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Chief Editor
Issues in Language Studies
Faculty of Education, Language and Communication
Universiti Malaysia Sarawak
94300 Kota Samarahan
Sarawak
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Table 1

Types of Communication Strategies Used Across Age Groups

Figure 1

Frequency of Communication Strategy Used Across Age Groups

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A DICTIONARY-BASED COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE CHINESE “ \uparrow (GÈ)” AND THE MALAY “*BUAH*” NUMERAL CLASSIFIERS

Chwee Fang NG*¹

Sariyan AWANG²

Ngee Thai YAP³

^{1,3}Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

²Malaysian Parliament, Malaysia

chweefang@upm.edu.my

kembarabahasa2010@gmail.com

ntyap@upm.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

Classifiers are used for categorising nouns according to animacy, form, shape, and size. As one of the Austronesian languages, Malay is said to have an extensive numeral classifier system. Past studies have classified these two classifiers as general classifiers; however, an extensive study comparing the use of these two classifiers have not been attempted. This study aims to highlight the similarities and differences by comparing the Chinese classifier “ \uparrow (gè)” and the Malay “*buah*” using evidence from reference classifier dictionaries of the two languages. The findings show that while some similarities exist and both classifiers can be used interchangeably with some nouns, these classifiers are unique and have distinctive semantic usage. Both \uparrow (gè) and *buah* are used for organisation, products of nature, buildings and places, and artifacts (things created by humans). However, only \uparrow (gè) can be used for organs or body parts, humans, fruits and food, time, directions, and thought and intellectual products. In contrast, only *buah* is used for transportation, accessories, home furniture and appliances, publications, musical instruments, and performances.

Keywords: classifier; \uparrow (gè); *buah*; dictionary-based comparative study; semantic

Introduction

Classifiers constitute a grammatical system that demonstrates how countable objects are measured, quantified, and categorised by a particular speech community (Yamamoto & Keil, 2000). Classifiers are used for categorising nouns according to animacy, form, shape, and size. They do not provide information on quantity (Adams, 1986; Aikhenvald, 2000; Allan, 1977; Becker, 1975). Classifiers are used as a manifestation of human cognitive illustration of the shape and characteristics of objective things.

Classifiers classify nouns with perpetually conspicuous perceptual properties based on either physicality or function. For example, in Chinese: “一只鸡 (*yí zhī jī*)”, “一本书 (*yì běn shū*)”, and “一把刀 (*yì bǎ dāo*)”; Vietnamese: “*một con gà (mot con ga)*”, “*một quyển sách (mot quyen sach)*”, and “*một con dao (mot con dao)*”; Thai: “*ไก่ 1 ตัว (kai neung tuo)*”, “*หนังสือ 1 เล่ม (nangsue nueng lem)*”, and “*มีด 1 ด้าม (meed nueng dam)*”; Korean: “*닭한마리 (dak hanmari)*”, “*책한권 (chak hangeon)*”, and “*칼하자루 (kal hanzaru)*” mean “a chicken”, “a book”, and “a knife” respectively. Although languages such as English have no classifier with the characteristic of prominent object perception, there exists measure words or phrases: “a bowl of soup”, “a loaf of bread”, “a spoonful of sugar”, and “a dash of salt”. The word “a measure word” does not classify a noun. Instead, it only specifies the quantity of entities of things, plants, animals, and human beings quantified.

In Chinese, classifiers are essential (Aikhenvald, 2000; Li & Thompson, 1981; Zhang et al., 2002; Zhang, 2007; Zhang, 2013). Classifiers typically construct a constituent with a numeral (Aikhenvald, 2000). In Mandarin Chinese, a numeral is usually followed by a classifier or another kind of unit word (Zhang, 2019). A classifier is required to appear with a numeral [for example, 一 (*yī*, “one”), 二 (*èr*, “two”), 三 (*sān*, “three”)] and/or a determiner [for example, 这 (*zhè*, “this”), 那 (*nà*, “that”)], or certain quantifiers [for example, 几 (*jǐ*, “how many”), 每 (*měi*, “every”)] before a noun. In Chinese, this construction is defined as “量词短语 (*liàngcí duǎnyǔ*, “classifier phrase”). The following schema demonstrates its basic structure: (DETERMINER) + NUMERAL + CLASSIFIER + NOUN.

In Chinese and Austroasiatic languages, numerals require classifiers (Aikhenvald, 2000). Malay is also a classifier language. In classifier typology, Malay classifiers are included in the numeral classifier system. Malay classifiers are always almost seen in the context of quantification and typically appear with a number or a quantifier. This means that a classifier must be introduced between the noun and the numeral to construct a grammatical expression (Liaw, 1999). In Minangkabau (a Western Austronesian language), numeral classifiers are required for numbers one to three (Marnita, 1996). As with the Chinese classifier phrase, Malay also uses the basic classifier phrase structure NUMBER + CLASSIFIER + NOUN. Although a noun occasionally precedes the classifier phrase in Malay or Chinese [for example, “*bunga sekuntum*”, “*花一朵 (huā yìduǒ)*”], both languages use the common dominant order of NUMBER + CLASSIFIER + NOUN. In Malay, the number “*satu* (one)” can be written

as “se” and is used as an “*imbuhan*” or affix (Awang, 2015) to the classifier (CL) as shown in 1(a) and 1(b).

1(a) *Seekor harimau*

一只 老虎

Yìzhī lǎohǔ

One CL tiger

1(b) *Seekor arnab*

一只 兔子

Yìzhī tùzi

One CL rabbit

According to statistics by Chen et al. (1988), He (2008), and Guo (2002), the modern Chinese language includes more than 600 classifiers, including verbal classifiers. To date, there is no statistical proof of the precise number of classifiers in Malay. Nevertheless, it is estimated that the modern Malay language uses more than hundreds of classifiers, which can be traced by the number of classifiers found in Malay classifier dictionaries. The *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan Daya* (Ridhwan & Lai, 2008) contains 132 classifiers while the *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan* (Zainuddin, 2020) lists 100 classifiers. Nonetheless, the two dictionaries only include numeral classifiers and not verbal classifiers. This is because there are “no verbal classifiers in the languages of African or Eurasian or the Austronesia family” (Aikhenvald, 2000, p. 171).

General Classifier “个(gè)”

The numeral classifiers “个(gè)” and “*buah*” are widely used in Chinese and Malay, respectively. Both numeral classifiers can be used or collocated with most nouns. Li and Thompson, 1981, p. 112) propose that there may be one general classifier that can be used with any—or almost any—noun, substituting other more specific classifiers. This occurs with 个(gè) in Mandarin, which can substitute specific classifiers for quite a few speakers.

The *Xiandai Hanyu Liangci Guifan Cidian* (2010) states that 个(gè) is used for: 1) nouns without a specific classifier [for example, 一个人(yí gè rén, “one person”), 一个句子(yí gè jùzi, “one sentence”), 三个合同(sān gè hé tong, “three contracts”)]; and 2) nouns with a specific classifier [for example, 一个箱子(yí gè xiāngzi, “a box”), 两个篮子(liǎng gè lánzi, “two baskets”), 三个鸡蛋(sān gè jī dàn, “three eggs”)]. Furthermore, 个(gè) is also used for abstract nouns [for example, 一个因素(yí gè yīn sù, “one factor”), 一个借口(yí gè jiè kǒu, “one excuse”), 三个步骤(sān gè bù zhòu, “three steps”)].

The word 个(gè) is a special classifier. Its diachronic development is long, originating at the end of the Han Dynasty. In terms of scope of application, 个(gè) is the most widely used classifier, and some refer to it as 万能量词(wàn néng liàng cí),

a universal classifier (He, 2008). In the reputable Chinese grammar book *Xiandai Hanyu Babaici*, the well-known Chinese linguist-scholar Lv (1981/2012) describes 个 (*gè*) as a general classifier. The word 个 (*gè*) can be used for things with no specific classifier, covering almost all noun types.

In cross-linguistic comparison, He (2008) argues that 个 (*gè*) has a wide selection of nouns and noun phrases. According He, some studies have compared 个 (*gè*) with the English classifier “piece”, which is generally denoted as a general classifier for both languages. In fact, “piece” is far from comparable to 个 (*gè*), as “piece” has a limited classifying or quantifying function. “Piece” cannot quantify abstract things and is limited to measuring concrete things. The word 个 (*gè*) has its own particularity compared with the Indo-European “piece”. Clearly, 个 (*gè*) is the common classifier with practical meaning.

General Classifier “*Buah*”

The *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan Daya* (Ridhwan & Lai, 2008) states that *buah* is used for counting large objects, buildings, places, and vehicles. The *Kamus Dewan* (2002), a prestigious Malay dictionary often used as the definitive reference for the Malay language, states that *buah* is a classifier for relatively large objects or large objects of definite shape and type (such as furniture, houses, and vehicles).

Chung (2010) states that *buah* not only has a semantic role but also plays a cultural role. Furthermore, *buah* is frequently metaphorically related to “products” (for example, artifacts, products of telecommunication, products of nature, products of thoughts). Chung concludes on the connotation of *buah* via corpus-based analysis and suggests two possible mechanisms for its selection: that *buah* plays a semantic role in Malay culture and involves a metaphorical link that can be related with a product.

Contrary to the classifier function in general, *buah* seems to be able to appear in other continuums, where it can categorise “small round objects in general” in Minangkabau (Marnita, 1996, p. 104). *Buah* can also be used for categorising “things whose shape and type are uncertain” [as defined in *Kamus Dewan*, 2002, p. 546]. Salehuddin and Winskel (2011) state that *buah* is used for classifying inanimate large-shape and-size three-dimensional objects (for example, buses).

According to *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan Daya* (Ridhwan & Lai, 2008), there are 485 nouns that match with *buah*, which shows that *buah* has the widest usage coverage among the 132 Malay classifiers. Compared with the classifier *orang* whose usage coverage is second to it, there are only 173 nouns that match with it. Although 个 (*gè*) and *buah* are widely used in both languages respectively and have comparatively analogous functions, there are also important differences between them. These differences tend to confuse Malay students who learn Chinese as a second language or foreign language and vice-versa. For example, nouns can be collocated with *buah* in Malay but may require a different classifier in Chinese, and vice versa. To date, no study has provided guidance and shed light on the use of 个 (*gè*) and *buah* although they are both frequently used in daily life. This

study aims to aid better and more effective mastery of both classifiers by students learning Malay or Chinese as a second language or foreign language.

This paper describes the similarities and differences of the number pairings of 个 (*gè*) and *buah* from the perspective of semantics and usage.

Methodology

To compare the classifiers 个 (*gè*) and *buah*, data were collected from the following classifier dictionaries:

- 1) Guo (2002/2008). *Xiandai Hanyu Liangci Yongfa Cidian* (Second Edition). Beijing: Yuwen Chubanshe;
- 2) Liu (1989). *A Dictionary of Collocations of Nouns and Measure Words in Modern Chinese*. Zhejiang: Zhejiang Jiaoyu Chubanshe;
- 3) Ridhwan et al. (2008). *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan Daya*. Petaling Jaya: Penerbit Minda (M) Sdn. Bhd.;
- 4) Zainuddin, Dirin. (2020). *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan*. Petaling Jaya: Oxford Fajar Sdn. Bhd.

Out of 8,000 entries, 个 (*gè*) was collocated with more than 3700 nouns in the Dictionary of Collocations of Nouns and Measure Words in Modern Chinese (1989). Out of 1,500 entries in the Malay dictionaries, a total of 486 nouns in the *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan* (Zainuddin, 2020) and 485 nouns in the *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan Daya* (Ridhwan & Lai, 2008) were collocated with *buah*. In short, more than one-third (30%) of the total entries for nouns in the dictionaries examined used 个 (*gè*) and *buah*. Both 个 (*gè*) and *buah* were the classifiers with the highest collocation rates among the nouns.

Croft (1994) stressed that each classifier type is associated with semantic and pragmatic roles. To compare the two classifiers, we referred to the definitions elaborated by the *Xiandai Hanyu Liangci Yongfa Cidian* (2002/2008) for 个 (*gè*) and the *Kamus Penjodoh Bilangan* (Zainuddin, 2020) for *buah*.

Results and Discussion

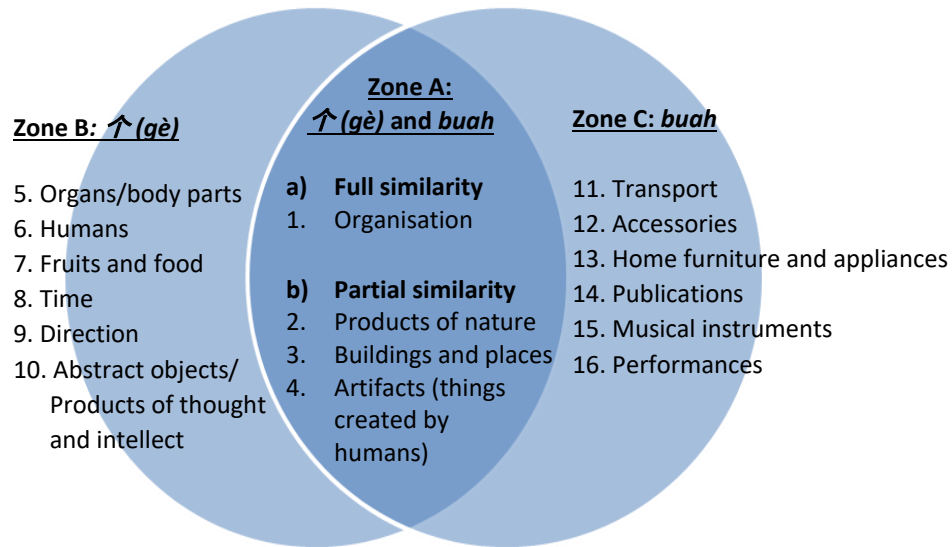
Following the comparative analysis, the findings can be summarised into three zones, with Zone A as the overlapping space between Zone B and C. Zone B encompasses categories of nouns that only collocate with 个 (*gè*) while Zone C involves categories of nouns that collocate with *buah*. Zone A is further divided into those showing full similarity, and partial similarity. All findings are based on the comparison of the data collected from the four dictionaries mentioned above.

Zone A: Similarity

Zone A contains four noun categories (hence 4 lists of examples, Lists 1-4) and is further divided into List 1 for full similarity and Lists 2-4 for partial similarity. Only one list of examples is presented for nouns that collocate with both 个 (*gè*) and *buah*, and these nouns all denote meanings related to an organisation.

Figure 1

Comparison of 个 (gè) and Buah



Organisation

- 1) *Sebuah kerajaan*
一个政府
Yígè zhèngfǔ
One CL government
- 2) *Sebuah negara*
一个国家
Yígè guójiā
One CL country

A second category of nouns were identified in Zone A, which is referred to as nouns with partial similarity. In this category, the similarity correspondence is not completely bidirectional; nouns under the categories that use 个 (gè) can all be collocated with *buah*, but only certain nouns under these categories use 个 (gè) can be collocated with *buah*. Hence, the term partial similarity is used for this category. This is because despite using 个 (gè), these categories also include nouns that use classifiers other than 个 (gè). Partial similarity encompasses three noun categories: products of nature (List 2), buildings and places (List 3), and artifacts (List 4).

Product of Nature

- 3) *Sebuah muara*
一个河口
Yígè hékǒu
One CL estuary
- 4) *Sebuah semenanjung*
一个半岛
Yígè bàndǎo
One CL peninsula

In Chinese, there are products of nature that do not use 个 (*gè*) but require the use of other classifiers as shown in the examples 5-8. In Malay, *buah* can be used for all products of nature. Nonetheless, in Chinese, certain products of nature do not use 个 (*gè*) but “片 (*piàn*)”, “道 (*dào*)”, “条 (*tiáo*)”, and “座 (*zuò*)”. The word 片 (*piàn*) can be used for classifying larger areas, such as the mainland, fields, desert, and forest. The word 道 (*dào*) is used for classifying long things and things that move in a flow or stream. The word 条 (*tiáo*) shares some features with 道 (*dào*) but 条 (*tiáo*) tends to be collocated with smaller-scale nouns, such as drain, creek and river while 道 (*dào*) tends to be collocated with bigger-scale nouns, such as straight. The word 座 (*zuò*) is typically used for huge things, such as mountains, hills, or buildings.

- 5) *Sebuah gurun*
一片沙漠
Yípiàn shāmò
One CL desert
- 6) *Sebuah selat*
一道海峡
Yídào hǎixiá
One CL straight
- 7) *Sebuah jeram*
一条激流
Yítíáo jīliú
One CL torrent
- 8) *Sebuah bukit*
一座山
Yízuò shān
One CL hill

Buah can be used for buildings and place as shown in examples 9-14 in List 3. However, in Chinese, there are also buildings and places that usually do not use 个 (*gè*) but that use other classifiers as shown in examples 10– 14.

Building & Place

9) *Sebuah kampung*

一个农村

Yígè nóngchūn

One CL village

10) *Sebuah rumah*

一间房子

Yìjiān fángzi

One CL house

11) *Sebuah bank*

一家银行

Yìjiā yínháng

One CL bank

12) *Sebuah universiti*

一所大学

Yìsuǒ dàxué

One CL university

13) *Sebuah wisma*

一栋大厦

Yídòng dàshào

One CL wisma

14) *Sebuah wat*

一座佛庙

Yízòu fómào

One CL temple

Furthermore, in Chinese, certain buildings and places use not only 个 (*gè*) but also “间 (*jiān*)”, “家 (*jiā*)”, “所 (*suǒ*)”, “栋 (*dòng*)”, and “座 (*zuò*)”. Notably, 间 (*jiān*), 家 (*jiā*), 所 (*suǒ*), 栋 (*dòng*), and 座 (*zuò*) share certain characteristics where they overlap and can be used for classifying buildings. Nevertheless, they have differing scopes of meaning and usage. The word 间 (*jiān*) is the smallest unit for classifying a room or a house. For example, “这家酒楼，楼上楼下共有六间房 [*zhè jiā* (CL) *jiǔlóu*, *lóushàng lóuxià gòngyǒu liù jiān* (CL) *fáng*, “this restaurant has six rooms from both floors, upstairs and downstairs”]. On the other hand, the noun 家 (*jiā*) itself originally refers to the meaning of the operation of certain industries. For example,

“店家 (diànjiā, store)” and “厂家 (chǎngjiā, manufacturer)”. When the noun 家 (jiā) is used as a classifier, it can therefore be used for classifying certain enterprises and institutions, such as “一家银行 [yìjiā (CL) yínháng, a bank]”, “一家公司 [yìjiā (CL) gōngsī, a company]”, and “一家超级市场 [yìjiā (CL) chāojí shìchǎng, a supermarket]”. The word 所 (suǒ) also refers to enterprises and institutions but also includes housing construction and personnel organisation. For example, “一所大学 [yìsuǒ (CL) dàxué, a university]” and “一所医院 [yìsuǒ (CL) yīyuàn, a hospital]”. The words 栋 (dòng) and 座 (zuò) can also be used for classifying buildings. Nevertheless, 栋 (dòng) has a narrower scope of meaning than 座 (zuò). Other than classifying buildings, 座 (zuò) can also be used for artifacts, mountains, and forests. For example, “一座佛庙 [yízuò (CL) fómiào, a Buddhist temple]”, “一座大桥 [yízuò (CL) dàqiáo, a bridge]”, “一座高山 [yízuò (CL) gāoshān, a mountain]”, and “一座森林 [yízuò (CL) sēnlín, a forest]”. 所 (suǒ) and 座 (zuò) have a broader scope of meaning than 栋 (dòng).

The examples 15-20 in List 4 presents examples where *buah* is used for nouns denoting artifacts, things that are created by human. Some artifacts in Chinese, however, do not use 个 (gè) but use other classifiers as shown in examples 16-20.

Artifact (Things Created by Human)

15) *Sebuah empangan*

一个水坝

Yígè shuǐbà

One CL dam

16) *Sebuah jambat*

一座天桥

Yízuò tiānqiáo

One CL flyover

17) *Sebuah terowong*

一条隧道

Yítíáo suìdào

One CL tunnel

18) *Sebuah tembok*

一道围墙

Yídào wéiqiáng

One CL fence

19) *Sebuah mesin*

一台机械

Yítái jīxiè

One CL machine

20) *Sebuah telaga*

一口井

Yikǒujǐng

One CL well

Buah can be used for artifacts but in Chinese, certain artifacts do not use 个 (*gè*), but “座 (*zuò*)”, “条 (*tiáo*)”, “道 (*dào*)”, “台 (*tái*)”, and “口 (*kǒu*)”. As mentioned above, “道 (*dào*)” can be used for classifying things that are long and that move in a flow or stream but can also be used for classifying blocks of things such as a door or wall. For example, “一道围墙 [*yídào* (CL) *wéiqiáng*, a fence]” and “一道大门 [*yídào* (CL) *dà mén*, a big gate]”. The word 台 (*tái*) is used for classifying machines, equipment, and infrastructure. For example, “一台机械 [*yítái* (CL) *jīxiè*, a machine]” and “一台印刷机 [*yìtái* (CL) *yìnshuà jī*, a printer]”. For 口 (*kǒu*), the noun itself originally means “mouth”. Therefore, when used as a classifier, 口 (*kǒu*) is used for classifying objects with a mouth or a blade. For example, “一口井 [*yikǒu* (CL) *jǐng*, a well]”, “一口棺材 [*yikǒu* (CL) *guāncái*, a coffin]”, and “一口剑 [*yikǒu* (CL) *jiàn*, a sword]”.

