna kecundang merebut kasih dan pangkat. Kalau saya tak dapat biar sama-sama tak dapat.
		U17	Pawang	Jangan turut nafsu, Datuk. **Sekali jerat tak mengena jangan serik menabur umpan**
		U18	Ali	Membuang masa, **umpan habis pelanduk bertambah liat**
		U19	Pawang	**Alangkan desa racun dapat ditabur, takkan silir pelanduk tak dapat dijinakkan**. Tapi, berkehendak Datuk berusaha sedikit
		U20	Ali	Usaha? Macam mana?
		U21	Pawang	Kalau Datuk sanggup mencuri baju dalam Telani yang masih ada bekas peluhnya, berani hamba katakan Telani mesti dapat ke tangan Datuk

D4 dalam Jadual 4 menjelaskan bahawa penutur dan pendengar dapat mencapai hubungan saling memahami berdasarkan ujaran yang disampaikan. Penggunaan bahasa yang melatari perbualan dalam D4 ialah bahasa kiasan. Hal ini dapat dilihat pada ujaran-ujaran seperti D4 U17, “Jerat tak kena jangan serik menabur umpan”, D4 U18, “Umpan habis pelanduk bertambah liat” dan D4 U19, “Alangkan desa racun dapat ditabur, takkan silir pelanduk tak dapat dijinakkan”. Penggunaan bahasa kiasan dalam perbualan di atas dapat dilihat bagi menyelindungi niat atau cadangan yang jahat. Masyarakat Melayu amat menjaga tutur bicaranya agar tidak menyinggung perasaan orang lain, walhal dalam menyatakan atau mencadangkan sesuatu (Wan Norasikin Wan Ismail, Abdul Latif Samian & Nazri Muslim, 2017). Penggunaan unsur alam dalam ujaran tersebut menjelaskan bahawa pemikiran masyarakat Melayu amat mementingkan keindahan berbahasa, dan berestetika. Struktur bahasa itu menggambarkan cara penutur memandang dunianya dan bagaimana budaya mempunyai hubungan dengan bahasa (Jufrizal, Zul Amri & Refnaldi, 2007)

Berdasarkan ujaran U17 “jerat tak kena jangan serik menabur umpan” berkonotasi sebagai satu cadangan kepada pendengar agar tidak berputus asa. Penggunaan leksikal yang tepat dengan konteks menjelaskan lagi maksud ujaran tersebut. Penggunaan “jerat” sememangnya digunakan untuk menangkap binatang dan penggunaan “umpan” pula amat relevan dalam membantu untuk memudahkan lagi penangkapan. Menurut Abdullah Hassan dan Ainon Mohd. (2011), “jerat” bermaksud keadaan yang menyusahkan, manakala “umpan” mempunyai makna modal pemikat. Hal ini bermaksud “jerat” amat menyusahkan bagi binatang yang menjadi sasaran kerana jika terjerat pasti amat sukar untuk terlepas, manakala leksikal “umpan” yang digunakan amat bertepat untuk menjerat mangsa, iaitu dengan menggunakan umpan. Di sinilah ketepatan dan kerelevanan penggunaan leksikal “jerat” dan “umpan” dalam memerangkap sesuatu. Penggunaan leksikal "umpan" pula amat berkait rapat dengan "jerat". Hal ini kerana untuk menjerat sesuatu pastinya menggunakan umpan untuk menarik minat binatang dan sebagainya. Penggunaan kedua-dua leksikal, iaitu "jerat" dan "umpan" amat bersesuaian dengan konteks yang menceritakan mengenai kaedah untuk memerangkap mangsa. Dalam konteks ujaran di atas, ujaran tersebut merupakan ujaran mencadang sesuatu kepada pendengar. Penutur mengujarkan ujaran tersebut agar pendengar tidak serik atau berputus asa dalam mengejar sesuatu. Di sinilah kiasan bagi makna mencadang agar tidak berputus asa diterjemahkan.

Dari sudut ujaran, ujaran yang diujarkan oleh penutur dan pendengar mengandungi implikatur dan bahasa kiasan dalam ujaran tersebut. Bahasa kiasan dan implikatur ini terselit dalam ujaran yang digunakan dalam ujaran tersebut. Sebagai contoh, ujaran yang diujarkan oleh penutur, iaitu U16, "kecundang merebut kasih dan pangkat" dan ujaran daripada pendengar, iaitu U17, "sekali jerat tak mengena jangan serik menabur umpan". Kedua-dua ujaran tersebut berkisarkan mengenai hubungan saling memahami, iaitu penutur menyatakan perasaan kecewa dan pendengar bertindak dengan memberikan nasihat dan cadangannya kepada penutur. Ujaran-ujaran kiasan ini secara tidak langsung melambangkan bahasa yang ada dalam pemikiran bangsa Melayu dan daripada bahasa ini menentukan pandangan dunia bangsa Melayu untuk mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami antara peserta komunikasi.