Zone B: Differences - 个 (*gè*)

In this section, the differences found in the use of 个 (*gè*) and *buah* are presented with examples shown in Lists 5-10 for organ/body parts, human, fruits and food, time, direction, abstract objects or products of thought and intellect. The use of *buah* for these noun categories are not grammatical in Malay. Either a different classifier is required or no classifier is permissible in Malay as shown in examples in Lists 5-10.

Organ/ Body Parts

21) 一个脑袋

Yígè nǎodài

One CL head

**Sebuah kepala/ otak (Sebiji kepala/ otak)*

22) 一个鼻子

Yígè bízi

One CL nose

**Sebuah hidung (Satu hidung)*

The word 个 (*gè*) can be used for organs or body parts in Chinese but this is not the case in Malay. For nouns under the “organs or body parts” category, Malay uses classifiers that match the shape of the object. For example, *biji* rather than *buah* is used for “*otak* (head)” and “*mata* (eyes)”. As *biji* is used for round and small objects, it collocates with “*otak* (head)”, “*mata* (eyes)”, and “*buah dada* (breasts)”.

Human

23) 一个学生

Yígè xuéshēng

One CL student

*sebuah pelajar (seorang pelajar)

24) 一个姑娘

Yígè gūniang

One CL lady

*sebuah perempuan (seorang perempuan)

The word 个 (gè) can also be used for humans. Nonetheless, Malay uses “orang (person)” rather than *buah* for classifying nouns under the “human” category. Human classification content differs between systems (Aikhenvald, 2000). Western Austronesian languages such as Malay, Minangkabau, Acehnese, or Bahasa Indonesia have only a single overall term for “person”, for example, the Minangkabau “urang” (Aikhenvald, 2000).

For humans, 个 (gè) is used without emotional implications or personal judgement towards the person. Nevertheless, a noun classifier system perpetually expresses social status (Aikhenvald, 2000). When classifying humans or persons, a few classifiers other than 个 (gè), such as “位 (wèi)”, “名 (míng)”, “条 (tiáo)”, and “口 (kǒu)” can be collocated with nouns under the “human or person” category. The word 位 (wèi) is specifically used for people of high social status and when presenting a positive image. The use of 位 (wèi) also indicates respect for a highly esteemed person. For example, “一位医生 [yíwèi (CL) yīshēng, a doctor]”, “一位教授 [yíwèi (CL) jiàoshòu, a professor]”, and “一位老人 [yíwèi (CL) lǎorén, a senior citizen]”.

In contrast, 名 (míng) is mostly used for describing an occupation or a measure of people. For example, “一名演员 [yì míng (CL) yǎnyuán, an actor]” and “招收20名职工 [zhāoshōu 20 míng (CL) zhìgōng, recruit 20 employees]”. The word 条 (tiáo) has a unique meaning and usage. It is used for classifying things that are long and that move in a flow or stream, such as a river or ditch. It can also be used for humans and refers specifically to a hero or man. For example, “一条好汉 [yí tiáo (CL) hǎohàn, a hero]” and “一条光棍 [yí tiáo (CL) guānggùn, a bachelor]”. On the other hand, 口 (kǒu) is only used for counting the people in a family or a village. For example, “三口人 [sān kǒu (CL) rén, three people]” and “一家四口 [yí jiā sì kǒu (CL), four in the family]”.

Fruits and Food

- 25) 一个西瓜
Yígè xīguā
One CL watermelon
*Sebuah tembikai (sebiji tembikai)
- 26) 一个鸡蛋
Yígè jīdàn
One CL egg
*Sebuah telur (sebiji telur)

The word 个 (*gè*) can also be used for small fruits and food. Nevertheless, *biji* rather *buah* is used for nouns under this category in Malay. According to Zainuddin (2000), *biji* is used for small fruits and things, usually round.

The word 个 (*gè*) can also be used for nouns without specific classifiers, such as those under the “time” and “direction” categories. However, for such noun categories in Malay, the use of classifier is prohibited for nouns denoting time (List 8) and Directions (List 9). A similar situation is also found with nouns denoting abstract objects or product of thought and intellectual activities (List 10). Accordingly, the basic classifier phrase structure is changed from NUMBER + CLASSIFIER + NOUN to NUMBER + NOUN.

Time

- 27) 一个小时
Yígè xiǎoshí
One CL hour
*Sebuah jam (satu jam)
- 28) 一个月
Yígè yuè
One CL month
*Sebuah bulan (satu bulan)
- 29) 一个世纪
Yígè shìjì
One CL century
*Sebuah dekad (satu dekad)

Direction

- 30) 一个方向
Yígè fāngxiàng
One CL direction
*Sebuah arah (satu arah)

Abstract Objects/ Product of Thought and Intellectual

- 31) 一个条件
Yígè tiǎojiàn
One CL requirement
*Sebuah kriteria (satu kriteria)
- 32) 一个传统
Yígè chuántóng
One CL tradition
*Sebuah tradisi (satu tradisi)

As shown in the examples in List 10, the word 个 (*gè*) can be used for quantifying actual as well as abstract things (Chen, 2002). It can also be used for nouns under the “abstract objects or products of thought and intellect” category. By contrast, this category omits Malay classifiers for nouns, as do the “time” and “direction” categories. Therefore, the basic classifier phrase structure is changed from NUMBER + CLASSIFIER + NOUN to NUMBER + NOUN. For example, “satu tradisi (a tradition)” and “satu keputusan (a decision)”.

Zone C: Differences – Buah

The important difference between *buah* and 个 (*gè*) is that *buah* can be used for transportation, costumes, publications in book form, music instruments, kitchen utensils or gadgets, and fishing or agricultural equipment as shown in examples in List 11 to List 16.

Transport

Land.

- 33) Sebuah kereta
One CL car
*一个汽车 (一辆汽车)
* Yígè qìchē (Yíliàng qìchē)
- 34) Sebuah keretapi
One CL train
*一个火车 (一列火车)
* Yígè huǒchē (Yíliè huǒchē)
- 35) Sebuah lori
One CL lorry
*一个卡车 (一部卡车)
* Yígè kǎchē (Yíbù kǎchē)

- 36) *Sebuah kren*
One CL crane
* 一个吊车 (一架吊车)
* *Yígè diàochē (Yíjià diàochē)*

Sea.

- 37) *Sebuah feri*
One CL ferry
* 一个渡轮 (一艘渡轮)
* *Yígè dùlún (Yīsōu dùlún)*

- 38) *Sebuah kapal*
One CL boat
* 一个船 (一条船)
* *Yígè chuán (Yítíáo chuán)*

- 39) *Sebuah sampan*
One CL sampan/boat
* 一个舢舨 (一只舢舨)
* *Yígè shānbǎn (Yìzhī shānbǎn)*

- 40) *Sebuah biduk*
One CL boat
* 一个扁舟 (一片扁舟)
* *Yígè piǎnzhōu (Yípiàn piǎnzhōu)*

- 41) *Sebuah kincir*
One CL windmill
* 一个水车 (一架水车)
* *Yígè shuǐchē (Yíjià shuǐchē)*

Air.

- 42) *Sebuah kapal terbang*
One CL airplane
* 一个飞机 (一架飞机)
* *Yígè fēijī (Yíjià fēijī)*

- 43) *Sebuah roket*
One CL rocket
* 一个火箭 (一枚火箭)
* *Yígè huǒjiàn (Yīméi huǒjiàn)*

Means of transport, clothing, and housing frequently have classifiers (Aikhenvald, 2000). In Malay, nouns under the “transport”, *buah* is commonly used. According to

Ridhwan and Lai (2008), “*buah* is used to count large objects, buildings, places and vehicles” (p. 49). The nouns under the “transport” category include that for sea, land, and air transportation. Comparatively, nouns under the “transport” category in Chinese do not adopt 个 (*gè*), but use “辆 (*liàng*)”, “列 (*liè*)”, “部 (*bù*)”, “架 (*jià*)”, “艘 (*sōu*)”, “条 (*tiáo*)”, “只 (*zhī*)”, “片 (*piàn*)”, and “枚 (*méi*)”.

In Chinese, most nouns under the “land transportation” category collocate with 辆 (*liàng*), except train, which collocates only with 列 (*liè*), as the noun itself, 列 (*liè*), means “row”. As a train has rows of carriages, “train” therefore collocates with 列 (*liè*). Although some land transportation uses 部 (*bù*), 部 (*bù*) and 辆 (*liàng*) have slightly different scopes of usage. The word 辆 (*liàng*) has been used as the classifier for transportation by the ancient Chinese until today. Meanwhile, 部 (*bù*) is derived from the literal meaning “parts”. As the noun 部 (*bù*, parts) can be configured, vehicles and machines are therefore assembled from parts, explaining why they are classified using 部 (*bù*, parts). Furthermore, 辆 (*liàng*) is applied more to written language while 部 (*bù*) is applied more to spoken language (colloquial). The word 架 (*jià*) is used for classifying transport or big machines with supports and stands. Hence, airplanes, helicopters, jets, and cranes, which share the same features, fall under the same category. The word 台 (*tái*) is used for classifying machines and equipment. The important difference between 架 (*jià*) and 台 (*tái*) is that 架 (*jià*) is used not only for machines, but also for transport or vehicles. In contrast, 台 (*tái*) is used for classifying only machines and equipment but not means of transport. Thus, “机器 (*jīqì*) (machine)” can be collocated with 架 (*jià*) and 台 (*tái*), such as “一架机器 [*yìjià* (CL) *jīqì*, a machine]” and “一台机器 [*yìtái* (CL) *jīqì*, a machine]”. However, “飞机 (*fēijī*, airplane)” can only be collocated with 架 (*jià*) but not 台 (*tái*), for example, “一架飞机 [*yìjià* (CL) *fēijī*, an airplane]” and “*一台飞机 [*yìtái* (CL) *fēijī*, an airplane]”. The word 枚 (*méi*) is used solely for the air transport “rocket”.

Nouns under the “sea transport” category, such as ships and boats, take the classifiers “艘 (*sōu*)”, “条 (*tiáo*)”, and “只 (*zhī*)”, especially 艘 (*sōu*) is the more commonly used classifier among the three. Nonetheless, there are some differences among the three classifiers. 艘 (*sōu*) is used for huge ships, which are motorised vessels. While 条 (*tiáo*) is used for long objects, and it can also be used for classifying normal boats, such fishing boats, sailboats, and dragon boats. Nevertheless, 条 (*tiáo*) is never collocated with “小舟 (*xiǎozhōu*, sampan, little wooden boat)”. In general, most sea transport can be collocated with 只 (*zhī*) regardless of size, but rarely so for cruisers, giant ships, battleships, and aircraft carriers, as they are more likely to be collocated with 艘 (*sōu*). Moreover, 艘 (*sōu*) is more applicable to written language while 条 (*tiáo*) and 只 (*zhī*) are more applicable to both written or spoken language. From the noun itself, 片 (*piàn*) means “slice”. Therefore, 片 (*piàn*) is used for classifying “扁舟 (*piǎnzhōu*, a type of river fishing boat)”, which is small, flat, and thin.

Accessories

44) *Sebuah tengkolok*

One CL head (a traditional Malay headdress worn by men)

* 一个男子头巾 (一条男子头巾)

* *Yígè nánzítóujīng (Yítiao nánzítóujīng)*

45) *Sebuah topi*

One CL hat

* 一个西式帽 (一顶西式帽)

* *Yígè xīshìmào (Yīdǐng xīshìmào)*

46) *Sebuah gogal*

One CL google

* 一个护目镜 (一副护目镜)

* *Yígè hù mù jìng (Yí fù hù mù jìng)*

47) *Sebuah jam tangan*

One CL watch

* 一个表 (一块表)

* *Yígè biǎo (Yí kuài biǎo)*

48) *Sebuah roset*

One CL rosette

* 一个玫瑰花饰 (一枚玫瑰花饰)

* *Yígè méiguì huā shì (Yí méi méiguì huā shì)*

In Malay, nouns under the “accessories”, *buah* is commonly used. In comparison, in Chinese, nouns under the “accessories” category do not adopt 个 (*gè*). Rather, “条 (*tiáo*)”, “顶 (*dǐng*)”, “副 (*fù*)”, “块 (*kuài*)”, and “枚 (*méi*)” are used based on the noun with which they are collocated. 条 (*tiáo*) can be used for the traditional male Malay headdress, towels, necklaces, and neckties. The word 顶 (*dǐng*) is used for hats while 副 (*fù*) is used for items that come in pairs or sets, such as goggles, spectacles, chess, and dentures. The word 块 (*kuài*) is used for things in blocks or pieces, such as watches, handkerchiefs, and mirrors. As mentioned earlier, 枚 (*méi*) is used for rockets. Nevertheless, for “accessories” nouns, 枚 (*méi*) is used for classifying small shiny items, such as rosettes, medals, buttons, and rings.

Home Furniture & Appliances

49) *Sebuah katil*

One CL bed

* 一个床 (一张床)

* *Yígè chuáng (Yí zhāng chuáng)*

50) *Sebuah kerusi*

One CL chair

* 一个椅子 (一把椅子)

* *Yígè yǐzi (Yībǎ yǐzi)*

51) *Sebuah bangku*

One CL bench

* 一个板凳 (一条板凳)

* *Yígè bǎndèng (Yìtiǎo bǎndèng)*

52) *Sebuah kipas*

One CL fan

* 一个风扇 (一台风扇)

* *Yígè fēngshàn (Yítái fēngshàn)*

53) *Sebuah lampu*

One CL lamp

* 一个灯 (一盏灯)

* *Yígè dēng (Yìzhǎn dēng)*

In Malay, nouns under the “home furniture and appliances”, *buah* is commonly used. In Chinese, such nouns do not adopt 个 (*gè*). Rather, “张 (*zhāng*)”, “把 (*bǎ*)”, “条 (*tiǎo*)”, “台 (*tái*)”, and “盏 (*zhǎn*)” are used based on the noun with which they are collocated. The word 张 (*zhāng*) is used for classifying things with flat surfaces, such as desks, tables, and beds. It can also be collocated with chairs but most of the time 把 (*bǎ*) is more commonly used for classifying chairs. This is because 把 (*bǎ*) is used for classifying things with handles, such as chairs, axes, brooms, and scissors. The word 条 (*tiǎo*) can be used for classifying many different things as mentioned earlier. The word 条 (*tiǎo*) can be used for classifying human specially to a hero or a man; thing that move in flow or stream, such as drain, creek and river; things in long shape and can be bended, such as traditional male Malay headdress, towels, necklaces, and neckties. Besides, 条 (*tiǎo*) can also be used for classifying things that is long but hard, such as a bench. As mentioned earlier, 台 (*tái*) is used for classifying machines and equipment, which includes electric fans, while 盏 (*zhǎn*) is specifically used for classifying lights or lamps.

Publication

54) *Sebuah komik*

One CL comic

* 一个漫画 (一本漫画)

* *Yígè mànhuà (Yìběn mànhuà)*

- 55) *Sebuah majalah*
One CL magazine
* 一个杂志 (一份杂志)
* *Yígè zázhi (Yībēn/ Yífèn zázhi)*

- 56) *Sebuah peta*
One CL map
* 一个地图 (一张地图)
* *Yígè dìtú (Yìzhāng dìtú)*

- 57) *Sebuah rencana*
One CL article
* 一个文章 (一篇文章)
* *Yígè wénzhāng (Yìpiān wénzhāng)*

In Malay, nouns denoting products of “publication”, *buah* is commonly used. In Chinese, such nouns do not adopt 个 (*gè*), but use “本 (*běn*)”, “份 (*fèn*)”, “张 (*zhāng*)”, and “篇 (*piān*)” according to the collocated noun. The word 本 (*běn*) is used for classifying books, such as diaries, dictionaries, and comics while 份 (*fèn*) is used for classifying newspapers and magazines, files, and telegrams. The word 张 (*zhāng*) is used for classifying items with flat surfaces. In addition, 张 *zhāng* is also used for classifying objects that can be rolled up and stretched out (open like a book), such as paper, maps, notices, and straw mats. The word 篇 (*piān*) is used for classifying paper, book pages [one 篇 (*piān*) is equivalent to two pages], and articles.

Musical Instrument

- 58) *Sebuah gendang*
One CL drum
* 一个鼓 (一面鼓)
* *Yígè gǔ (Yímiàn gǔ)*
- 59) *Sebuah viola*
One CL viola
* 一个中提琴 (一把中提琴)
* *Yígè zhōngtíqín (Yíbǎ zhōngtíqín)*
- 60) *Sebuah rekorder*
One CL recorder
* 一个直笛 (一支直笛)
* *Yígè zhídí (Yìzhī zhídí)*

In Malay, nouns under the “musical instruments”, *buah* is commonly used. In Chinese, such nouns do not adopt 个 (*gè*), but use “面 (*miàn*)”, “把 (*bǎ*)”, and “支 (*zhī*)”. As a noun, 面 (*miàn*) means “face”. As a classifier, 面 (*miàn*) is used for flat-

surface items such as drums, tambourines, little gongs, paper, mirror and wall. As stated in an earlier section, 把 (*bǎ*) is used for classifying objects with handles. Nevertheless, 把 (*bǎ*) can also be used for violas, violins, and xylophones. This is because these musical instruments share the features of objects with handles. The word 支 (*zhī*) is specifically used for classifying rod-shaped objects, such as recorders and flutes.

Performance

61) *Sebuah lagu*

One CL song

* 一个歌 (一首歌)

* *Yígè gē (Yìshǒu gē)*

62) *Sebuah tarian*

One CL dance

* 一个舞 (一支舞)

* *Yígè wǔ (Yìzhī wǔ)*

63) *Sebuah konsert*

One CL concert

* 一个演唱会 (一场演唱会)

* *Yígè yǎnchànghuì (Yìchǎng yǎnchànghuì)*

In Malay, “performance” nouns use no other classifiers but *buah*. In Chinese, such nouns do not use 个 (*gè*), but use “首 (*shǒu*)”, “支 (*zhī*)”, and “场 (*chǎng*)” based on the noun to be collocated. The word 首 (*shǒu*) is used for classifying music or literature such as songs, or poems while 支 (*zhī*) can also be used for classifying songs but cannot be used for poems. Nonetheless, 支 (*zhī*) can be applied to dance or even orchestra. Furthermore, 首 (*shǒu*) is applied more to written language while 支 (*zhī*) is applied more to spoken language. On the other hand, 场 (*chǎng*) is specifically used for classifying stage performances such as dramas and pantomimes.

Conclusion

As conclusion, there are some similarities exist and both classifiers can be used interchangeably with some nouns, these classifiers are unique and have distinctive semantic usage. Both 个 (*gè*) and *buah* are used for organisation, products of nature, buildings and places, and artifacts (things created by humans). However, only 个 (*gè*) can be used for organs or body parts, humans, fruits and food, time, directions, and thought and intellectual products. In contrast, only *buah* is used for transportation, accessories, home furniture and appliances, publications, musical instruments, and performances.

The similarities found between the Chinese classifier 个 (*gè*) and the Malay classifier *buah* in this study show that two different languages share similar thought

and cognitive patterns regarding the same object. The differences between the two may due to cultural practices, historical influences, and societal norms unique to each linguistic community. For instance, in classifying nouns within the “human” category, Malay utilizes the classifier *orang*, whereas Chinese employs 个 (*gè*) which is without emotional implications or personal judgement towards the individual. Additional classifiers in Chinese, such as 位 (*wèi*), 名 (*míng*), 条 (*tiáo*), and 口 (*kǒu*), often convey nuances of social status. Consequently, while these classifiers share fundamental cognitive functions, their divergences reflect the diverse cultural perspectives embedded within language usage.

However, this study exclusively focuses on comparing the Chinese and Malay language classifiers documented in dictionaries. Therefore, it is recommended that future research endeavors involve an investigation into the proficiency of classifier usage in either language among Malaysians. This suggestion arises from previous studies indicating a gradual decline in proficiency across generations. Such inquiries would yield valuable insights into second language acquisition and pedagogy.

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A LEXICAL AND POST-LEXICAL PROSODIC DOCUMENTATION OF EMBALOH LANGUAGE

Yusup IRAWAN¹

Foni Agus SETIAWAN*²

Dedy Ari ASFAR³

Irmayani⁴

Herpanus⁵

Muhammad PRAMULYA⁶

^{1,2,3,4}National Research and Innovation Agency (BRIN), Indonesia

⁵STKIP Persada Khatulistiwa, Indonesia

⁶Tanjungpura University, Indonesia

yusu019@brin.go.id

foni001@brin.go.id

dedy018@brin.go.id

irma013@brin.go.id

herpanus2003@yahoo.co.id

muhammad.pramulya@gmail.com

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

This research investigated the prosody of the Embaloh language, which has yet to be widely explored, to document and preserve the language. The method used is data collection of spontaneous and non-spontaneous speeches from 12 native speakers. Prosodic analysis was then carried out based on visualising and observing speech sound waves using the autosegmental-metrical theory (AM) framework. The results show that prominence tends to be on the right edge at both lexical and post-lexical prosodic levels. The findings show that the Embaloh language is outside the mainstream of Austronesian languages, which places word stress at the penultimate syllable. At the post-lexical level in interrogative intonation, phrases with a question word are marked by the pitch accent located at the target question word in the nuclear contour of the phrase. The pitch accent follows the position of the question word in the intonation phrase, forward or backward, with one of the following tones: H* (high), LH* (low-high), or LHL* (low-high-low). The intonation of the question is indicated by the H(high) tone at the end of the phrase. The H (high) tone also acts as a boundary tone represented by H*% (high).

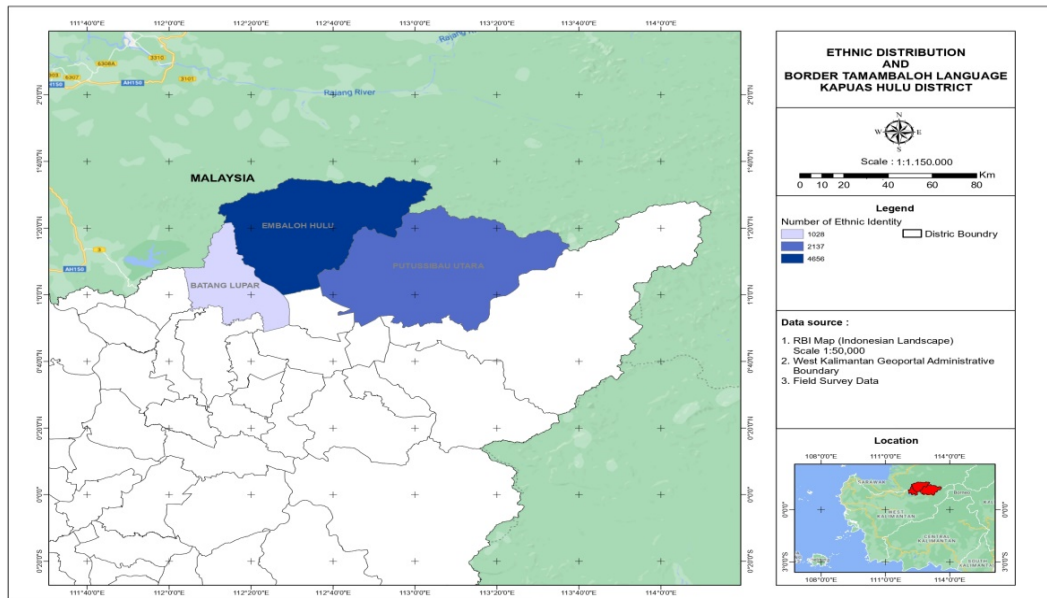
Keywords: intonation; prosody; lexical; post-lexical; Embaloh; Dayak

Introduction

As the third largest island in the world, Borneo or Kalimantan Island is home to some 100 Austronesian languages, and they are poorly documented (Smith, 2017). The area in Borneo where the language is the least documented is West Kalimantan (Adelaar, 2010a). The Embaloh language with the ISO code 639-3, also known as the Tamambaloh language or Maloh language, is one of the less documented languages on the island of Borneo. This language is spoken by the Tamambaloh Dayak tribe, one of the Dayak tribes in the deep interior of West Kalimantan. The tribe that lives around the Embaloh River and upstream of the Kapuas River still maintains their traditional cultures, including marriage (Barella, 2020). Based on our interviews, the tribe is still practising swidden agriculture. The Embaloh language is estimated to have at most 10,000 speakers (Eberhard et al., 2022). According to the local administrative authorities, there are about 7,000 Embaloh speakers. In our survey in May 2022, the distribution of this small language was not broad, which was only around (1) Embaloh Hulu Subdistrict (in the Villages of *Banua Martinus*, *Menua Sadap*, *Pulau Manak*, *Banua Ujung*, *Saujung Giling Manik*, *Ulak Pauk*, *Langan Baru*, and *Tamao*), (2) Batang Lupar Subdistrict (in the Village of *Sungai Ajung* at *Dusun Nanga Ngaun* and *Dusun Ganti*; the Village of *Labian* at *Dusun Tumbali* and *Dusun Ukit-Ukit*; the Village of *Labian Ira'ang* at *Dusun Bakul* and *Dusun Kereng Lunsu*) and (3) North Putussibau Subdistrict (in the Village of *Nanga Nyabau*, *Benua Tengah*, *Sungai Uluk Palin*, *Lauk*, and *Jangkang*). All the distribution areas of the Embaloh language are in Kapuas Hulu Regency. The distribution area of the Embaloh language is very far in the interior of West Kalimantan, bordering Sarawak, Malaysia, in the heart of Borneo Island (see Figure 1). The Embaloh Dayak tribe has only been accessible by road since 2020.

The Embaloh language is grouped into the Tamanic language family, such as the Kalis and Taman languages (Adelaar, 2010a, 2010b; Soriente, 2012; Wadley, 2013). Tamanic languages have many similarities with the languages in South Sulawesi, such as the Toraja and Bugis. Adelaar (2010b) asserts that the Tamanic languages and languages in South Sulawesi are distinct subgroups within the West Malayo Polynesian family. Eberhard et al. (2022) classify the Tamanic languages, including the Embaloh language, into the South Sulawesi language subgroup. It should be noted that the location of Tamanic languages is far from the location of the languages of South Sulawesi, which is on different islands. The distance between the two is about a thousand kilometres. The separation of Tamanic languages, including the Embaloh language, from the languages in South Sulawesi gave rise to three theories, namely (1) the migration of the South Sulawesi people to the island of Borneo (2) the migration of the Bornean people to South Sulawesi, or (3) a group of speakers from other places split off to Borneo and South Sulawesi (Adelaar, 2010b).

Figure 1
Map of the Embaloh Language Distribution Area



The significant influence of Malay and Iban Dayak languages as the dominant languages along the Kapuas Hulu and Embaloh rivers puts the Embaloh language under pressure. Many research informants said that most Embaloh Dayak children no longer learned the Embaloh language. According to Adelaar (1995), many speakers of the Embaloh language can speak Iban, and this ability has absorbed a lot of Iban vocabulary into the Embaloh language (Adelaar, 1995). This matter has also been confirmed by one of our informants, a native speaker and an Embaloh language preservation activist, Ms. Claudia Liberani. Additionally, our observations in the field found that many speakers of the Embaloh language can also speak the Malay language, and the language influenced the Embaloh language.

Basic information about the phonological aspect of the Embaloh language is provided in Adelaar (1995) and Buu (2009). The Embaloh language has a five-vowel system, namely, /i, e, a, o, and u/. This language has 14 consonants /p, t, k, b, d, g, j, m, n, ɲ, r, l, s/, and two semivowels /w, y/. The glottal sound /ʔ/ in that language is not phonemic. The word stress in this language falls on the penultimate syllable and is not distinctive (Adelaar, 1995; Buu, 2009). Not much information can be obtained about the prosodic system of the Embaloh language other than the word stress given by Adelaar and Buu.

Prosody is an integral part of spoken language. It delivers linguistic grammar, emotional states, and communicative intents of speakers. Furthermore, prosody has essential roles in cueing other structures such as clause boundary location, preposition, and relative clause attachment (Cho, 2016; Prieto, 2015; Venditti & Hirschberg, 2013). Prosodic parameters, mainly fundamental frequency, play a major role at two main levels: word level (*lexical prosody*) and utterance level (*post-lexical prosody*) (Himmelman & Ladd, 2008). At the lexical level, prosodic cues

contribute to marking a stress pattern of the word by a prominent constituent. At the utterance level, the parameters mark the distinction between sentence types (statements vs questions), and they are related to the informational and grammatical structures of the utterance (Horgues, 2013).

Prosodic studies at the word level reveal the prosodic characteristics of a language as a tonal language (lexical tone language), for example, in Mandarin or English, as a stressed language, or as a non-stressed language, for instance, in Betawi Malay (van Heuven et al., 2008). In tonal language, differences in tone can distinguish lexical meanings. In stressed language, there are prominent syllables in a word (Zanten & Goedemans, 2009), but the prominence of these syllables does not cause lexical differences. Stress is an abstract property of syllables in the word domain. These properties make a syllable in a word more prominent or stand out from other syllables (Dixon & Aikhenvald, 2003; Van Zanten & Goedemans, 2009). These prominences can only distinguish word classes, for example, the word “PERmit” as a noun and “perMIT” as a verb (Himmelman & Ladd, 2008). There is a crucial difference between tone and stress. In the tone language, there is no difference in prominence associated with the syllables that make up the word, while stress is a culminating property: only one syllable is the strongest. A language can be a tone or a stressed language, but it cannot be both except for certain languages because of language contact (van Heuven, 2018; van Heuven & Faust, 2009).

Prosodic studies at the post-lexical level reveal contour patterns of sentence mode, for example, declarative-interrogative sentences and sentence accents or intonation phrase accents. In intonation contours, generally, low-rising contours are significantly more likely to indicate declarativeness, while high-rising intonation contours are significantly more likely to indicate interrogativeness (Jeong, 2016). Then, in spontaneous speech, speech exchange tends to be faster between speakers (Bazarbayeva et al., 2021). In standard Italian, for example, questions that require yes/no are marked with an ascending contour at the end of the phrase as well as the contour that doubles as boundary marking and describes the information status of the question, whether it is conveyed with low confidence or high confidence (Grice & Savino, 1997).

Three intonational tones are important markers of prosodic constituents: pitch accent, phrase accent, and boundary tone. Pitch accent marks prominence. Phrase accent marks the end of intermediate phrases, and boundary tone signals the end of intonation phrases (Beckman & Pierrehumbert, 1986). Prominence in intonation phrases is qualitatively different from prominence at the lexical level. Word prominence is usually termed “stress”, while prominence at the phrase level is termed intonational pitch accent (Shattuck-Hufnagel & Turk, 1996). Sadeghi (2021) found that the tonal structure in a fundamental frequency contour (F0) between the pitch accent and the end of the utterance differs in the two syntaxes. The L-L% tonal structure characterizes declarativeness and the L-H structure characterises interrogativeness. Furthermore, the intonation difference between statements and questions is limited to the characteristics of boundary tones and includes L and H tone patterns in the prenuclear domain and pitch accent (Sadeghi, 2021).

This prosody research will complete the information about the phonology of the Embaloh language. Due to the lack of Embaloh prosodic information,

documenting the language's prosodic grammar would help preserve the language. This study focuses on describing the prosodic system of the Embaloh language at the lexical and post-lexical levels. The observations in the study aim to observe the tone pattern through the contour of the fundamental frequency (F0). This article describes the prosodic system of the Embaloh language at the lexical and post-lexical prosody.

Methodology

Due to the lack of access to a phonetic laboratory, the data were taken at the location where the Embaloh speakers are staying. Therefore, field research was conducted. This study covers data collection in the field, interactions between the researchers and study subjects, and documentation (Queirós et al., 2017). The researchers spent 14 days in the field to collect the data. As Sherwood (2020) suggested, we set elicitation tasks to provide the speech data. We collected two types of data: spontaneous speech (*uncontrolled speech*) and non-spontaneous speech (*controlled speech*). The two data types are equally important (Yun et al., 2015). The recordings of spontaneous speeches contain more phonetic, phonological, and sociolinguistic phenomena and provide a broader perspective for researchers, providing a particular language's pragmatic and social context (Sherwood, 2020; Weonhee, 2015). In this study, 12 native speakers of the Embaloh language were involved, consisting of six males and six females. They were from different villages, social statuses, and occupations (see Table 1).

For the elicitation tasks, the first step was to gain spontaneous speeches, where we asked the informants or speakers to make unstructured narratives (Beckeman, 1997) by prompting them with open-ended questions. We let the speakers introduce themselves and tell their backgrounds in an informal conversation. In the second step, each speaker was asked to produce *an extended* descriptive narrative (Beckeman, 1997). In the last step, we asked the speakers to make short dialogues without guidance or text. They were allowed to choose any dialogue topics they used in daily conversations. Finally, we collected 12 personal introductions, 12 monologues (unstructured narratives), eight folktales (extended descriptive narratives), and 30 spontaneous question/answer conversations from them. The folktale titles can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Information of the Embaloh Language Speakers and Embaloh Folktales

Speaker Code	Status	Gender	Age	Occupation	Folktale Title	Address
KI	married	female	50	housewife	<i>Be' Saladang</i>	Balimbis, Banua Ujung
LL	married	female	39	farmer	<i>Bunining</i> (A story about an older woman who	Labian Iraang, Banua Ujung

					searches for fish)	
EN	married	male	48	farmer	The Origin of <i>Sao Langke Village</i>	Ulak Pauh
KMS	widow	female	53	housewife	<i>Kakek Sule</i> (A story about an old lazy man)	Banua Ujung
NN	widower	male	73	farmer	<i>Kakek Songkalang</i> (A story about an older man)	Banua Ujung
GK	widow	female	76	housewife	<i>Si Dudungus</i>	Bukung
LA	married	male	59	housewife	A story of the move of <i>Sao Langke</i>	Bukung
MS	married	male	70	farmer	<i>Kakek Utut</i> (A story about the origin of Labian)	Labian
DA	single	male	27	government officer	-	Labian
O	single	female	29	teacher	-	Iraang
KO	married	male	50	teacher	-	Banua Ujung
CL	single	female	26	unemployed	-	Banua Ujung

We provided a set of prepared sentences the speakers must read, remember, and state as naturally as possible to gain non-spontaneous data. The spoken sentence modes include declarative and interrogative sentences. The native speakers have corrected these sentences according to their habits. This kind of data was compared with the spontaneous data. Non-spontaneous speech data are also needed to investigate the prosodic structure of the Embaloh language words. For this purpose, we provided an expanded set of Swadesh word lists (Moris, 1955). We asked four speakers to pronounce these words. Then, we compiled a set of affixed words and asked the speakers to pronounce them.

The speech sound waves were observed using the Praat programme at the analysis stage. It is a computer programme for analysing, synthesising, and manipulating speech developed by Paul Boersma and David Weenink (Boersma & van Heuven, 2001; Boersma & Wening, 2013). Visualising speech can help to analyse the correct intonation pattern (Costille, 2022). The SoundEditor window on Praat is tuned with a broadband spectrogram setting. A broadband setting accentuates the tone of speech more. The acoustic parameter that is the focus of observation is the fundamental frequency (F0). Meanwhile, the prosodic contour analysis used the Autosegmental-Metrical Theory (AM) framework. In the AM theory, intonation contours can be broken into intonational tones. Apart from explicitly being the

prosodic identity of a syllable, these tones can also be the identity of a broader phrase (Pierrehumbert, 1980). A tone contour consists of a sequence of tone levels. The HL pitch is a sequence of H (high) and L (low) tones.

The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Ethics Committee of the National Research and Innovation Agency, Republic of Indonesia (Protocol Code: 008/KE.01/SK/3/2022 (approval date: 31 March 2022)).

Results

Word Prosody

Words in the Embaloh language are generally formed in two-syllabic (disyllabic) formations, for example [lamba] for “walk”, [lindo] for “face”, [lila] for “tongue”, [baba] for “mouth”, [silu] for “nail”, [dara] for “blood”, [jolo] for “first”, [ulu] for “head” and [torong] for “forehead”. Some words are in polysyllabic form, with three or four syllables. Words with a three-syllable composition, for example, [tampilik] for “cheek”, [tatawa] for “laugh”, [mamama] for “chew”, [mariko] for “cook”, [saringkan] for “vegetable”, [atutung] for “gosong”, and [kayoko] for “left” are the second commonly found form in the Embaloh language. In contrast, word forms with a composition of more than three syllables are very rare. Words with four and five syllables are generally in the form of compound words or phrases, for example, [kalang ulu] for “pillow”, [sarang bawi] for “pigsty” and [kalian bawi] for “pig quarry”. Words consisting of only one syllable are also found in the Embaloh language. However, there are very few, for example, [o] for “yes”, [ko] for “imperative auxiliary”, [ja] for “only”, [jang] for “calling for a boy”, [dar] for “kitchen”, and [but] for squirrel. Table 2 shows that the basic form of the lexicon in the Embaloh language consists of two or three syllables.

Most of the word stress in the Embaloh language is located on the right (right edge). However, the stress is not distinctive or distinguishes the lexical meaning. The location of the lexical stress in the Embaloh language is generally in the final syllable. The evidence in Figure 2 shows that the lexical stress is at the word’s final syllable, for example, in [bukut] or “punch”. A low, high tone is commonly used in prosodic words in the Embaloh language. The pitch increase from L to H is about 3–4 semitones. Acoustic properties that can mark the word stress consist of contour, intensity, and duration of a syllable that is longer than the duration of the previous syllable. If the stress is realised with an L tone, the intensity and duration of acoustic properties will be more prominent.

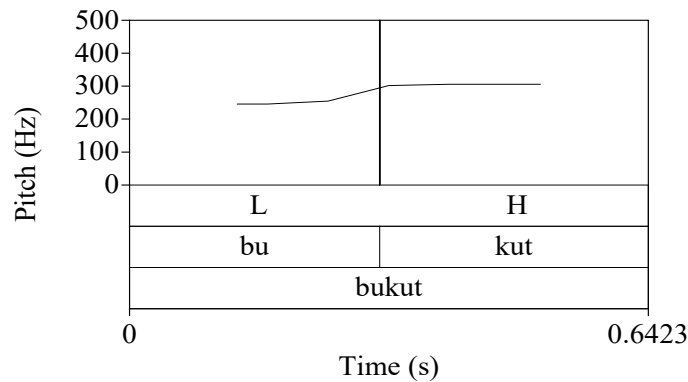
Table 2
Syllable Formation of Embaloh Language Words

Observed Word Shape	Number	Percentage
One syllable	12	2.5
Two syllables	285	63.3
Three syllables	110	24.3

Four syllables	37	8.1
Five syllables	4	1.6
Six syllables	1	0.2
Total	449	100

Figure 2

Word Stress at the Word's Final Syllable [bukut] "Punch"



In the Embaloh language, stress is generally consistent at the final syllable. The stress does not shift when the target word is affixed. For example, in polysyllabic (three syllables) words, the stress remains in the last syllable. Example (1a) – (1c) shows that affixation does not affect the position of stress. It remains at the end of syllables. Similarly, the same happens when the word turns into a passive form; the stress still occurs at the last syllable.

- (1) a. [bu'kut] [mamu'kut]
 "punch" "to punch"
 base word *active form*
- b. [ju'lu] [julu'ang] [taju'lu]
 "push" "to push" "pushed"
 base word *active form* *passive form*
- c. [nuang] [manu'ang] [danu'ang]
 "submit" "to submit" submitted
 base word *active form* *passive form*

Interrogative Intonation with Question Word

In the Embaloh language, the position of question words in interrogative sentences, for example, [ai] for "what", [insa] for "how much", [nanandisi] for "when", and [intain] for "who" are usually at the beginning of the sentence. However, in certain contexts, the interrogative sentences can be placed at the end of the sentence and are still considered acceptable sentences. Interrogative sentences containing

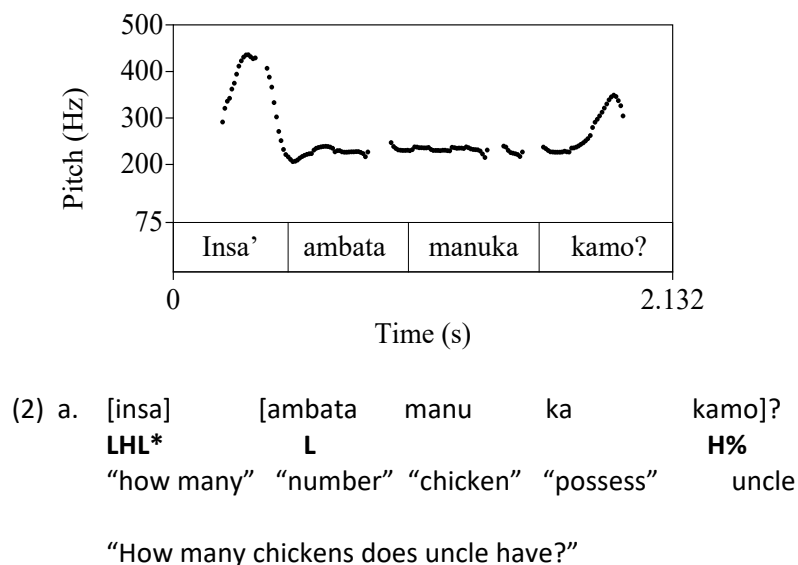
question words are usually marked by a nuclear pitch accent or a pitch accent on the question word. The tone H*, LH* or LHL* are the main characteristics of the tone accent in the question word. Because the peak of the tone of the intonation phrase is in the question word constituent, the pitch accent becomes the culminating domain of the intonation phrase at the location of the question word.