Ujaran "kecundang merebut kasih dan pangkat" yang diujarkan oleh penutur dapat difahami dengan mudah oleh pendengar. Ujaran ini bermaksud bahawa penutur telah gagal dalam mendapatkan cinta dan cita-cita. Abdullah Hassan dan Ainon Mohd. (2002) memberi definisi bagi perkataan "kecundang" ialah gagal, tewas, kalah, kandas, mati dan tidak lulus. Ujaran implikatur yang diujarkan oleh Panglima Ali ini dapat diinterpretasi dengan mudah oleh pendengar kerana pemahaman dan penguasaan leksikal memudahkan lagi pendengar untuk memahami ujaran tersebut. Respon daripada pendengar melalui ujaran "sekali jerat tak mengena jangan serik menabur umpan" merupakan bentuk linguistik bahasa kiasan. Ujaran ini diujarkan bagi tujuan untuk memberi nasihat dan cadangan kepada pendengar agar terus berusaha dalam mendapatkan perkara yang dihajati.

Ujaran saling memahami dalam petikan dialog di atas diteruskan lagi dengan respon daripada Panglima Ali yang masih kecewa dan marah melalui ujaran D4 U18, "umpan habis pelanduk bertambah liat". Daripada ujaran tersebut, jelas menunjukkan Panglima Ali menyatakan rasa kecewa dan marah kerana usahanya untuk memikat Telani sering kali gagal dan menyebabkan hubungan Telani dengan Panglima Yahya bertambah erat. Respon daripada pendengar, iaitu Tok Pawang juga mempunyai ciri-ciri bahasa kiasan melalui ujaran D4 U19, "alangkan desa racun dapat ditabur, takkan silir pelanduk tak dapat dijinakkan". Hubungan saling memahami dalam petikan dialog di atas, jelas menunjukkan bahawa penggunaan dan penguasaan maklumat linguistik yang ada pada peserta komunikasi dapat mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami. Penggunaan bahasa kiasan yang digunakan turut menggambarkan peserta komunikasi mempunyai falsafah, pemikiran dan akal budi yang tinggi dalam bertutur atau berinteraksi.

Dari segi penginterpretasian ujaran, petikan dialog tersebut diinterpretasikan makna ujarannya berdasarkan faktor LB, konteks dan kesan konteks yang melatari perbualan tersebut. Berdasarkan LB yang dikenal pasti dalam D4 jadual 4, ujaran D4 U16 mengandungi dua LB yang berbeza, iaitu ekspresif dan komisif. Lakuan ekspresif dapat dilihat pada ujaran "saya malu Tok Pawang. Malu kerana kecundang merebut kasih dan pangkat", manakala lakuan komisif ugutan dapat dikesan pada ujaran selepasnya, iaitu "kalau tak dapat biar sama-sama tak dapat". Ujaran pada D4 U17 menunjukkan LB yang dituturkan mengandungi lakuan direktif menasihati, iaitu pada ujaran "jangan turut nafsu, Datuk. Sekali jerat tak kena jangan serik menabur umpan" dan ujaran D4 U18 yang dilontarkan menunjukkan LB komisif menolak, iaitu melalui ujaran "membuang masa, umpan habis pelanduk bertambah liat" merupakan satu bentuk komunikasi antara penutur dengan pendengar yang menggambarkan hubungan saling memahami apabila penutur menyatakan sesuatu yang mengehendaki pendengar melakukan sesuatu secara implisit dan mudah difahami oleh pendengar yang kemudiannya menolak hajat komunikatif penutur dengan cara implisit. Maklumat linguistik berbentuk kiasan yang terdapat pada D4 U16 – U21 dapat difahami oleh pendengar dengan baik berdasarkan proposisi LB dalam ujaran tersebut.

Berdasarkan D4 dalam Jadual 4, ujaran Panglima Ali (U16 dan U18) dan ujaran Pawang (U17 dan U19) didapati kedua-dua penutur dan pendengar mudah memahami mesej yang disampaikan lalu berlangsungnya komunikasi. Maklumat yang disampaikan antara kedua-dua watak selaku penutur dan pendengar ini mudah diproses berdasarkan konteks dan kesan konteks yang melatari perbualan tersebut. Menurut Sperber dan Wilson (1986, 1995) konteks merupakan satu set andaian yang dibina secara psikologis oleh pendengar, manakala Bosco, Bucciarelli, dan Bara (2004) mengatakan bahawa konteks merupakan satu set siri yang menyumbang terhadap pembinaan semula makna yang dihajati oleh penutur dalam hubungan komunikasi. Konteks yang dibina dalam perbualan yang memperlihatkan "ujaran saling memahami" melibatkan andaian tentang budaya dan kepercayaan terhadap pemikiran penutur yang disampaikan menggunakan bahasa kiasan, ujaran eksplisit dan implisit (Aminnudin Saimon & Zaitul Azma Zainon Hamzah, 2016). Ujaran Ali dalam U16, iaitu "Saya malu Tok Pawang. Malu kerna kecundang merebut kasih dan pangkat. Kalau saya tak dapat biar sama-sama tak dapat" merupakan konteks pemula bagi ujaran saling memahami yang terdapat dalam jadual 4. Andaian-andaian awal yang berada dalam kognisi pendengar dapat dilihat pada ujaran yang diujarkan.