In Figure 3, the sentence “*Insa ambata manuka, kamo?*” Alternatively, “How many chickens does uncle have?” was spoken by a female Embaloh speaker in one intonation phrase with two phonological phrases or intermediate phrases, namely, (1) “*Insa ambata manuka*” and (2) “*kamo*”. The LHL tone marks the first phonological phrase, while the H% boundary tone marks the second phonological phrase. The boundary tone H% characterises the whole intonation phrase. The pitch accent, the culminating domain of intonation phrases, falls in the word “*insa*” or “how many”. The highest pitch in the spoken intonation phrase characterises the pitch accent. The accent pitch, which falls in the word “*insa*” or “how many”, becomes the head of the intonation phrase of the interrogative sentence.

If the question word is at the end of the sentence, the pitch accent will shift to the end of the sentence following the question word. This happens because the question word functioning to ask for information becomes the focus of the sentence information structure. In this context, the tone at the end of the sentence has a dual role: pitch accent and boundary tone. In example (2a), the pitch accent is at the beginning of the intonation phrase because the question word is at the beginning of the sentence. The intonation phrase in (2a) is marked by a boundary tone H%, which indicates interrogativeness. When the question word is in the middle of a sentence, the pitch accent will shift to the middle of the intonation phrase, as in (2b). In the sentence “*Kamo, asi jalu itatak iki?*” or “Uncle, what goods are cut by us?” the pitch accent shifted to the word “*asi*” or “what”.

Figure 3

Interrogative Intonation Contour with Question Word at the Beginning of a Sentence



b. [kamo] [asi] [jalu itatak iki]?
L H LH* L H%]
 “uncle” “what” “goods” “cut” (passive verb) “we”

“Uncle, what goods are cut by us?”

In examples (3a) and (3b), the pitch accent is articulated by speakers in different intonation variations. In (3a), the pitch accent is at the beginning of the intonation phrase in the question word domain “*intain*” or “whom”, while in (3b), the pitch accent is at the end of the intonation phrase and is still in the question word domain “*intain*” or “whom”.

(3) a. [intain] [itiang iko kamo]
LH* L H%
 “whom” “hit” “you” “uncle”

“Whom did you hit, uncle?”

The intonation contours in Figure 4 and Figure 5 show different locations of the pitch accent of the intonation phrase with the question word at the beginning and the intonation phrase with the question word at the end of the intonation phrase. This additional fact confirms that the pitch accent tends to be in the question word constituent in interrogative sentences with question words. If the question word is at the end of the intonation phrase, the tone of the question word has a dual role, namely, as a pitch accent and boundary tone. Phonetically, the typical peak of the nuclear pitch accent on the question word can reach 50-200Hz as measured from the baseline contour of the intonation phrase.

(3) b. [kamo] [maniang loa' intain]
LH L H*%
 “uncle” “hit” “you” “whom”

“Uncle, whom did you hit?”

Figure 4

Interrogative Intonation Contour with Question Word “intain” (Whom) at the Beginning of a Sentence

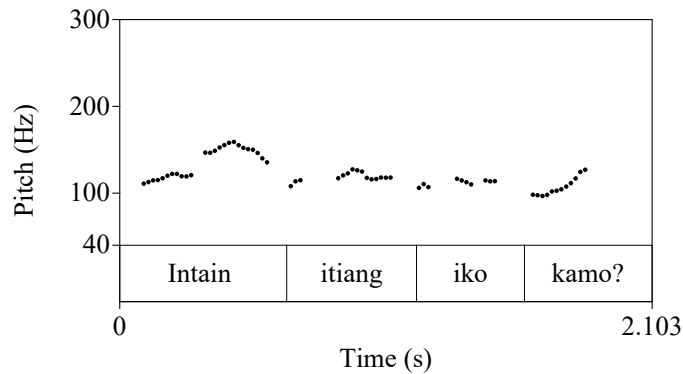
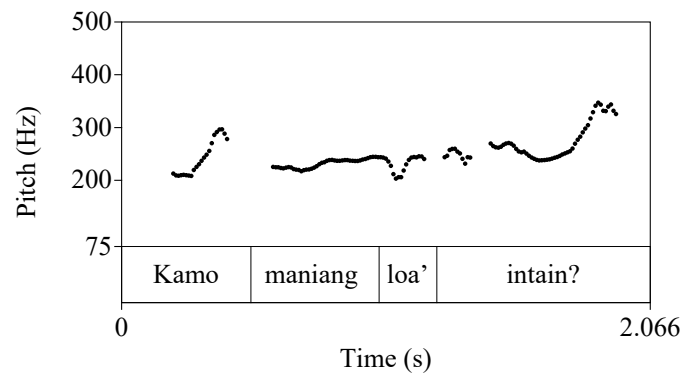


Figure 5

Interrogative Intonation Contour with Question Word “intain” (Whom) at the End of a Sentence



Yes/No Interrogative Intonation

It is called a yes/no interrogative sentence when the sentence needs a yes or no answer. This is also called an echoic or a polar question (Grice & Savino, 1997). This sentence does not use a question word. Lexically, this sentence is a declarative sentence, but it is pronounced with interrogative intonation so that semantically, it contains the illocutionary question sentence.

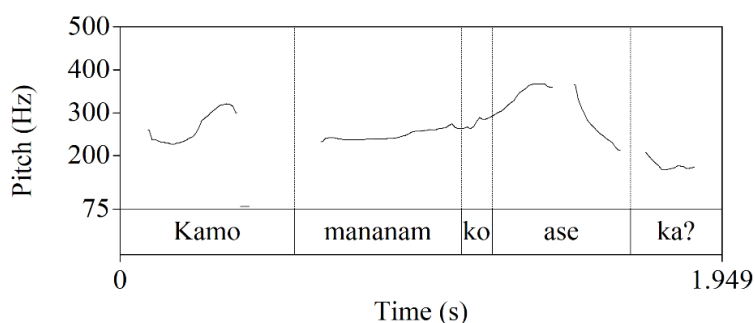
The intonation of interrogative sentences with yes/no answers (yes/no question) in the Embaloh language has differences and similarities with the intonation of interrogative sentences with question words. As previously explained, interrogative sentences with question words in the Embaloh language are characterised by pitch accents on the question words' constituents. If the question word shifts from the left side to the right side, the accent pitch follows the question word constituents. If the question word is on the right or at the end of the sentence, the accent pitch will also act as a boundary marker of the spoken intonation phrase.

The boundary tone of the intonation phrases of interrogative sentences with question words in the Embaloh language is marked by H%.

The intonation of yes/no interrogative sentences in the Embaloh language is characterised by a pitch accent on the penultimate syllable or pre-final word. This intonation structure is different from the intonation structure of interrogative sentences with question words in the Embaloh language in terms of the location of the pitch accent. The pitch accent of interrogative sentences with question words in the Embaloh language usually follows the position of the question word in the sentence, while the accent pitch in yes/no interrogative sentences is always in the pre-final syllable in the spoken intonation phrase.

Figure 6 describes a sample of yes/no intonation contour in the Embaloh language, “*Kamo mananam ko ase ka?*” or “Uncle, did you plant paddy?” The interrogative sentence’s pitch accent is located at the prefinal syllable at the second word, “*ase*” or “paddy”, with the tonal structure H*. The boundary tone in yes/no interrogative sentences in this type of sentence is L%.

Figure 6
Yes/No Question Intonation Contour



(4)	[kamo]	[mananam	ko	ase	ka]?
	L H	L		H*	L%
	“uncle”	“plant”	“you”	“paddy”	“question particle”
“Uncle, did you plant paddy?”					

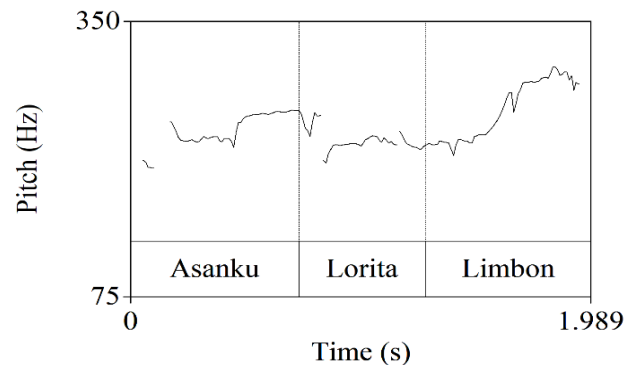
Declarative Intonation

The pitch accent location on the intonation contour of the statement usually falls on the last syllable of the intonation phrase. If it does not fall on that syllable, the pitch accent will fall on the penultimate syllable, but that rarely happens. The location of the pitch accent in the declarative intonation phrase is in line with the word stress in the Embaloh language, that is, the stress falls on the last syllable. The penultimate syllable with a pitch accent and the last syllable with or without a pitch accent usually experience extreme lengthening. Accentual lengthening in the last syllable also serves as a boundary tone with a tone of H*%. Boundary tones without a pitch accent have an L% tone. Suppose a declarative sentence intonation phrase consists

of two phonological phrases. In that case, the first has an H edge tone followed by an L tone as the beginning of the second phonological phrase, which becomes the domain of the pitch accent on the penultimate syllable or final syllable.

Figure 7

Declarative Intonation Contour with Default Pitch Accent at the End of Intonation Phrase



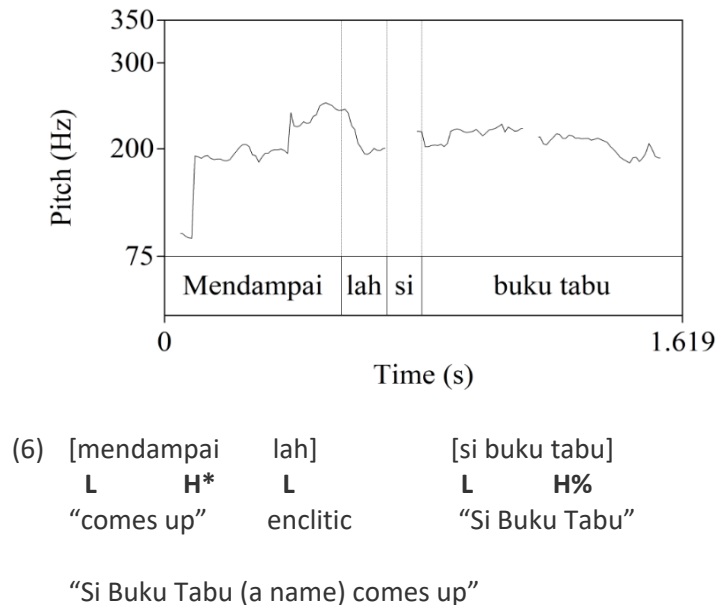
- (5) [asanku] [lorita limbon]
 LH **L** **H*%**
 “my name” “Lorita Limbon”
 “My name is Lorita Limbon”

Figure 7 presents the default intonation contour of the declarative intonation phrases spoken by an Embaloh Dayak woman, “*Asanku Lorita Limbon*” or “My name is Lorita Limbon”. The intonation phrase consists of two phonological phrases: “*Asanku*” or “my name”, which acts as the subject, and “*Lorita Limbon*”, which acts as the predicate. The first phonological phrase, “*Asanku*”, is characterised by an LH tone structure. Tone H acts as the edge tone of the phrase. Then, the second phonological phrase, “*Lorita Limbon*”, begins with an L tone and ends with an H tone in the final syllable. However, the H tone in the phrase acts as a pitch accent and boundary tone that characterises the entire target intonation phrase, giving it the notation H*%.

A pitch accent in a declarative intonation phrase can shift when a constituent is given the focus of information. The pitch of the accent will be in the constituent of the word that is in focus, and the accent will be on the last syllable of the word; however, if the word contains a clitic, for example, enclitic “*-lah*” (the affirmation enclitic), the pitch accent of the focused word shifts to the pre-final syllable. In Figure 8, for the word “*mendampailah*”, the location of the pitch accent constituent is located at the end of the first phonological phrase. This phrase also serves as a nuclear contour. The pitch accent in the phrase becomes the culmination of the target intonation phrase. In Figure 8, the pitch accent is not in the pre-final syllable in the first phonological phrase because the final syllable is occupied by the enclitic “*-lah*”.

Figure 8

Intonation Contour with Default Pitch Accent at the End of Declarative Intonation Phrase



Discussion

The analysis shows that the Embaloh language has a prominent pattern at the word prosody level at the last syllable. The location of the stress or accent of the word is not affected by the number of syllables or the affixation process. The Embaloh language is more accurately categorised as fixed-stressed because the word stress tends to be consistent in the last syllable. For languages with fixed stress, just one rule determines the position of the word stress for the entire lexicon (van Heuven, 2018). The stress pattern categorises the Embaloh language as a language with a right-edge word stress system because the culminating constituent falls on the last syllable. We found no distinctive tonal contrast in the language. Therefore, the Embaloh language cannot be categorised as a tone language such as Mandarin or lau. Word stress in the Embaloh language also functions as a boundary marking or a right edge marking for the word. Moreover, the word stress in the Embaloh language is typologically different from that in Indonesian. In Indonesian, the word stress is inconsistent in certain syllables (Zanten & Heuven, 2004). The pattern of fixed stress in the prosodic word system in Embaloh is also different from that in most Austronesian languages. Most Austronesian languages emphasise the penultimate syllable (Goedemans & Hulst, 2013). See also Stoel (2007), who found stress in the penultimate syllable in Manado Malay. This finding also differs from Adelaar (1995), which stated that word stress location in the Embaloh language was at the penultimate syllable. The word prosody of the Embaloh language also has different characteristics from one of the languages in the same subgroup, namely, the Bugis language, which is geographically located very far from the Embaloh language (about 1,000 kilometres). In this language, the stress falls on the

penultimate syllable in words with three or more syllables. However, the stress can fall either on the first or the last syllable in the words of two syllables. Moreover, the stress can be contrastive, for example, ['asu] for “dog” and [a'su] for “to go” (Valls, 2014). On the other hand, the word prosody of the Embaloh language is contrastive like the Bugis language.

In the context of post-lexical prosody, the position of the question word in the intonation phrase determines the position of the pitch accent. The pitch accent with an F0 peak is usually in the question word domain and is always at the end of the syllable in the question word. If the question word is at the end of the phrase, the pitch accent is automatically located at the end of the phrase. The pitch accent will be at the beginning of the intonation phrase if the target question word is in front, but the peak F0 remains in the final syllable in the nuclear contour, which is the domain of the pitch accent. The position of the pitch accent, which is always on the question word, indicates that the focus of the information in the interrogative intonation phrase is on the target question word.

In the yes/no question intonation, it is identified that speech questions that require a yes/no answer seem only to provide one opportunity for the pitch accent position in the target intonation phrase, namely at the end of the phrase and the pitch accent position is always in the final syllable in pre-final words before the question particle. Questions with the particle “ka” in the Embaloh language, which is mandatory in yes/no question sentence syntax, seem to play a role in determining the location of the pitch accent in the intonation of yes/no question sentences, which is from the last syllable of the pre-final word. So, the pitch accent in the intonation of yes/no questions does not automatically act as a boundary marking. The boundary marking in intonation phrases of yes/no questions has an L% tone. It is increasingly clear that the intonation structure of yes/no question sentences differs from that of interrogative sentences with question words due to two factors: the location of the pitch accent and the boundary marking. The intonation phrases of interrogative sentences yes/no are represented by the tone structure L+H*+L% in the nuclear contour. In contrast, the intonation of interrogative sentences with question words at the end of the phrase is represented by the tone structure L+H*%.

The statement intonation phrases in the Embaloh language have a nuclear pitch accent at the end of the phrases. The phrases are characterised by the tone structure H*%. The tone also acts as a boundary marking. The statement phrase that becomes the domain of the pitch accent at the end of the syllable usually begins with an L tone. The L tone is the starting point for a phonological phrase that acts as a nuclear contour, that is, a phonological phrase that embodies the pitch accent or nuclear pitch accent. The nuclear pitch accent is part of the pitch contour and is the most prominent word in a prosodic characterised by the peak of the fundamental frequency (F0) (Roessig et al., 2019). The previous phonological phrase, even though it has an H tone at the end of the phrase, acts as a prenuclear contour in an intonation phrase.

The findings in this prosody research show that both the question intonation phrase with a question word at the end of the phrase and the statement intonation phrase end with an H% tone, which at the same time acts as a pitch accent or the culmination of the F0 intonation phrase. Then, what distinguishes the tone structure

of these two types of intonation phrases? The difference in the tone structure of these two types of intonation phrases in the Embaloh language lies in the relative peak of F0 and the relative duration of the increase in F0 of each type. The ascending but low contour structure in many languages indicates more declarativeness, while the significantly rising F0 contour tends to indicate interrogativeness (Jeong, 2016). Jeong's finding, however, contradicts Sadeghi's (2021) finding, which states that an L-L% tone structure characterises the statement mode, and the interrogative mode has an L-H tone structure. This study found that the intonation phrases of a language statement can have an L-H tone structure. An intonation structure can also represent a statement or question with a phonetic difference. This is unsurprising because the correspondence between intonation and sentence structures is not obligatory and unique (Hart et al., 1990).

Related to the correlation of word stress with the intonation contour of the Embaloh language, it can be explained that the consistent word stress in the final syllable in the language affects the post-lexical prosody system except for the intonation of question sentences that require yes/no answers because of the question particle factor. This exception also applies to statements with the affirmation enclitic “*-lah*” as shown in Figure 7. Lexical and post-lexical prosody in that language have similarities, i.e., the word stress and pitch accent are on the right edge, more precisely in the last syllable. In addition to occurring in the question intonation phrases with question words, this also occurs in statement intonation phrases.

Conclusion

At the prosodic lexical level, we conclude that the Embaloh language is fixed-stressed. It cannot be categorised as a tone language. The word stress in the Embaloh language is in the final syllable. On the one hand, the Embaloh language follows the general pattern of Austronesian languages in that the stress is located to the right of the word. On the other hand, it does not follow the general pattern of word stress locations in Austronesian languages, i.e., in the penultimate syllable. At the post-lexical prosody level, the intonation of interrogative sentences with question words in the Embaloh language is characterised by the pitch accent of the target question word in its nuclear contour domain and the last syllable of the question word being the culmination of the phrase. The H*% tone has a dual role as a pitch accent and boundary marking. In interrogative sentences that require a yes/no answer, the pitch accent with H* tone is in the pre-final word before the question particle, and the boundary tone for this intonation is L%. In statement intonation phrases, the pitch accent is at the end of the phrase and acts as a boundary marking. However, the location of the pitch accent will shift if there are words that are given a particular focus. Regarding phonology, this research significantly contributes to a better understanding of the Embaloh language prosody. This research also contributes to preserving the Embaloh language amid other more robust and better-documented languages in Borneo.

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BETAWI MALAY DOCUMENTATION BASED ON COLOUR NAMING DIFFERENTIATION IN JAKARTA AND BEKASI DIALECTS

Tengku SYARFINA¹

Tengku Silvana SINAR^{*2}

Rusdi Noor ROSA³

Satwiko BUDIONO⁴

^{1,2,3}Universitas Sumatera Utara, Indonesia

⁴National Research and Innovation Agency, Indonesia

tengku.syarfina@usu.ac.id

tengkusilvana@usu.ac.id

rusdinoor@usu.ac.id

satwiko.budiono@brin.go.id

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

The number of speakers of Betawi Malay is decreasing due to both external and internal factors. The rapid migration to Jakarta, the home of Betawi people, and the negative attitude of the Betawi Malay native speakers towards their language have endangered the existence of Betawi Malay language. The same case also happened to Betawi Malay spoken in Bekasi, the other area where Betawi people live. Tangible efforts to save Betawi Malay language are needed, one of which is through Betawi Malay documentation. In this study, the documentation focused on colour vocabulary. This study aims to find how far the colour vocabulary of Betawi Malay spoken in Jakarta and in Bekasi is different. This study used a qualitative method. 18 native speakers of Betawi Malay living in Jakarta and Bekasi were chosen as the informants. Observations, interviews, questionnaires, and documents were used to collect the data. A semantics approach was used in analysing the data. The results of the study show that the colour used in Betawi Malay spoken in Jakarta and Bekasi is differentiated by colour association, environment, and attitude. Environmental factors are very influential in building the speaker's way of thinking and the speaker's identity.

Keywords: Betawi Malay; colour naming; colour vocabulary; colour association; language documentation

Introduction

Living in the capital of Indonesia, Betawi people encounter various problems in maintaining their local language, i.e., Betawi Malay. The arrival of people from different areas in Indonesia and from different countries makes Jakarta, the home of Betawi people (Erwantoro, 2014; Jubaidah, 2020; Rismanto, 2012), a multicultural city. Jakarta is even called “city of migrants” (Attas et al., 2019). There are several immigrants who later replace Betawi people as local inhabitants. Mesiarti (2014) found that most of the Betawi people are no longer found in Jakarta because they have migrated to East and Southeast Jakarta, Bogor, Depok, Tangerang, and Bekasi (Jabodetabek). Even though Mesiarti only examined Betawi people who use the Betawi Ora dialect, her findings can still show the movement of Betawi people from Jakarta to the supporting areas around Jakarta (Jabodetabek). In addition, her research found that this displacement was caused by the factors outside of the language. As a result of acculturation, the local identity would be completely replaced by immigrants from out of town.

Such a situation certainly affects the language choice in Jakarta. Bahasa Indonesia, as a national language, is the language most extensively used in Jakarta (Suyanto, 2018), while Betawi Malay language is considered as the minority language (Jubaidah, 2020). In addition to the coming of people from other regencies, the minor frequent use of Malay Betawi language is caused by the preference of young Betawi people to use Bahasa Indonesia in their daily communication. In this case, Bahasa Indonesia has more prestige than Betawi Malay. In addition, the parents or older generation of Betawi Malay have not taught this local language to the young generation. If this situation continues, the Betawi Malay can become endangered or extinct in the future.

In order to overcome the situation described above, serious efforts from all relevant parties are urgently needed. The local government, Betawi people, scholars, and language observers need to work together to save Betawi Malay language from its extinction. For the linguistics scholars, the effort can be realised by doing more research on Malay Betawi language and publishing the results in national and international journals that have wider readership. Chaer (2009) argues that the colour identity in Betawi Malay language is continuously fading. He acknowledges that the Betawi language has faded so much that the classification is now merely limited to the Malay dialect of Jakarta despite its own Betawi dialect. Rismanto (2012) defines Betawi as the indigenous people of Jakarta, as well as their Creole Malay language and Malay culture. Sundanese, Malays, Javanese, Arabs, Balinese, Bugis, Makassarese, Ambonese, and Chinese were among the other ethnic groups that had previously lived in Jakarta. According to Saidi (1997), there is a possibility that the name Betawi is derived from a type of tree, since several flora names have been used in naming places or areas in Jakarta, including Gambir, Krekot, Bintaro, Grogol, and many more.

Based on the facts of the Betawi people's recent situation provided above, documentation of their identity becomes extremely important. Efforts like this research must be made before the Betawi people and their culture are absorbed by people from other areas and cultures and their cultural identity would be in a critical state. Siregar et al. (2023) studied the factors causing the Betawi language to be endangered. Based on their findings, they suggested that the Betawi Malay language should be exposed to children from their early age and should be included in the school curriculum as one of the local content subjects. The other previous studies proposed the Betawi native speakers to have a positive attitude towards their native language as the effort to maintain their language (Lakawa & Walaretina, 2016; Nur, 2021). These previous studies need to be further investigated in terms of linguistic efforts that can help maintain Betawi Malay language, one of which is by documenting its colour-related lexicon.

Thus, this present study aims to find out (1) the colour vocabulary of Betawi Malay spoken in Jakarta and in Bekasi; and (2) how far the colour vocabulary of Betawi Malay spoken in Jakarta and in Bekasi is different.

Theoretical Background

The issue of documenting colour identity in this proposed study is due to the importance of observing the criterion of colour, the perception of colour, and the association of colour. These three things are related to one another and would become the basis of the analysis in this study. The analysis starts from the basic colour criteria, then proceeds to the perception of colour. After the colour perception is identified, the colour is linked with their association so that the social reality of the Betawi people can be revealed. The study of colour can be done by first looking at any colour that belongs to the basic colour. Below is an explanation about the theoretical foundation that includes the criteria of the basic colour, colour perspective, to colour association.

Colour always relate to perception of culture (Zein et al., 2020) and exhibit a different tendency in terms of colour naming, corresponding to Sapir-Whorf's linguistic relativity hypothesis (Kay & Kempton, 1984). Berlin and Kay (1969) proposed a theory of cross-cultural colour concepts based on the concept of a basic colour term. A basic colour term (BCT) is a colour word that applies to a broad range of objects (unlike blonde), is monolexemic (unlike light blue), and is consistently used by the majority of native speakers (unlike chartreuse). Responding to Wierzbicka (1990) who argues that the concept of colour has been instilled in universal human's experiences, Wardana and Mulyadi (2022) found six basic colours in the Indonesian language that include red, white, black, blue, green, and yellow. The languages of modern industrial societies contain thousands of colour words, but only a few basic colour terms. For example, there are 11 colours in English: red, yellow, green, blue, black, white, grey, orange, brown, pink, and purple (Berlin & Kay, 1969); while in the Russian and Slavic languages there are 12 colours, with separate basic terms for light and dark blue (Davies & Corbett, 1994; Hardin, 2013). The absence of any other colour mix causes the colour to have a different meaning. This criterion is not significantly different from the first. A limited object cannot use the

third colour name. In essence, the primary colour should be broad enough to refer to multiple things.

Based on the three concepts of colour above, as referred to Paterson (2004), the basic colour name should be a common colour and not a component of that common colour. The bluish colour in English, for example, means “tinged with blue”, so bluish is a subset of blue and not the primary colour. The colour scarlet is a blended colour, a combination of orange and red. As a result, scarlet is not a basic colour. Blonde refers to the colour naming of wood and hair. Because of its restricted meaning, blonde cannot be used as a primary colour.

Several indicators were proposed a long time ago by Cleland (1921) and Keraf (1990). Keraf (1990) divided the perception of colour into three indicators: the pattern, brightness, and colour saturation points. Meanwhile, the Munsell colour system proposed by Cleland (1921) is a colour space that defines colours based on three colour properties: hue (basic colour), chroma (colour intensity), and value (brightness). For the dimension of colour name, colour identification can be recognised easily because the colour naming is clear, specific, and different from each other. In other words, the differences between colours are clear, such as red and black. The dimension of value is the quality of the colour brightness, such as from dark red to light red or pink. The level of value used starts from the brightest to the darkest level. The dimension of intensity or chroma sees the strength or weakness of colour, the transmit power of colour, and colour purity. Furthermore, Darmaprawira (2002) stated that the dimension of intensity is the colour quality that causes colour to speak, shout, or whisper in a gentle tone. It refers more to the identification of the colour name, such as darker red or brighter red.

Moreover, colours are associated with age. A study on colour perception has been conducted by Gollety and Guichard (2011) to assess the role played by colour and its impact on the choice behaviour of children. Using a semiotic approach to marketing, they carried out an experiment on children between the ages of 7 and 11. The results of their study indicated that the most liked colours among the children were red, blue, and purple.

Furthermore, colours are associated with cultures. This is evidenced by the survey done by Bortoli and Maroto (2001) among high school students in 20 countries. These studies showed that some cultures commonly associate blue with high quality and red with love. Different results were obtained for purple. In Japan, China, and South Korea, respondents associate the colour purple with expensive products while respondents in the United States associate purple with inexpensive products (Jacobs et al., 1991). According to Geboy (1996), colours are culturally considered to be bound to certain ideologies and traditions. For example, red signifies happiness for the Chinese society. This will affect the dominant colour of a particular custom such as weddings. In the Chinese tradition, all things related to weddings should be identified with red, such as invitation cards, attire and even the feel of the wedding room. Additional colour categories exist in some languages, such as Russian, Greek, and Korean, that are not present in English. “Siniy” (dark blue) and “goluboy” (light blue), for example, are distinct basic colour terms for Russian speakers, while “yeondu” (yellow-green) and “chorok” (green) are distinct basic colour terms for Korean speakers. In Malay culture, colours are divided into warm

colours (macro-red), associated with bright colours, and cool colours, associated with dark colours (Sew, 1997).

Most discussions on colour in relation to personal identity have been reported with many themes in business. For example, Rathee and Rajain (2019) examined that colours attract the attention of marketers to gain customers' attention in India. They conducted a study to understand the role a colour plays in influencing consumer behaviour. The results indicated that colours influenced customers' decisions and brand recall while making purchases. It was also found that there was a significant difference among respondents regarding the purchase of warm and cool colours as well as warm and neutral colours. These findings support Labrecque and Milne (2012), who stated that to create an identity in the marketplace, brands employed colour and this sets them apart from the competition. Colour has been an integral part of sensory marketing tactics to influence consumers' behaviour and perceptions, induce moods and emotions, and help companies in positioning or differentiating themselves from their competitors.

In relation to marketing, Javed and Javed (2015) studied the significance of colour in influencing buyers' purchasing preferences when the time to do purchasing is limited. They found that in comparison to time constraints, the purchasing preference depended relatively more on the colour scheme in the case of a customer. It was revealed that time pressure had more importance as a moderating factor which had an impact on the influence of the colour of packaging on customers' buying preferences. Besides, Babolhavaeji et al. (2015) described the difficulties encountered by managers and packaging designers due to the product colour. They believed that the product colour obviously attracted the buyers and influenced their intention to buy the product. Furthermore, Roschk et al. (2017) found that warm colours produce higher levels of arousal, while cool colours produce higher levels of satisfaction. This implies that carefully choosing the right colour is very important in product marketing.

Colours describe the idea and certain characteristics (Rakhilina, 2007), so it is expected to be used as an effort to document the identity of the Betawi people and to encourage more research on this dialect.

Methodology

This research was conducted using a qualitative method. Qualitative research is a method for investigating and comprehending the significance that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The research process includes developing questions and procedures, data collection in the participants' environment, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researchers' interpretations of the data meaning. Those who engage in this type of inquiry advocate for a research approach that values an inductive style, a focus on individual meaning, and the importance of rendering the complexities of a situation (Creswell, 2014).

The informants chosen in this study were 18 native speakers of Betawi Malay, comprising nine living in Jakarta in the Marunda area of Cilincing sub-district, and nine living in Bekasi (in Babelan sub-district). The criteria suggested by Samarin

(1988) and Tarigan et al. (2022) were used in this study. The informants were composed of four males and five females living in each area. They were 50 to 70-year-old native speakers of Betawi Malay, communicative, insightful, willing to be informants, honest, and accepted by the surrounding community.

In accordance with the purpose of this research, the researchers also used close-ended questionnaires as the research instrument. The questionnaire elicited data on the identity of the Betawi people on the colour vocabulary and the social reality of Betawi people living in Jakarta and Bekasi. Before the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents, the researchers gathered them twice to guide them in understanding the questions and providing their responses. Several Betawi respondents who lived outside Jakarta areas were sent the questionnaires via email with the request for them to answer the questions and return the responses. They had left Jakarta before the questionnaires were distributed to them.

All the data that had been collected in Jakarta and Bekasi were analysed to find out the colour vocabulary in Jakarta and Bekasi and the different identity of colours used by Betawi people living in Jakarta and in Bekasi. The difference based on geographical location would also be examined. In this case, the documentation of the identity of the Betawi people was done by doing research about colour vocabulary as Paterson (2004) suggested that colour was an abbreviation for conveying ideas and information. Next, this study used a list of 216 colour questionnaire Colour Palette cards. These cards had several basic colours that varied and depended on the brightness level.

Results

The results of the present research show that colours play a significant role in speakers' choices. Through this study, it was found that the colour most preferred by Betawi people in Jakarta and Bekasi was blue and the least preferred was yellow for both male and female.






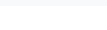


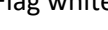

The similarities in naming of colour vocabulary in Jakarta and Bekasi outnumber the distinctions. These distinctions, however, cause the dominant vocabulary in the two areas of observation to differ. This finding is intriguing because the colour naming and association are associated with the colour itself. Furthermore, in Jakarta and Bekasi, the Betawi people's perspectives on colour and associated naming can be made more widely known.

When it comes to basic colours, Jakarta and Bekasi have the same basic colour vocabulary. The basic colours identified in both areas of observation are white, black, red, green, yellow, and blue. The research findings for each of its primary colours, as well as the associations associated with colour naming, are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1

The Comparison in Naming of White Colour in Jakarta and Bekasi





Jakarta	Associations	Bekasi	Associations
<i>Putih muda</i>	Brightness level	<i>Putih muda</i>	Brightness

Light white		Light white	Level
			
<i>Putih tua</i> Dark white	Brightness level	<i>Putih tua</i> Dark white	Brightness level
			
<i>Putih tulang</i> Bone white	Parts of body	<i>Putih tulang</i> Bone white	Parts of body
			
<i>Putih susu</i> Milk white	Beverages	<i>Putih susu</i> Milk white	Beverages
			
<i>Putih Bendera</i> Flag white	Things	-	-
			
<i>Putih mata</i> Eye white	Parts of body	-	-
			

The comparison of the white basic colour above shows that Betawi people in Jakarta have more terms to refer to the basic colour of white (*putih muda*, *putih tulang*, *putih susu*, *putih Bendera*, and *putih mata*) than Betawi people in Bekasi (*putih muda*, *putih tua*, *putih tulang*, and *putih susu*). In addition to their perceptions of brightness level, body parts, things, and beverages, Betawi people in Jakarta also associate white with the flag (*putih Bendera*). This could be due to Betawi people in Marunda being accustomed to the colour of white flags. Obviously, this is not surprising because the Marunda area is geographically located on the coastal area. Many of them are fishermen, and each of their boats must be identified by a flag. The term *putih mata* (eye white) is used by Betawi people in Jakarta, but it is not familiar to Betawi people in Bekasi.

In contrast to the naming of the basic white colour, the naming of the basic black colour is more dominant in Bekasi. Table 2 shows a comparison of black colour in Jakarta and Bekasi.

Table 2
The Comparison in Naming of Black Colour in Jakarta and Bekasi

Jakarta	Associations	Bekasi	Associations
<i>Item dop</i> <i>Doff matte black</i>	Automobile parts	<i>Item dop</i> <i>Doff matte black</i>	Automobile parts
			
<i>Item manis</i> Sweet black	Human skin	<i>Item manis</i> Sweet black	Human skin
			
<i>Item blek</i>	Colour	<i>Item pek</i>	Colour

Pure black		Pure black	
-	-	<i>Item Keling</i>	Human skin
		Dark black	

In terms of the black colour, the associations between Jakarta and Bekasi are somewhat similar, i.e., *item dop* and *item manis*. Most associations refer to the colour of the body skin. The terms *item blek* (used in Jakarta) and *item pek* (used in Bekasi) are pure black and *item manis* is sweet black, associated with the typical skin of Betawi people. The black colour associations usually involve automobile parts, skin, and basic colours. The distinction is that Betawi people in Bekasi have one more term for referring to the black colour associated with human skin as *item Keling* to denote the dark skin of the Keling people originating from India who came to Indonesia a hundred years ago.

The other colour vocabulary is a red-related colour. The findings displayed in Table 3 describe the comparison of red colour vocabulary used by Betawi people in Jakarta and Bekasi.

Table 3





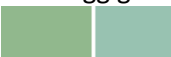



The Comparison in Naming of Red Colour in Jakarta and Bekasi

Jakarta	Associations	Bekasi	Associations
<i>Merah muda</i> Light red (Pink)	Brightness level	<i>Merah muda</i> Light red (Pink)	Brightness level
<i>Merah tua</i> Dark red	Brightness level	<i>Merah tua</i> Dark red	Brightness level
<i>Merah ati</i> Heart red	Parts of body	<i>Merah ati</i> Heart red	Parts of body
<i>Merah delima</i> Ruby	Fruits	<i>Merah jambu</i> Ruby	Fruits
-	-	<i>Merah cabe</i> Chili red	Vegetables

In referring to the basic red colour, Betawi people in Bekasi also have more terms referring to red than Betawi people in Jakarta: *merah muda*, *merah tua*, *merah ati*, *merah jambu*, and *merah cabe*. Betawi people in Bekasi have an additional colour vocabulary, i.e., *merah cabe*, which is associated with vegetables. In this case, as the Betawi people in the Marunda area are close to the sea, they are

not associated with vegetables but instead with fish. It is natural that no red colour is associated with chilies as a kind of vegetable. This condition is different from Betawi people living in Bekasi. The geographical location of Betawi people in Bekasi which is close to vegetables and farms makes vegetables to be associated with basic colours. This is interesting because the association is usually made based on common availability of a thing. Another notable finding is that Betawi people in Jakarta associate red fruits as ruby (*merah delima*). Although the colour name is associated with vegetation (i.e., pomegranate fruit), it is an imported fruit. Jakarta is the capital of Indonesia with a seaport allowing imports and exports from and to foreign countries. Pomegranate is a fruit originated from Iran, and because of its bright colour, it is taken as one of the colour vocabulary used by Betawi people living in Jakarta. A similar finding can be seen in the comparison of green colour in Jakarta and Bekasi, as displayed in Table 4.

Table 4
The Comparison in Naming of Green Colour in Jakarta and Bekasi

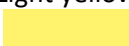


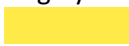




Jakarta	Associations	Bekasi	Associations
<i>Ijo muda</i> Light green 	Brightness level	<i>Ijo muda</i> Light green	Brightness level
<i>Ijo tua</i> Dark green 	Brightness level	<i>Ijo tua</i> Dark green	Brightness level
<i>Ijo daun</i> Leaf green 	Plants	<i>Ijo daun</i> Leaf green	Plants
<i>Ijo lumut</i> Moss green 	Plants	<i>Ijo lumut</i> Moss green	Plants
<i>Ijo telur asin</i> Salted egg green 	Food	<i>Ijo tai kuda</i> Horse waste green 	Animal waste
<i>Ijo langit</i> Sky green 	Nature	-	-
<i>Ijo laut</i> Ocean green 	Nature	-	-

The findings in Table 4 display green colour vocabulary used by Betawi people, that includes *ijo muda*, *ijo tua*, *ijo daun*, *ijo lumut*, *ijo telur asin*, *ijo langit*, *ijo laut*, and *ijo tai kuda*. Nevertheless, Betawi people in Jakarta have more green colour

variations than those in Bekasi. The proximity factor of Betawi people in Jakarta with the surrounding environment makes it also associated with everything commonly found close to them, such as salted eggs, moss, sky, and ocean. *Ijo langit* (sky green) and *ijo laut* (ocean green) are two colour images that represent coastal communities corresponding to the job of fishermen; meanwhile, people in non-coastal areas certainly do not pay too much attention to both green colours. A similar situation happens to horse waste green colour (*ijo tai kuda*) for Betawi society in Bekasi. The influence of colour could be that horses at one time were a common sight in Bekasi, so horse waste was often easily found and the people associated it with the basic colour of green. These images are thus associated with specific nature, jobs, and things.

Referring to the colour that leads to a particular thing such as horse waste which is common in certain areas, it is also seen in the case of yellow colour in Jakarta and Bekasi. Table 5 shows a comparison of yellow colour used by Betawi people in Jakarta and Bekasi.

Table 5
The Comparison in Naming of Yellow Colour in Jakarta and Bekasi








Jakarta	Associations	Bekasi	Associations
<i>Kuning muda</i> Light yellow 	Brightness level	<i>Kuning muda</i> Light yellow	Brightness level
<i>Kuning tua</i> Dark yellow 	Brightness level	<i>Kuning tua</i> Dark yellow	Brightness level
<i>Kuning jeruk</i> Orange yellow 	Fruits	<i>Kuning jeruk</i> Orange yellow	Fruits
<i>Kuning mangga</i> Mango yellow 	Fruits	<i>Kuning paya</i> Papaya yellow	Fruits
<i>Kuning mangga</i> Mango yellow 	Fruits	<i>Kuning emas</i> Gold yellow 	Jewellery
<i>Kuning pisang</i> Banana yellow 	Fruits	-	-
<i>Kuning beko</i> Backhoe yellow 	Excavator truck	-	-

There are two things to notice in Table 5, one of which is that the association of yellow with the fruit group is stronger in Jakarta than in Bekasi. Furthermore, the way Betawi people associate yellow, both in Bekasi and in Jakarta,

reveals their distinct characteristics *kuning tua*, *kuning muda*, *kuning jeruk*, *kuning mangga*, *kuning pisang*, *kuning paya*, and *kuning beko*. Due to the numerous developments in the Marunda area, Betawi people in Jakarta associate yellow with *beko* excavator truck that has the permanent colour of yellow. Heavy machinery has become all too familiar to their eyes. In contrast, *kuning* or yellow is frequently associated with valuable objects for Betawi people in Bekasi. They may be common gold jewellery because many of the people are wealthy and own many fields and large farms.