Ujaran penutur juga memberikan andaian awal kepada pendengar agar pendengar dapat menginterpretasi melalui penguatan, pengukuhan ataupun pengguguran. Andaian awal pendengar diekspresikan melalui respon ujaran yang didengari. Untuk menjadi relevan dalam konteks, sesuatu andaian mesti dihubungkan dengan konteks tersebut melalui beberapa cara. Ia menjelaskan intuisi ini dengan mengkhususkan hubungan biasa yang diperlukan. Dakwaan yang konteks untuk pemahaman mengandungi bukan sahaja semua andaian dilahirkan secara eksplisit oleh ujaran terdahulu dalam wacana, tetapi juga semua implikatur bagi ujaran (Carston, 2010). Hipotesis ini diterima benar dalam Jadual 4 di atas yang memperlihatkan ujaran yang dituturkan mengandungi andaian eksplisit dan implisit. Hal ini terpancar dan membuktikan bahawa pendengar memahami ujaran tersebut berdasarkan respon daripada pendengar. Hubungan saling memahami ini berlaku disebabkan oleh konteks yang melatari sesuatu perbualan, di samping pendengar memahami latar peristiwa perbualan. Konteks amat bergantung pada latar kebiasaan. Latar kebiasaan ini merupakan dua agen yang mengandungi maklumat, kepercayaan, dan andaian yang sama untuk dikongsi (Adolphs, 2018; Levinson, 2004).

Kesan konteks merupakan faktor yang mempengaruhi dan menentukan penginterpretasian ujaran. Dalam ujaran D4, kesan konteks yang diaplikasikan oleh pendengar berdasarkan faktor pengalaman, ensiklopedia, persekitaran, pandangan dunia, falsafah dan budaya yang terdapat dalam sesuatu masyarakat. Dalam D4, pengukuhan atau penguatan, pengguguran dan penggabungan tidak berlaku kerana pendengar dapat menginterpretasi makna ujaran penutur. Hal ini disebabkan oleh aspek kesan konteks yang diperoleh dan maklumat yang sedia ada terhadap konteks perbualan. Sperber dan Wilson (1986) mengatakan bahawa kesan konteks atau kesan kognitif merupakan andaian awal yang ada pada pendengar tentang maklumat yang relevan dengan diri pendengar. Kesemuanya tercatat sebagai catatan ensiklopedia penutur dan pendengar. Maklumat atau catatan ensiklopedia dalam D4 tergambar melalui ujaran dan leksikal yang diujarkan seperti leksikal “umpan”, “jerat”, “pelanduk”, dan “racun”. Penggunaan unsur alam ini sememangnya difahami fungsi dan kegunaannya dalam masyarakat Melayu menyebabkan penutur dan pendengar dapat mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami.

Ujaran Panglima Ali dapat difahami oleh Pawang dan begitu juga sebaliknya kerana Panglima Ali sebagai penutur telah membekalkan maklumat konteks untuk ditafsir oleh Pawang. Dengan berbekalkan kesan kognitif, Panglima Ali dan Pawang mudah memahami maklumat yang disampaikan kerana maklumat konteks yang terbina dalam ujaran perbualan mereka adalah menyentuh pengalaman yang sudah tercatat dalam ensiklopedia penutur dan pendengar. Ujaran yang terdapat dalam D4, iaitu ujaran U16 – U21 merupakan bentuk linguistik kiasan. Ujaran seperti ini menjadi implikatur menurut prinsip relevans adalah disebabkan oleh penutur mesti mengharapkan pendengar melahirkannya, atau sebahagian daripadanya, diberikan bahawa dia menghajatkan ujarannya menjadi relevan secara nyata kepada pendengar. Premis yang diimplikasi mesti dibekalkan oleh pendengar, yang mesti sama ada merujuknya pada memori atau membinanya dengan mengembangkan skema andaian dirujuk daripada memori. Apa yang membuatkan ia munasabah untuk mengenal pasti premis seumpama itu sebagai implikatur adalah bahawa ia membawa kepada interpretasi selaras dengan prinsip relevan, dan bahawa ia adalah secara nyata paling mudah diperoleh untuk melakukannya (Sperber & Wilson, 1986).