Furthermore, due to the presence of the association of blue (*biru*) in which it is paired with another colour, *biru muda*, *biru tua*, *biru telur asin*, *biru langit*, *biru laut*, *biru terong*, and *biru dongker* (see Table 6), there is a relatively new and exceptional case found in this research.

Table 6
The Comparison in Naming of Blue Colour in Jakarta and Bekasi

Jakarta	Associations	Bekasi	Associations
<i>Biru muda</i> Light blue 	Brightness level	<i>Biru muda</i> Light blue	Brightness level
<i>Biru tua</i> Dark blue 	Brightness level	<i>Biru tua</i> Dark blue	Brightness level
<i>Biru telur asin</i> Salted egg blue 	Food	<i>Biru telur asin</i> Salted egg blue	Food
<i>Biru langit</i> Sky blue 	Nature	<i>Biru langit</i> Sky blue	Nature
<i>Biru laut</i> Navy blue 	Nature	<i>Biru laut</i> Navy blue	Nature
-	-	<i>Biru dongker</i> Dark blue 	Colour
-	-	<i>Biru terong</i> Eggplant blue 	Vegetables

The presence of *biru dongker* (dark blue) in Bekasi indicates the presence of mixed cultures in referring to the colour with the current condition and situation, which leads to the use of *dongker* (derived from Dutch word) for dark blue colour and is associated with only blue colour to be mentioned together by Betawi people in Bekasi. Alternatively, because of the lack of proper association, colour mixing becomes an option for naming newly identified colours. The Betawi people in Bekasi

are associated with purple and eggplant blue and this connection is quite intriguing. The famous Betawi culinary specialty of blue eggplant is called *pecak*, cooked with shallots, cayenne pepper, ginger, salt, sugar, and limes. *Pecak* or halibut of *bandeng* fish is also cooked with eggplant, curly red chilies, bird's eye chilies, shallots, onions, peanuts, limes, and ripe tamarind.

Discussion

The findings indicate that colour vocabulary used by Betawi people living in Jakarta and Bekasi is broadly classified into six colours: white, red, black, yellow, green, and blue. This finding is consistent with the previous study that colour in Indonesian language is classified into six basic colours: red, white, black, blue, green, and yellow (Wardana & Mulyadi, 2022). Nevertheless, this finding is different from the previous studies confirming 11 colours in English (Berlin & Kay, 1969) and 12 colours in Russian and Slavic languages (Davies & Corbett, 1994; Hardin, 2013). The difference is mainly motivated by the colour categorisation in Betawi Malay language, which classifies colours based on their broad classifications and specific classifications. If judged from the number of specific colours, Betawi Malay language introduces many more colours than in English and Slavic languages. The use of broad and specific classifications of colours found in this research is consistent with the colour concept proposed by Paterson (2004), who classified colours based on the colour set and the sub-sets of the colour.

In terms of indicators for classifying colours, the findings of this research are consistent with the previous literature that classified colours based on their patterns, brightness, and saturation points (Keraf, 1990). In other words, these indicators are also applicable in naming colours in Betawi Malay language. Moreover, the findings of this research extend the indicators of colour categorisation by including a geography factor. These findings confirm Wierzbicka's (1990) universal human experience on colour classification based on day and night, fire, the sun, vegetation, the sky, and the ground. A geographical location determines the classification of colours. For example, colours are associated with the ecosystem (plants, animals, landscapes) available in certain areas. The introduction of navy (ocean) blue, sky blue, ocean green, and sky green colours indicates that the speakers of Betawi Malay in Jakarta live in a coastal area. The same case also happens to colour vocabulary associated with fruits and vegetables available in the area.

Moreover, the colour classification is also related to the things found in the area. For example, the use of backhoe yellow colour indicates that a backhoe is a common machine for Betawi people in Jakarta. The other example is horse waste green colour. This colour vocabulary is introduced in Betawi Malay spoken in Bekasi because horses are familiar animals in Bekasi. However, it is not used in Betawi Malay in Jakarta since horses are rarely seen in the city. Historically, horses used to be familiar in Betawi culture because they were used in the traditional transportation known as *andong*, a carriage pulled by horses. Nevertheless, such a transportation means is no longer found in Jakarta as it is replaced by modern vehicles. This finding is consistent with the previous literature that colours are culturally considered to be bound to certain ideologies and traditions (Geboy, 1996).

Furthermore, the findings indicate that the colour vocabulary in the same language can differ due to different areas where the language is used. There are several colours which are named differently in Betawi Malay language spoken in Jakarta and Bekasi. For example, Betawi people in Jakarta use the term *merah delima* for ruby colour, while Betawi people in Bekasi use *merah jambu*. Even though both the colours are associated with fruits, they refer to different fruits. This finding is consistent with the previous study that environment shapes both the colour vocabulary and the genetics of colour perception (Josserand et al., 2021). Besides, the colour vocabulary can also be different although it is associated with the same fruit or other plants. This is possible since a certain fruit or flower may have more than one colour. Madden et al. (2000) found that a rose is used to shape different vocabulary in different cultures as it can be either white or red. Japanese consumers prefer white, whereas consumers from Hong Kong prefer red. This preference certainly has a relation to their different ways of thinking and attitudes to the rose.

Conclusion

The study explored the colour scheme perceived by the people in referring to the basic colours, Betawi people in Jakarta and Bekasi share many similarities. The difference is found only in the number and some particular associations. Colour vocabulary in Betawi Malay spoken in Jakarta is dominated by white, green, and yellow colours, while it is dominated by black, red, and blue colours in Betawi Malay spoken in Bekasi. The difference in dominance between Betawi people in Jakarta and Bekasi indicates that there is also a difference in attitude or identity among Betawi people themselves. In this case, the surrounding environmental factors are very influential in building up the point of view of a group even if the comparable groups come from the same group.

The findings also reveal the role of geographical location in defining and classifying the colour vocabulary. This is an interesting finding since it can be further explored by future researchers on colour naming or colour vocabulary classification. A geographical location is certainly related to the surrounding ecosystem (flora, fauna, and landscapes). Therefore, studying colours can also be done within the domain of ecolinguistics. The results of this study suggest other researchers to conduct studies on colour naming from ecolinguistics perspectives.

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DECODING GAY LINGO: A MORPHO-SOCIOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF SWORDSPeAK AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

Abigail QUIMOSING-OCAÿ*

Dennis P. OCAMPO

Kalinga State University, Philippines

abquimosing@ksu.edu.ph

dpocampo@ksu.edu.ph

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

The dynamic and creative nature of a language can lead to the development of linguistic deviations, such as the use of gay language. Gay language engages people of different ages, genders, and sexuality – inevitably including students. Thus, the study aimed at decoding morpho-sociolinguistic features of the gay language as used by college students. It used an explanatory sequential research design, utilising questionnaires and interviewing to gather data. Results revealed that there are more student swardspeakers than non-swardspeakers. Significantly, all LGBTQIA+ and “Prefer-Not-to-Say” groups are swardspeakers, while female swardspeakers outnumbered male swardspeakers. This study found most students use swardspeak in public places, in social media, and in texting. Morphological derivations of swardspeak include but are not limited to addition of the “j” phoneme, change of the final phoneme, clipping with affixation, code-switching, connotation through images, and eponymy. Finally, building relationships, concealment, and self-expression are some of the common reasons why students use swardspeak. Thus, the study recommends that a sociolinguistic primer of swardspeak can be developed to encourage students in learning a language. This can promote language competence among students.

Keywords: gay lingo; swardspeak; language competence; morpho-sociolinguistic analysis; social identity

Introduction

One of the language trends that gradually change the perceptions of many, specifically in gender and social identity, is the use of gay language. The language became popular in the 1990's when scholarly studies were offered in the fields of queer and lavender linguistics. Queer linguistics posits that "who men and who women" are ideological formation (Leap, 2012) while lavender linguistics "focused attention on the importance of language, broadly defined, in gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgendered people's lives" (Leap, 2015, p. 649). Gay language has many different linguistic equivalents in different countries – *Bajub* in Brazil; *isiNgqumo* in South Africa (Raeymaekers, 2021); *Polari* in England (Baker, 2002); *Bahasa Gay* in Indonesia (Boellstorff, 2004). In the Philippines, the Filipino gay language is termed as swardpeak. It was coined in the 1970s by Nestor Torre, a known movie critic and columnist (Alba, 2006). According to Kaluag (2021), it was derived from the outdated term for "gay male", sward, though it was generally associated with the third sex in the 1970s.

Swardpeak is perceived nowadays as a form of creative use of language (Rubiales, 2020). Such creativity of the slang implies linguistic deviation (Abbas et al. 2017; Casabal, 2008), as it takes creative minds to develop vocabulary through resourceful derivations, which deviates from the norms of everyday conversations. Hence, it implies that closeted gay men (Romero, 2019) and other speakers, who are mostly women (Gregorio et al., 2022), also referred to as *babaeng bakla* - gay women, (Racoma, 2013; Garcia, 2009), are creative individuals.

Some gays are widely known for their capabilities and talents. This is unlike before, when they were afraid to express their abilities for fear of the rejection by the society. This time, many LGBTQIA+ (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer or questioning, intersex, asexual, and more) personalities are known for their talents, charitable acts, and successful stories. An example is Jennifer Pritzker, formally known as James Pritzker, an American who has donated millions to LGBTQIA+ charities. From the Philippines, Ricky Reyes, who was a floor sweeper in a parlour before becoming a hairdresser, is also known for a widely successful chain of beauty salons, a resort, and a line of beauty products. Rajo Laurel, also from the Philippines, is known as a multi award-winning fashion designer and a judge in Project Runway Philippines. They are merely some of the many gay persons who excelled in their own careers.

An ongoing issue that is prevalent in the society is the discrimination towards LGBTQIA+ members. According to Blackman (2015), there are different types of discrimination that LGBTQIA+ youths face, and it has adverse effects on them. Approximately 28% of gay and lesbian youths in the United States drop out of high school due to verbal and physical abuse in the school environment (Today's Gay Youth, n.d.). Furthermore, it was cited that their fears usually come from physical harm and name calling. Additionally, McCormick (2016) posited that many LGBTQ youths experience bullying, which in turn increased the risk for suicide, depression, drug abuse, and out-of-home placements. Another study by Malory et al. (2020) found that LGBTQ people in Virginia, USA experience bullying, harassment, and family rejection.

In Asia, despite reports of ongoing discriminations and hate crimes against the LGBTQIA+ community, the Philippines was found to have the most positive views toward homosexuality among Asian countries (Shadel, 2016), and that over the last several decades, Filipinos have become increasingly more accepting of gay men. However, in a recent report by the Human Rights Watch (2017), there are still cases of bullying against the LGBTQ community in the Philippines, especially among students. Gay lingo has become a source of laughter to many (Visaya, 2015) that even some straight guys use swardspeak (Dasovich, as cited by Shadel, 2016), though this observation is seen in the entertainment industry. Some people are irritated when hearing and listening to swardspeakers. When asked, they are annoyed as they do not understand the slang, though some honestly responded that they could understand a few words, and that they are irritated by the effeminate sound – gay voice (University of Toronto Magazine, 2022) – that gays, physically males, sound like females. Even though swardspeak has received so much attention and praise, it still has several flaws and limitations that make it vulnerable to disapproval and concern (Rubiales, 2020), one of which is the social context of the use of gay language either in formal or informal conversations. The other would be the status of interlocutors such as professionals, fellows, neighbours, and family members. Too much use of swardspeak may cause students to subconsciously make grammatical errors in their speech, which may lead to inconsistency in using one's language. Thus, the study aimed at decoding morpho-sociolinguistic features of the gay language as used by college students.

Literature Review

Gay Lingo and Swardspeak

Gay lingo simply refers to “gay language” – “gay” refers to the closeted male and “lingo” means an incomprehensible language on the part of the listener or reader.

Originally, swardspeak rose as an anti-language, which most of the marginalised community use as a secret language (Racoma, 2013), because, according to Casabal (2008), the argot was used by swardspeakers, mostly gays, to shield themselves from social stigma caused by gender discrimination. They were discriminated not only for the way they physically looked or the way they acted but also for the way they talked (Pascual, 2016), including their unique terminology and language expressions. Contrastingly, swardspeak was used to reinforce gay identity within their community (Muller, 2018). Thus, swardspeak may have risen as a need among the gay community to hide personal, private, or confidential topics and, more importantly, their social identity.

In the Philippines, swardspeak derivations come from different languages such as Spanish, English, Tagalog, Cebuano, Waray, Ilocano, Bicolano, and Hiligaynon (Racoma, 2013). In the 1990s, most of the root words used by the Filipino gay community were identified to have only originated from Cebuano, with English being the second largest source of words, while others from Spanish and Tagalog (Hart & Hart, 1990). Some elements also come from Japanese (Pascual, 2016), and that is why it was seen as a colourful language (Racoma, 2013) with colourful

associations, having the elements of parody and spirit of play (Remoto, 2020). This then suggests that the language is not only confined to the language of the swardspeakers, but it is also dynamic and extensive that almost all vocabulary categories, such as names of persons, movie characters, animals, places, foods, and activities, among others, could become lexical derivations.

The case of the Filipino gays was made known to the international audience by Manalansan (2003) via his study, "Global Divas: Filipino Gay Men in the Diaspora." He referred to queer as gay modernity – where most Filipino gays migrate to the US in pursuit of liberation, and clashes of gender, race, and sexuality brought about their queer identity (undetermined sexuality). Nowadays, it can be seen among students, gays or non-gays, that there is a sense of liberation on the identity of Filipino gay men and on their use of gay language. It is also observed that that they have their own derivations of gay terms.

Social Identity and Sociolinguistic Theories

Social identity theory generally posits that every individual has the will to choose which group to participate and be identified with. The same case applies to swardspeakers, who possess the identity of their community. This could be observed through their language, actions, and physical dispositions.

Social identity refers to categories or classes of status that indicate one's place within a larger social system such as gender, age, and race (Davis et al., 2019). As such, social identity recognises a particular group through their collective similarities such as the gays through their gender and the business tycoons through their economic status.

Consequently, social identity theory, according to Harwood (2020), offers a paradigm for analysing "intergroup behaviour" and "intergroup communication" (pp. 1-2). This emphasises on an "individual's sense of belonging to a group," which could either lead to positive or negative behaviours. Hogg (2016), on the other hand, explicates that social identity theory was established to expound phenomena within the group and that language and speech are considered identity symbols. Thus, swardspeak gives identity to the gay community. Chambers (2017) postulates that there are factors affecting language use, such as age, gender, social class, and ethnicity.

Interestingly, Dang (2013) studied gay language in three sections: 1) definitions of gay language, 2) characteristics of gay language and 3) functions of gay language. As defined, it is a specific register or variant of language that is used in certain sociocultural circumstances (Cage, 2003). In some circumstances and contexts, this type of language has a specific application, but in others, it is used in relation to the LGBT subculture's social structure. According to Red (1996), gay language is a form of code employed in the gay community to prevent persons from outside the group (heterosexuals are referred to here) from understanding it and assisting members of the gay community to connect among themselves in their own discourse. This description draws our attention to Halliday's (1976) concept of anti-language, which is a specific type of language produced by some sort of anti-society.

Methodology

The study used an explanatory sequential research design and employed a morpho-sociolinguistic approach in gathering quantitative data substantiated with qualitative data.

This study was conducted at Kalinga State University, Tabuk City, Kalinga. The questionnaire participants were 283 college students who were enrolled for the second semester of the school year 2022-2023. The interviews involved 10 students. The questionnaire covers the social context of swardspeak used among students. The instrument was crafted by the researchers based on the factual context of use of swardspeak observed among students and was validated by two language experts and one methodology expert. It has undergone reliability testing, which yielded a reliable correlation of 0.69 on the Spearman's Rho before administering.

Ethical considerations were factored into the study. All students gave their informed consent for inclusion before they participated in the study. No students were forced to answer the questionnaire nor undertake the interview unless they were willing to. In addition, utmost confidentiality of the details of the students and the gathered data was strictly observed.

For the interviews, the students were interviewed face-to-face when they were available. Follow ups were conducted through phone call interviews as it was most convenient to the students, which lasted for about 10-15 minutes.

The data gathered were analysed by employing morpho-sociolinguistic analysis. This is a combination of morphological and sociolinguistic approaches. Morphological approach analysed the word derivations of gay terms used among the swardspeakers. To quantify and interpret data on the word derivations, the three-point Likert scale was used as follows:

Value	Limits	Description
3	2.34 – 3.00	Always
2	1.67 – 2.33	Sometimes
1	1.00 – 1.66	Never

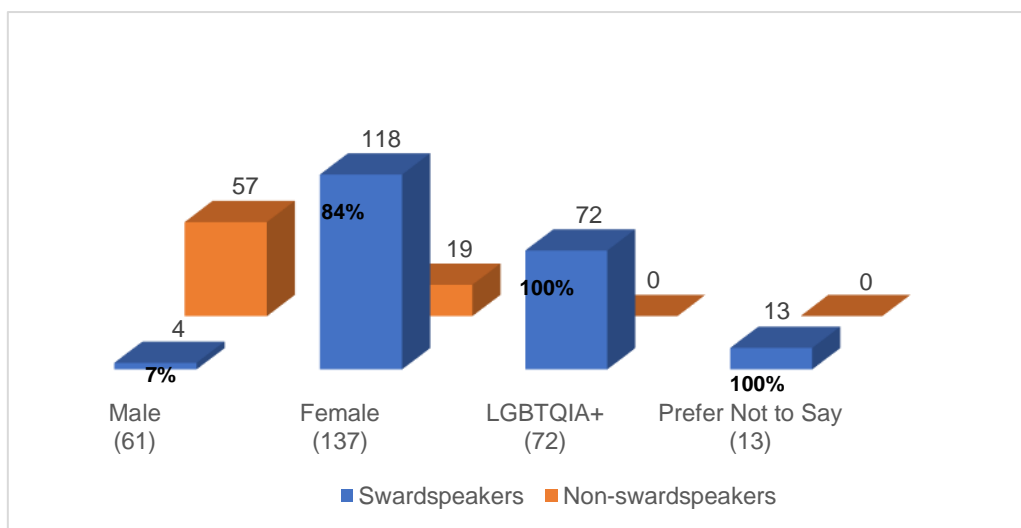
As for the sociolinguistic analysis, recorded interviews were transcribed, reduced, and coded. Common derivations of gay terms, including the implications on the use of swardspeak to the sociolinguistic competence of the participants were also extracted.

Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows that there are more swardspeakers than non-swardspeakers among the college students of Kalinga State University. Out of the 283 students who responded, 207 reported using swardspeak in communication. All LGBTQIA+ and "Prefer-Not-to-Say" group are swardspeakers, while there are more female swardspeakers compared to male students. Figure 1 indicated that four or 7% out of 61 are male swardspeakers, 118 or 84% out of 137 are female swardspeakers, 72 or

100% are LGBTQIA+ swardspeakers, and 13 or the same 100% are swardspeakers from the other group, who prefer not to disclose their gender.

Figure 1
The Gender of Swardspeakers



Several studies reveal that non-gays also use gay language, such as other members of the LGBTQIA+ community – lesbians, bisexuals, transgender, queer, intersex, asexual and others (Gianan, 2008), straight females and straight men. Romero (2019) posits that both men and women use this language in daily conversations and Alba (2006) affirmed that non-gays (including all genders) acquired lexicons from the language.

The findings on the genders of swardspeakers further imply that gay language has characteristics that is adaptable to any speaker of any gender, because language learning starts with vocabulary knowledge – the more one learns of the vocabulary, the greater the capacity one has to communicate with the speakers of the language.

Since swardspeak originated from the Philippines, more Filipino swardspeakers could understand the terms used. Literature has illustrated the colourful and playful language of swardspeak which derived from different languages spoken in the country and also Spanish and Japanese (Hart & Hart, 1990; Pascual, 2016; Racoma, 2013; Remoto, 2020). Hence, learning and understanding the gay language would help reduce gender biases and promote mutual respect among gays and non-gay students and teachers (Rosales & Caretero, 2019).