Penginterpretasian bahasa kiasan dalam U16 “malu kerana kecundang merebut kasih dan pangkat”, U17, “sekali jerat tak mengena jangan serik menabur umpan”, U18, “umpan habis pelanduk bertambah liat”, dan U19, “alangkan desa racun dapat ditabur, takkan silir pelanduk tak dapat dijinakkan” yang diujarkan dalam bentuk kiasan dapat diproses berdasarkan konteks, walaupun usaha memproses maklumat ujaran ini melibatkan kos pemprosesan yang tinggi. Hal ini demikian kerana bahasa kiasan yang disampaikan merupakan maklumat bahasa dan budaya yang telah tersimpan dalam ensiklopedia penutur dan pendengar. Ujaran tersebut mudah difahami oleh pendengar dan penutur, walaupun memerlukan kos pemprosesan yang tinggi. Pemerolehan maklumat yang maksimum amat membantu pendengar dalam menginterpretasi ujaran sehingga memperlihatkan komunikasi antara penutur dengan pendengar terus berlangsung dan sekali gus menunjukkan mesej ujaran dan hajat komunkatif penutur dapat difahami disebabkan adanya maklumat konteks dan kesan kognitif yang melatari perbualan tersebut dengan kos proses yang minimum.

Implikasi Teori dan Dapatan Kajian

Ujaran saling memahami merupakan ujaran resiprokal yang diujarkan dalam menyampaikan sesuatu perkara, maklumat atau mengekspresikan perasaan. Ujaran saling memahami ini penting kerana dalam menyampaikan sesuatu maklumat, ujaran yang disampaikan seharusnya difahami dan diinterpretasi dengan baik oleh pendengar agar maklumat yang disampaikan tepat dan diterima. Teori yang digunakan dalam kajian ini ialah TR (Sperber & Wilson, 1986) dan TLB (Searle, 1969). Kedua-dua teori yang digunakan ini memberikan implikasi yang maksimum terhadap kajian ujaran saling memahami ini. Hal ini demikian kerana dalam TR faktor konteks dan kesan konteks amat memainkan peranan penting dalam menginterpretasi ujaran, manakala faktor TLB pula dilihat sebagai satu bentuk komunikasi yang diujarkan dalam proposisi yang betul untuk memberikan gambaran, penginterpretasian dan memahami ujaran. kedua-dua teori ini memudahkan penutur dan pendengar untuk saling memahami berdasarkan kategori dan faktor yang diberikan seperti faktor konteks, kesan konteks dan kos memproses, faktor asertif, direktif, komisif, ekspresif dan deklaratif yang mempunyai peranan masing-masing dalam mewujudkan hubungan saling memahami.

Implikasi dapatan dilihat amat memberi pengaruh kepada keberkesanan sesuatu komunikasi terutamanya dalam memberikan maklumat. Penginterpretasian yang salah akan menyebabkan maklumat yang diterima dan disampaikan juga salah. Oleh yang demikian, kajian ini memberikan sedikit sebanyak penjelasan mengenai ujaran saling memahami dalam komuniti budaya masyarakat Melayu. Walaupun melalui penggunaan skrip, filem yang digunakan juga memaparkan ujaran saling memahami dilihat sebagai satu bentuk manifestasi terjemahan budaya dan bahasa yang dianuti oleh seseorang pengarah. Kepercayaan, kebudayaan dan ideologi yang ada pada pengarah diterjemahkan dan dimanifestasi melalui skrip yang merupakan wakil daripada pengarah.

Kesimpulan

Ujaran saling memahami merupakan aspek yang penting dalam mewujudkan komunikasi dua hala. Ujaran saling memahami juga dilihat sebagai satu bentuk bahasa yang digunakan untuk menguji keberkesanan penyampaian maklumat daripada penutur kepada pendengar. Berdasarkan dapatan kajian, ujaran saling memahami merupakan elemen yang paling penting dalam menyampaikan sesuatu maklumat, cadangan, hasrat dan kepercayaan kerana setiap ujaran penutur memberi kesan kepada tindakan pendengar. Setiap ujaran yang disampaikan oleh penutur mempunyai maksud yang khusus dan pendengar sebagai agen kedua dalam komunikasi seharusnya memahami dan memberikan perhatian terhadap ujaran yang disampaikan. Faktor penutur juga memainkan peranan penting dalam usaha mencapai hubungan saling memahami kerana setiap ujaran yang diujarkan akan memberi kesan kepada pendengar sama ada berbaloi untuk diproses atau tidak.

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