Table 1*Extent of Social Context of Use of Swardspeak (N=207)*

Indicator	Always (3)	Sometimes (2)	Never (1)	Weighted Mean	Description
1. I use swardspeak at home.	21 (63)	110 (220)	76 (76)	1.73	Sometimes
2. I use swardspeak in social media such as posting and commenting in Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, among others.	33 (99)	122 (244)	52 (52)	1.91	Sometimes
3. I use swardspeak when I communicate with my teachers /professors.	4 (12)	65 (130)	138 (138)	1.36	Never
4. I use swardspeak when talking to my friends and classmates.	31 (93)	118 (236)	58 (58)	1.87	Sometimes
5. I use swardspeak in texting.	36 (108)	111 (222)	60 (60)	1.88	Sometimes
6. I use swardspeak in oral recitation.	4 (12)	73 (146)	130 (130)	1.39	Never
7. I use swardspeak in my written compositions.	2 (6)	45 (90)	160 (160)	1.24	Never
8. I use swardspeak in public places such stores, malls, roads, and the like.	57 (171)	87 (174)	63 (63)	1.97	Sometimes
9. I use swardspeak in communicating with elder people.	14 (42)	73 (146)	120 (120)	1.49	Never
10. I use swardspeak in communicating with younger people.	21 (63)	127 (254)	59 (59)	1.81	Sometimes
Total Average Weighted Mean				1.67	Sometimes

Table 1 shows that most of the 207 student swardspeakers use swardspeak in public places such as stores, malls, roads, as well as in social media such as posting and commenting in Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and YouTube, and in texting. This was indicated by the weighted means of 1.97, 1.91, and 1.88 respectively under the category of *Sometimes*. Most of the swardspeakers can be heard talking in public places such as in malls, restaurants, and along the roads. The finding echoes the study by Romero (2019) which indicates that gay language is used by speakers in public places, social gatherings, and meeting places. Additionally, Gregorio et al. (2022) also supports the argument that gay language is used in public places with friends.

With the advent of technology, the use of gay language in texting, especially in posting and commenting in social media such as Facebook, Instagram, and YouTube, has become prevalent. Some even post videos in TikTok, YouTube, and Reels with gay language as content or using the language as the medium. Facebook has transformed into a knowledge base for many gay language users (Catacutan, 2013), including TikTok, which has become a stage for the LGBTQIA+ community (Benitez, 2022) and where much of their content has gone viral. Hence, social media plays the primary role in the proliferation of gay terms (Catacutan, 2013).

On the other hand, further significant findings revealed that most of the students never use swardspeak in written compositions, in communication with their teachers, and in recitation, as indicated by the lowest weighted means of 1.39, 1.36, and 1.24 respectively.

The findings imply that the students are aware of the appropriate contexts of the use of swardspeak, and that there is a proper place and time for the use of gay language. Restrictions on the use of swardspeak as evidenced by the findings are observed on the lack of swardspeak used in formal contexts, such as in the classroom, during discussions and recitations, and in writing compositions.

Consequently, since gay language can be considered a “sociolect” (social dialect), it is more prominent in speech compared to written works (Rosales & Caretero, 2019), especially in academic compositions because it does not have a specific grammatical structure for gay word formation (Sangga, 2015). In the case of gay language, most of its words are derived from existing languages such as English, Spanish, Nihongo, Tagalog, and Cebuano, among others. New words are formulated by adding affixes to the existing words (Susandi et al., 2018).

Table 2
Morphological Derivations of Gay Terms

Category	Frequency	Percentage	Examples
Addition of “j” phoneme	146	70.5%	jikaw (<i>ikaw</i> , I meaning “you”), jiwan/jiniwa, jooners, jorasan, jukas, jukawa, jusawa, juskis, jubis, boylet (<i>boy</i>), buysung chikaness, cryola,
Addition of suffix	179	86%	feelingness, getsung, givesung, gora, ikawa, kalaness, mudrabels, mudrakels, sisteret, waitsung akis (<i>ako</i> , meaning “me”), aketch, anakshie, anes/aneshi, anik, besh,
Change of final phoneme	164	79%	boyfie, ditech, ditey, itey, kakalurky, mamsh/momshie, murayta, papsh/papshie, sinetch, waley/waz, yonik/yoonik
Change of middle phoneme	123	59%	bukit (<i>bakit</i> , meaning “why”), gurl, makromi
Clipping	201	97%	bes (<i>bestfriend</i>), char (<i>charing</i>)

Clipping with affixation	98	47%	baks (<i>bakla</i> + suffix “s”), byunda, ganern, kyohay, kyota, madats, nopah, tanders, shupatid
Code switching	21	10%	nahear/nahearsung, nasight aglipay (<i>ugly+pinay</i>), baboo/babush,
Coinage	178	85.9%	charing, chika, echoz/echosera, nota, keme/pakeme, lafang/lafangers, wit chaka (from the character “Chucky” in the movie “Child’s Play), Ms. Nigeria, musical note, deadmatologist
Connotation through images	77	37%	Alma Moreno (almoranas meaning hemorrhoid), Bitter Ocampo, Carmi Martin, Gelli de Belen, Hagardo Versosa, Jano Gibs, Julie Yap Daza, Luz Valdez, OA Delas Alas, Rica Peralejo, Stress Drilon, Tom Jones
Eponymy	185	89%	atab (<i>bata</i> , meaning “child”) lodi, moni, nobi, noypi, oka, rotom, sagib, sipal, walwal, werpa, yatap
Simple reverse	34	16%	adnatchi (<i>tanda</i> , meaning old + suffix <i>chi</i>), kohubsh (buhok + sh), prihams (mahirap + s), tokatch (takot + ch), yalkushi (suklay + hi)
Simple reverse with affixation	17	8%	

In Table 2, there are 12 identified morphological processes illustrating how words are formulated in swardspeak. Clipping is the most commonly used derivation process with 97% (201 instances). This is followed by eponymy (89% or 185 instances) and addition of suffix (86% or 179 instances). The morphological derivation of clipping words comes from the reduction of a word to form its shortcut such as bes for bestfriend and char for charing, meaning “just kidding”.

For eponymy, words are formed by creating new meanings to words which are borrowed from names of known people such as Alma Moreno for almoranas, meaning haemorrhoids, Bitter Ocampo for a bitter person, Carmi Martin for karma, Gelli de Belen for jealous, Hagardo Versosa for haggard, Julie Yap Daza for huli, meaning late, Luz Valdez for lost, OA Delas Alas for over acting, Stress Drilon for stressed, and Tom Jones for gutom, meaning hungry.

Additionally, many words in swardspeak are also formed through addition of suffix to existing words such as boylet (boy), buysung (buy), chikaness (chika), cryola (cry), feelingness (feeling), getsung (get), givesung (give), gora (go), ikawa (ikaw), meaning “you”, kalaness (kala), meaning “thought”, mudrabels/mudrakels (mudra), meaning “mother”, sisteret (sister), waitsung (wait). For instance, boylet is a gay term formed by adding the English term “boy” with suffix “let”.

Aside from the discussed derivation processes, other processes include addition of “j” phoneme, change of final phoneme, change of middle phoneme, clipping with affixation, code-switching, coinage, connotation through image, simple reverse, and simple reverse with affixation, as used by the swardspeakers.

The findings assert that there are many derivations for gay language to exist, such as the Bahasa Gay language which involves “derivational processes including unique suffixes and word substitutions, and pragmatics oriented around the community rather than secrecy” (Boellstorff, 2004, p. 248). Creativity most likely plays a vital role in formulating gay words. This concurs with Abbas et al. (2017), who posit that creativity is essential in all forms of communication and in swardspeak, they referred to this creativity as linguistic deviation – the use of language that deviates from its normal derivations and use. Rubiales (2020), Racoma (2013), and Romero (2019) also perceive the gay language as a creative language. However, it is still considered by many authors as “sociolect” rather than a language (Rosales & Caretero, 2019) as it cannot exist as a language (Salao, 2010) due to its limited linguistic dispositions in terms of grammar and structure. Additionally, swardspeakers do not have specific formula or rule about which particular prefix or suffix should be attached to a word appropriated from the mainstream language (Rosales & Caretero, 2019).

Table 3

Implications on the Use of Swardspeak to the Language Competence of Students

Informant ID	Response	Code
IN3	I have many <u>gay friends</u> and I should learn it for me to understand their conversation and communicate with them.	Building relationship
IN4	To <u>communicate with gay friends</u> as camaraderie. Sometimes, when we want to <u>build relationship</u> with other people, we must learn to understand them through their language.	
IN3	I can understand them now, and at least, we can <u>hide secrets and chismis (gossip)</u> through using gay language.	Concealment
IN5	I believe the purpose of using gay language is to <u>hide private topics</u> that we talk about among ourselves as gays or swardspeakers.	
IN8	Well, the purpose of why I use gay language is <u>to hide or secret our conversations that supposedly not to hear by others.</u>	
IN5	We also find confidence when we use the language because <u>we find the sense of belongingness.</u>	Identity marker

IN6	So from there on, <u>I felt confident to stand for my gender. I am a gay</u> and I have the purpose to live also, not as a straight, but at least I live without hurting other people or causing trouble to them.	
IN7	<u>I am a gay too.</u> I have learned about the terms they use and when he talks to me, he uses gay language.	
IN9	When I hear my female, lesbian, or male friends, whatever their genders, <u>I am happy because I feel like I belong.</u>	
IN7	I have learned about the terms they use and when he talks to me, he uses gay language. There, <u>I have learned to express who I am better when I use the language.</u> I think that is the purpose, for us gays to express ourselves better.	
IN9	Because it is a special language for me. It <u>provides a way for me to express myself</u> as a gay.	Self-expression
IN10	I know that many people do not like the language we use because they say it is very vulgar and like papansin (seeking attention), <u>but they do not know we can express our true selves with this</u>	

As seen in Table 3, there are four significant points or codes with regards to the responses of the students on to the implications of the use of swardspeak to their sociolinguistic competence. These are building relationships, concealment, identify marker, and self-expression. The students use swardspeak in order to connect to their gay friends in communication and to build relationship with them, as indicated in Excerpts (1) and (2):

- (1) I have many gay friends and I should learn it for me to understand their conversation and communicate with them (IN3).
- (2) To communicate with gay friends as camaraderie. Sometimes, when we want to build relationship with other people, we must learn to understand them through their language (IN4).

It is a predisposition that one must learn the language of the other person in order to start building relationship between each other. However, in the case of

swardsppeak, when both swardspeakers use vernaculars, the gay language becomes the *lingua franca* in order to connect them to specific purpose such as building relationships.

Every language is used as a medium of communication, whatever the purpose may be. It is a man's potent tool because all our forms of expressions are transmitted through language, including one's need to be accepted and to feel the sense of belonging. With language as a tool, one can also build relationships with other people. Thus, this study shows a person may develop his or her ability to use gay language competently for the sake of fostering relationships with others.

Interestingly, Buarqoub (2019) explicated that one of the barriers to effective communication is the absence of common language – where two individuals misunderstand each other because of semantic miscommunication. Hence, to understand the LGBTQIA+ community better would mean to understand their language. As the LGBTQIA+ community gains acceptance in society, their language as their form of expression would be subjected to less discrimination. This in turn may result in more effective communication as the community becomes more understood by the society at large.

Another reason for using swardsppeak among students is for concealment. Informant three stated, "I can understand them now, and at least, we can hide secrets and chismis (gossip) through using gay language." Similarly, Informant Five said, "I believe the purpose of using gay language is to hide private topics that we talk about among ourselves as gays or swardspeakers," while Informant Eight said, "Well, the purpose of why I use gay language is to hide or secret our conversations that supposedly not to hear by others." All three informants used swardsppeak to hide secrets or topics that are private.

Past studies argued that swardspeakers used gay language to shield themselves from social stigma caused by gender discrimination (Casabal, 2008; Pascual, 2016; Racoma, 2013). The finding of the present study affirms Rubiales' (2020) argument that most students use swardsppeak to hide explicit content of their conversations. Hayes (1976) pointed out that swardsppeak was used for concealment of sensual topics such as sex, physical attractiveness, and intimacy of relationship. This notion is also supported by Taylor (2007), who identified topics hidden by swardspeakers include sex, body parts, and people.

As for the use of swardsppeak as an identify marker, Informant 7 learned the terms in order to speak the gay language (Excerpt 3).

- (3) I am a gay too. I have learned about the terms they use and when he talks to me, he uses gay language. (IN7)

In the past decades, gays were harshly discriminated through their outward display of self – their appearance and actions, with some migrated to the US due to discriminations on gender, race, and sexuality (Manalansan, 2003). The use of gay language serves as their identifier. In recent years, an increasing use of swardsppeak in the Philippines (Quackenbush, 2005) coupled with technological advancement (Catacutan, 2013) have led to gay language gaining a higher degree of acceptance in the contemporary era (Rubiales, 2020). The acceptance of gay language comes hand

in hand with the more visible identity of the gays and the LGBTQIA+ community. Students may make use of the gay language for the purpose of setting platform to freely express themselves and to be identified as part of their community without prejudice. Thus, the students can be more than just being the active ones, the academically-inclined ones, and the competitive ones when they can openly identify with their gender and orientation.

Another purpose on the use of swardspeak is for self-expression. This is directly related to the previously identified purpose and identity marker. As one is provided with the freedom to be identified as one's gender, the person becomes even more confident to express himself or herself, as illustrated in Excerpts 4 to 5.

- (4) I have learned to express who I am better when I use the language. I think that is the purpose, for us gays to express ourselves better. (IN7)
- (5) Because it is a special language for me. It provides a way for me to express myself as a gay. (IN9)
- (6) I know that many people do not like the language we use because they say it is very vulgar and like papansin (seeking attention), but they do not know we can express our true selves with this. (IN10)

According to Sunguitan (2005), the primary role of using the gay language is for freedom of expression among speakers. Linguistically, Romero (2019) explicates that Filipino gay language is flexible enough, having wide scope of lexicons – almost everything could be a source of word – that it gives freedom to speakers to articulate themselves expressively. Self-expression plays a vital role in the development of language competence because as one can express himself or herself, he or she can also possibly express language. Language is a means of communication and expression. The results show that swardspeak is used for building relationships, concealment, identity marker, and self-expression.

Conclusions

For the purpose of decoding swardspeak among Filipino college students, the study determined the extent of social context use of swardspeak and identified the derivations of the gay terms used, including the purposes of the use of swardspeak among students. The study revealed that there are more swardspeakers than non-swardspeakers among the students, which implies that the language has become more acceptable at the present time. The gay language has the characteristic that is adaptable to any speaker of any gender, because the building block in language learning is vocabulary knowledge – the more one learns of the vocabulary, the greater the capacity to communicate with the speakers of the gay language. Thus, learning and understanding the gay language would help discard gender biases and promote mutual respect among gays and non-gay students and teachers. This study also revealed that most students use swardspeak in public places such as stores, malls, or roads. They also use swardspeak in social media, such as on Facebook,

Twitter, Instagram, and YouTube, and in texting. This suggests that the students are aware of the appropriate contexts of using swardSpeak and that there is a proper place and time to use the gay language. Restrictions on the use of swardSpeak, as evidenced by the findings, are observed on the discouragement of use of swardSpeak in formal contexts such as in the classroom, during discussions and recitations, and in writing compositions. Moreover, it was found that there are many derivations for the gay language for it to exist, but creativity could play a pivotal role in formulating gay words. This shows that swardSpeak is a creative language as gay terms are derived in many different ways, which deviate linguistically from existing languages. Further, it was also found that students make use of swardSpeak mostly for building relationship, for concealment, as an identity marker, and for self-expression.

Thus, the study recommends that a sociolinguistic primer on the linguistic deviations of swardSpeak may be developed for students to be motivated to learn a language, which may result in the development of language competence among students. Further studies on the development of swardSpeak and the implications of use to the linguistic competencies of the students may also be conducted.

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EFFECTS OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES ON THE RESEARCH SELF-EFFICACY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDENT TEACHERS

Nga Thi Tuyet PHAN

The Industrial University of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam
ngaphan2004@gmail.com

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ABSTRACT

This study explored whether incorporating specific research activities into the syllabus could develop the research self-efficacy of a group of English language student teachers in Vietnam who belong to a demographic group currently underrepresented in self-efficacy literature. It investigated whether the students in the experimental group exhibited higher self-efficacy scores and achieved better research performance after the treatment. Additionally, it explored the correlation between self-efficacy and research performance and examined the perceived effects of the treatment on self-efficacy. The study adopted a quasi-experimental research design and a mixed-methods methodology. The participants of this study were 90 student teachers divided into a control group and an experimental group. Pre- and post-questionnaires and weekly reflective journal entries were used as data tools. Students' research proposal scores were used to compare their research performance. The findings indicated that including research activities enhanced students' research self-efficacy in the experimental group. These students exhibited a stronger sense of research self-efficacy and performed better than those in the control group. The development of self-efficacy through the four sources of self-efficacy was confirmed. The study's findings are informative to designing, refining, and optimising future programmes/interventions that facilitate the effects of research experiences, knowledge, and skills on undergraduates' research self-efficacy beliefs.

Keywords: quasi-experimental; research self-efficacy; undergraduates; Vietnam

Introduction

Improving undergraduate research is essential for various reasons, including raising students' awareness of graduate research, fostering collaboration and networking, introducing graduate education, and cultivating lifelong skills (Hill et al., 2022). However, in many Vietnamese universities, students mainly engage in scientific research projects during their fourth year, when they work on their graduation thesis, with limited exposure to research methodology in earlier years (Ngo, 2019). Consequently, they are often confused when researching their graduation thesis (Ngo, 2019). Recently, efforts have been made to improve the undergraduate research experience within Vietnamese education institutions, including providing more resources and encouraging research into this issue. Previous studies in the Vietnamese context (Le & Hoang, 2021; Ngo, 2019) have explored essential topics such as students' perceptions of the importance of research skills, research attitudes, and self-assessment of research knowledge and skills, with student teachers as the primary research participants. However, there is a dearth of studies on English language student teachers' research confidence in the previous literature.

Research includes systematically investigating a particular subject matter. It involves collecting and analysing information, data, and evidence to answer questions or solve problems (Medaille et al., 2022). For undergraduates, a lack of research experience, motivation, and exposure to research methods can harm their attitudes and beliefs about science and scientific knowledge. Researchers (Seng et al., 2020a; van Blankenstein et al., 2019) suggest that self-efficacy, that is, an individual's confidence in their ability to complete specific tasks successfully (Schunk & Pajares, 2010) is one of the most important predictors of student performance, effort, and motivation. Recently, research self-efficacy, a person's belief about his/her ability to conduct research-related tasks (Bishop & Bieschke, 1998) has been investigated in different educational fields. However, scholars (Baker & DeDonno, 2020; Hill et al., 2022) believe that more studies have been done on the research self-efficacy beliefs of graduates (e.g., doctorate students) than undergraduates. Given the benefits noted from previous studies investigating research self-efficacy (Seng et al., 2020b), it is appropriate to conduct a study to understand the research self-efficacy of undergraduates in the Vietnamese context.

In this study, I explored whether incorporating specific research activities (RAs) into the syllabus could develop the research self-efficacy of a group of English language student teachers who belong to a demographic group currently underrepresented in self-efficacy literature. Knowledge gained from my study is informative to the design, refinement, and optimisation of research programmes that facilitate the effects of research experiences, knowledge, and skills on research self-efficacy. The study answered the following research questions:

1. Are there any significant differences in the self-efficacy levels between students in the control group and those in the experimental group?
2. Do the students in the experimental group achieve better research performance?

3. Is there a correlation between research self-efficacy and research performance?
4. What are the perceived effects of the treatment on self-efficacy?

Literature Review

Social Cognitive Theory and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) emphasises the reciprocal relationship between environmental factors (e.g., physical conditions), personal factors (e.g., personal traits, beliefs), and behaviours (e.g., actions and choices). Individuals possess the power to influence and modify the environment in which they live while being simultaneously influenced by it. Self-efficacy is a principal component of social cognitive theory and a key determinant of human motivation and behaviour (Bandura, 1997). The degree of efficacy people feel in their ability to do a particular task can influence their motivation, effort, persistence, and resilience while attempting to complete the task. Self-efficacy can potentially influence academic performance (Usher et al., 2015). Self-efficacious students are likelier to gain better learning outcomes than those without self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is task-, context-, and domain-specific (Klassen & Klassen, 2018). Various tasks, contexts, and domains may require various knowledge, skills, and experiences.

Bandura (1997) proposed that individuals' self-efficacy develops through processing four sources of self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. Mastery experiences are previous successful or unsuccessful performances that offer individuals insights into their strengths and weaknesses. Vicarious experiences involve observing others completing a particular task, which can assist people in judging their abilities to perform the same task. Social persuasion refers to verbal or non-verbal judgments from others regarding an individual's ability to do a particular task, which can provide information for the development of self-efficacy. Physiological and emotional states are individuals' emotional and physiological arousal while performing a specific task. These states aid individuals in assessing their self-efficacy. In a given setting, the availability of sources of self-efficacy can shape people's beliefs of their abilities to accomplish specific tasks.

Some scholars propose enhancing self-efficacy by targeting its sources of information. Overall (2011) recommended establishing a research environment where graduate students can comfortably seek assistance, ask questions, and voice their opinions. The emphasis is on the role of supportive peers who offer encouragement (social persuasion), nurture positive emotions (physiological and emotional states), and provide examples of successful experiences (vicarious experiences). Pierrakos and Martin (2008) utilised weekly discussion sessions as a means for students to receive advice and share their experiences, thereby influencing self-efficacy through social persuasion and vicarious experiences. Hebert et al. (2014) conducted open discussions at the beginning of the semester, allowing students to address research-related fears and anxiety affecting their physiological and emotional states. García and Caso (2006) provided clear examples of how students' writing self-

efficacy could be improved through skill development (mastery experiences) and a supportive environment. Various strategies were employed, including flexible seating arrangements, adaptable learning schedules, and using smiles for social reinforcement. Discussions were structured to give students feedback from peers and instructors, encompassing vicarious experiences and social persuasion. Students were assigned manageable tasks, supported by progress tracking to demonstrate improvement. Some scholars advocated a blend of easy and challenging tasks to develop self-efficacy. Bandura (2007) emphasised that success in more straightforward tasks can boost self-efficacy, while effectively handling more challenging ones can further strengthen it. In line with this, Hebert et al. recommended introducing feasible research tasks initially and gradually incorporating challenging assignments after students master fundamental skills. To support students in tackling complex tasks or skills, scaffolding, a process in which students receive guidance to perform, learn, and solve tasks they cannot manage independently (Yantraprakorn et al., 2013), has been recognised as beneficial. Yantraprakorn et al. (2013) outlined various scaffolded activities, from macro-level to micro-level, which educators can implement in their classrooms to assist students in handling learning challenges and enhancing their self-efficacy in accomplishing assigned tasks.

Research Self-Efficacy

Bandura's (1997) concept of self-efficacy beliefs has been applied to understand individuals' confidence in carrying out research-related activities. Many studies investigating research self-efficacy have recently been published (Poh & Abdullah, 2019). Previous studies focus on measuring levels of research self-efficacy or examining the predicting factor of research self-efficacy (Baker & DeDonno, 2020). Researchers have found undergraduates often exhibit low research self-efficacy (Seng et al., 2020a). Research self-efficacy is a crucial factor impacting students' willingness to conduct research (Wright & Holtum, 2012), research attitudes (Robnett et al., 2015), research productivity (Adekunle & Madukoma, 2022), research careers (Adedokun et al., 2013; Carpi et al., 2016), and academic performance (Poh & Abdullah, 2019; Tiyyuri et al., 2018; van Blankenstein et al., 2019). Given the importance of fostering self-efficacy in students, scholars have emphasised the vital role of training programmes in improving research self-efficacy. Several authors (Baker & DeDonno, 2020; Black et al., 2013; Butz et al., 2018; Seng et al., 2020b) have tested the effectiveness of short-term research training programmes on research self-efficacy. The results of these studies support findings in the literature, indicating that short-term training programmes help to increase students' research self-efficacy and learning.

There are some primary concerns with current studies that investigate the effectiveness of research activities/programmes on research self-efficacy. First, most of these studies (Antonou et al., 2020; Black et al., 2013; Seng et al., 2020b) lack a control group. Without a control group, we cannot decide whether the changes in self-efficacy levels result from the training or other external factors such as maturation (Black et al., 2013). Additionally, researchers have overlooked comparing

objective research performance data between the two groups. The only study in my review that includes performance data is that of Baker and DeDonno (2020). In addition to students' self-perceptions, measuring the actual impact of any treatment on research self-efficacy is crucial. Objective data can offer a more comprehensive and unbiased perspective on the effects. Third, some scholars have utilised scales developed by other researchers without adapting them to suit their specific research contexts. For example, Seng et al. (2020a) and Seng et al. (2020b) employed the research self-efficacy scale developed by Phillips and Russell (1994) in their studies to understand the impact of short-term training programmes on undergraduates' self-efficacy. The original scale is designed for graduate students. Therefore, some items are irrelevant to contemporary undergraduate students such as "writing statistical computer programmes." Using such a scale without removing or adapting these items can lead to inaccurate or incomplete study results. Furthermore, researchers have developed or used research self-efficacy constructs that do not align with self-efficacy properties. For example, the scales in the study of Black et al. (2013) and Büyüköztürk et al. (2011) included certain items which assessed students' perceptions of their current abilities, not future-oriented ones (e.g., "I do not find it difficult at all to compare the results of my research to prior research results"). Amador-Campos et al. (2023) used some items measuring self-esteem focusing on how individuals can feel about themselves and their abilities (e.g., "I'm upbeat about my post-graduation career prospects") or self-competence, which evaluates overall abilities across different domains (e.g., "I'm on track to complete my degree programme on time"). These items do not directly assess research self-efficacy, which is task and situational-specific. Finally, yet importantly, previous work has primarily overlooked the use of sources of self-efficacy as a framework to design training programmes to improve research self-efficacy. Only one study has explored this topic, conducted by Bakken et al. (2010). Therefore, the present study is the first in Vietnam to apply the social cognitive theory as a framework for examining the effects of RAs on the research self-efficacy beliefs of English student teachers.

Materials and Methods

This quasi-experimental study targets four sources of self-efficacy information by integrating certain RAs into the syllabus. It uses a research self-efficacy instrument following Bandura's recommendations, includes performance data, and employs control and experimental groups in the research design. Pre- and post-questionnaires and weekly reflective journal entries were used as data tools. The scores from students' research proposals were used to measure the actual impact of the treatment.

Research Context

The study included 90 English majors from the Faculty of Foreign Languages at a university in Vietnam, comprising 74 females and 16 males. Their ages ranged from 21 to 22 years old. Their self-reported English language proficiency ranged from B2 (98.1%) to C1 (1.9%) (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages).

The students had never taken part in any scientific research projects before. At the point of data collection, all students had completed a research methodology course taught in Vietnamese and were enrolled in a Research-Writing Skills course. The course spans approximately three months and consists of 30 teaching periods. Students meet once a week for two hours and thirty minutes. The course aims to provide students with theoretical knowledge of conducting research and developing scientific writing skills. Students are required to submit a research proposal at the end of the course. The textbook used for the course is *Thesis and Dissertation Writing in a Second Language* by Paltridge and Starfield (2007). The researcher used convenience sampling to select participants for the present study. One class (Class A) served as the control group, while the other class received the treatment (Class B). The details of the two groups are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Sample Characteristics

Demographic	Participants	
	Class A	Class B
Participants	45	45
Gender, n (%)		
Male	7 (15.6)	9 (20)
Female	38 (84.4)	36 (80)
English proficiency, n (%)		
B2	33 (73.3)	35 (77.8)
C1	12 (26.7)	10 (22.2)

The Research Activities

The RAs provided students in the experimental group with practical research experiences and opportunities to share specific knowledge and skills not covered in the syllabus. The RAs were designed to offer the students scaffolded activities as suggested by Yantraprakorn et al. (2013) to accomplish different research tasks (mastery experiences), learn from working with peers (vicarious experiences), get feedback from peers and the instructor (social persuasion), and experience various levels of emotions when involving in the research tasks (physiological and emotional states). There were 12 online training sessions and discussions, each lasting 90 minutes, conducted over three months alongside the Research-Writing Skills course. Class A did not participate in the RAs in this study but followed the theory-oriented syllabus (refer to Table 2). The four sources of self-efficacy information incorporated the training sessions and discussions (see Table 3). Before each discussion topic, Class B students were given specific homework assignments. Homework was designed in such a way that students had a sense of accomplishment and there was room for improvement. Each discussion started with an open exchange of students' challenges and experiences when doing particular tasks and their expectations from peers and the instructor. Next, peers provided feedback, followed by the instructor offering

verbal and written feedback, highlighting achievements, and indicating areas requiring attention.

Table 2
Format of Instructions

Class	Textbook	Specific training and discussions	
A			
	1. Finding a research gap	None	
	2. Forming research questions		
	3. Writing the introduction chapter		
	4. Writing the literature review chapter		
	5. Research methodology and research tools		
	6. Writing the results chapter		
	7. Writing the conclusion chapter		
	8. Writing the abstract		
	9. APA referencing style		
Class	Textbook	Specific training and discussions	
B			
		Training	Discussions
	The book is the same as the one used in Class A	1. Quotations and plagiarism	1. Research gaps and research questions
		2. SPSS programme	2. The introduction chapter
		3. Analysing quantitative data using the SPSS programme	3. The literature review chapter
		4. Analysing qualitative data (content analysis, thematic analysis)	4. The research design chapter
		5. Endnote	5. The results chapter
			6. The conclusion chapter
			7. The abstract

Table 3*Discussion Example*

7th discussion: The abstract (90 minutes)			
Activities	Student	Instructor	Sources of self-efficacy
1. Analysing a Bachelor Thesis abstract	Completing Homework Assignment 1	Explaining assignment requirements	Vicarious experience
2. Re-writing an abstract	Completing Homework Assignment 2	Explaining assignment requirements	Mastery experience
3. Discussion	Discussing assignments 1 and 2 in small groups and with the whole class	Creating a positive atmosphere in class (e.g., allowing students to select their groups) Giving verbal and written feedback	Physiological and emotional states Social persuasion Mastery experiences Vicarious experiences

Instruments***The Research Self-Efficacy Questionnaire***

The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section collected students' demographic information, including gender, age, previous research experiences, and perceived English language competence. The second section consisted of 27 items, categorised into four constructs: research planning (eight items), data collection and analysis (six items), research communication (seven items), and scientific writing (six items). The questionnaire was discussed among the author and other researchers to minimise meaning ambiguity and ensure the inclusion of fundamental research tasks and skills specific to English language student teachers in the local context. Five-point Likert scale was used, where a score of 1 indicated "not self-efficacious", and 5 indicated "absolutely self-efficacious". The responses were averaged, resulting in a single score with higher scores signifying higher levels of research self-efficacy.

A pilot test of the questionnaire was conducted using a sample of 219 English language student teachers who were selected from the target population and were not part of the actual study. An exploratory factor analysis test indicated that items "Meeting deadlines effectively" and "Allocating time for different research activities" demonstrated cross-loadings, with loadings differing by 0.054 and 0.079, respectively. The item "Approaching potential participants" did not load onto any extracted factors. Consequently, these items were excluded, and the author performed the analysis test again with 24 remaining questions. The factor loading distributions of the updated version of the questionnaire ranged from .583 to .823. The revised questionnaire consisted of three dimensions: research planning (six items), research skills and

communication (12 items), and scientific writing (six items). The scale exhibited strong internal consistency, as indicated by a total Cronbach's alpha of .966. The Cronbach's alphas of the three subscales were .885 for research planning, .878 for research skills and communication, and .948 for scientific writing. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of .959 was obtained, and Bartlett's test demonstrated significance ($p < .001$).

In the present study, which involved a control group (Class A) and an experimental group (Class B), the reliability analyses of the pre-tests and post-tests are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Reliability Analyses

	Class A pre-test	Class B pre-test	Class A post-test	Class B post-test
Cronbach's Alpha	.840	.846	.859	.916

Journal Entries

In this study, journal entries were used to investigate how undergraduate students perceived the impact of the RAs on their research self-efficacy. These entries, documenting weekly experiences, showed how students assessed and selected sources of self-efficacy information when building their research self-efficacy. Additionally, the entries revealed a connection between developing self-efficacy, knowledge growth, and skill development. Guidelines in the form of prompts were provided, and all participants chose to write their entries in English when given the choice between Vietnamese and English. Out of 45 students in Class B, 24 (53%) submitted their entries via email over approximately four months, resulting in 205 journal entries collected by the end of the data collection period.

Research Performance

As per the syllabus, students had to submit a research proposal for assessment at the end of the course. The scores from the proposals were utilised in this study with the student's permission from both classes.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The study was conducted at the Industrial University of Ho Chi Minh City (IUH), Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. The study was approved by the IUH Scientific Review & Ethics Committee (Reference number 296/QĐ-ĐHCN/2023). Approval was secured from faculty leaders before initiating the informed consent process. English seniors in two classes taught by the same instructor, who also conducted the research, were emailed and asked if they were interested in participating. The email made it clear that participation was voluntary and would not impact their course progress or

performance. It also guaranteed complete anonymity throughout the study. All students in Class A and Class B consented to their data.

The data collection spanned approximately four months. Initially, 90 participants filled out pre-questionnaires online in the classroom. The post-questionnaire was also online, but students could complete it at their convenience outside the classroom. Both questionnaires, given at the start and end of the treatment, were identical and took roughly 15 minutes to complete. Class B students began writing journal entries after the first training session one week after distributing the pre-questionnaire. The final entries were collected approximately two weeks after the last training session and one week after the post-questionnaire. The privacy and confidentiality of the participants were respected and protected throughout this research. Pseudonyms were used to replace participants' real names.

The collected quantitative data were analysed by the SPSS programme. An independent t-test was conducted to compare the research self-efficacy levels between the two groups. Another independent t-test was conducted to examine the potential differences in the students' performance scores in the control and treatment groups. Pearson correlation was conducted to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and research performance.

Qualitative data were analysed to understand the perceived effects of the RAs on research self-efficacy, following the procedures of both the inductive coding process (Creswell, 2012) and the thematic coding method (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This involved multiple rounds of coding, initially to identify the sub-themes and then to apply the finalised coding framework. The author coded for theoretical themes, specifically focusing on the effects of the RAs on research self-efficacy, as addressed in the last research question. The author commenced analysing data by examining individual student data and subsequently compared the codes, themes, and categories across the 24 students.

Results

Self-Efficacy Levels

An independent t-test was used to understand the differences in self-efficacy levels between the two groups. As shown in Table 5, no significant difference between Class A and Class B was found before the treatment ($\text{sig.} = .283 > .05$). However, a significant difference was observed between the two groups after the treatment ($\text{sig.} = .000 < .05$). The mean self-efficacy ratings were 2.63 for Class A students and 4.01 for Class B students. Students in the control group (Class A) exhibited low self-efficacy in research-related activities, while those in the experimental group demonstrated higher self-efficacy. Referring to Table 6, Class B students displayed the highest levels of self-efficacy in scientific writing, scoring 4.23. Their levels of self-efficacy in research planning, research skills, and communication were relatively similar, hovering around 3.9. On the other hand, Class A students maintained consistently low self-efficacy levels across three dimensions, averaging around 2.6.

Table 5*Self-Efficacy Scores of the Two Groups Before and After the Treatment*

	n	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test						
Class A	45	1	5	2.19	.690	.283
Class B	45	1	5	2.33	.589	
Post-test						
Class A	45	1	5	2.63	.360	
Class B	45	1	5	4.01	.196	.000

Table 6*Post-test Self-Efficacy Scores for each factor*

	n	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Research planning					
Class A	45	1	5	2.67	.430
Class B	45	1	5	3.90	.306
Research Skills & Communication					
Class A	45	1	5	2.60	.417
Class B	45	1	5	3.95	.342
Scientific writing					
Class A	45	1	5	2.63	.453
Class B	45	1	5	4.23	.211

Research Performance of the Two Groups

Another independent t-test was run to compare the students' performance scores in the control and experimental groups. The students' average scores in Class A and B were 2.81 and 3.65, respectively (see Table 7). The results indicated that students in the experimental group performed better than those in the control group.

Table 7*Performance Scores of the Two Groups*

Scores	n	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
Class A	45	0	4	2.81	.306	.000
Class B	45	0	4	3.65	.270	

Research Self-Efficacy and Research Performance

A positive correlation was found between students' research self-efficacy and their research performance, and the correlation was quite strong (referring to Tables 8 and

9). The result indicated that those who scored higher on the assignment had a stronger sense of self-efficacy. Put differently, research self-efficacy was an important factor affecting students' research performance and positively impacted their achievement.

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics

	n	Mean	SD
Score	90	3.23	.510
Research self-efficacy	90	3.32	.753

Table 9
Correlations Between Students' Research Self-Efficacy and Research Performance

		Self-efficacy	Score
Research self-efficacy	Person Correlation	1	.827**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	90	90
Score	Person Correlation	.827**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	90	90

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

Perceived Effects of the Treatment

The qualitative data showed students' enhanced sense of self-efficacy after the treatment. The students reported a higher sense of self-efficacy through their descriptions of a) a growth in research knowledge and skills and b) a therapeutic research-training environment.

A Growth in Research Knowledge and Skills

All students mentioned the expanded research knowledge and skills they gained during the RAs, contributing to their self-efficacy development. Owing to the knowledge and skills provided from training sessions, the feedback from peers and the instructor (social persuasion) during the discussions, and learning from reading articles and peers (vicarious experiences), they could develop their scientific writing and data analysing skills.

Knowledge of Scientific Writing.

The students agreed that their scientific writing skills improved weekly. Compared to other research tasks, the students appeared to be more self-efficacious in performing particular tasks related to scientific writing, as they used prominently positive

language such as “delighted”, “more knowledge”, “sufficient”, “confident”, “really excited”, “important”, “helpful”, “useful”, “happy”, and “effective” to depict their experiences. For example, some students wrote:

I’m delighted I picked up some knowledge from this course. ... My research writing skills have developed through the completion of writing tasks, reading articles, listening to my teammates’ ideas and suggestions, having discussions with them, giving and receiving feedback, as well as through reflecting on my own skills weekly. ... I had sufficient instructions in class that guided me to complete the paraphrased paragraphs. I feel confident somehow because I am aware of what will happen in the next stage.

From the reading and analysis of articles, I discovered that my writing should follow a standardised structure. ... I have collected helpful technical vocabularies, including reporting verbs and hedging language items. They are especially useful for my thesis writing in the future, and I’m happy that I am in this class.

I was obsessed with references in my previous Research Method course. I’m thankful to the instructor that helped me to practice my automated citation and bibliography generation. This new skill saved me time and reduced my citation errors.

Analysing Data.

The students wrote about the challenges of analysing data. The use of both negative and positive language (e.g., “very time consuming”, “have never learned”, “tough”, “laborious”, “interesting”, and “useful”) in their descriptions of how they experienced the task suggests fluctuations in self-efficacy beliefs. However, the students all acknowledged the importance of data analysis in future research, which helped develop their determination to accomplish the challenging task. The accomplishment of the particular tasks gradually developed a sense of competence in doing similar research tasks in the future.

I attended a session on SPSS. ... The session helped me learn how to import, clean, and manipulate data from Excel spreadsheets. I also learned some calculations and present descriptive statistics. ... I could follow the instructions and do some analysis tasks precisely. ... It is not easy for me at all. ... The analysis program is important for my thesis writing next semester, so I need to strive.

I learned that manual thematic analysis can be very time-consuming. I have never learned that before. ... I’m thankful for the instructor and my teammates’ comments on my organisation of codes and themes. The task was laborious but interesting.

This week, the instructor guided us to develop a sample plan for the qualitative data analysis process. I can see that it is quite easy to get lost and feel overwhelmed, but careful data storage and detailed records of the analysis process can help.

A Therapeutic Research Training Environment.

Twenty students in the experimental group reported psychological benefits from the RAs. They found that participating in discussions and interactions with their peers and the instructor created a comfortable and secure environment, reducing their anxiety and stress. This supportive atmosphere also helped them address research limitations and plan specific tasks, ultimately boosting their self-efficacy. Representative examples are:

I found that I'm not the only student having difficulties. My instructor told us that having a challenge using the analysis tools is normal. ... I feel less pressure as my teammates and my instructor gave me a lot of useful advice.

I feel much more confident than before because I understand the concepts of the research methodology better. I was very worried that I could not finish the task. A classmate today had a nice explanation of how he reviewed the research methodology. I have one real example!

The instructor told us several times that we could text or send her emails if we had any questions. I'm happy with her support. The atmosphere during class discussions is amazingly comfortable. I'm happy I can meet my classmates weekly to talk about my frustrations and listen to their stories and advice.

Discussion

Findings indicated that including specific research activities enhanced students' research self-efficacy in the experimental group. These students exhibited a stronger sense of research self-efficacy and performed better than those in the control group. The development of self-efficacy through the four sources of self-efficacy was confirmed. Students in the experimental group gradually developed an increased sense of self-efficacy due to their growth in research knowledge and skills and the supportive research-training environment provided as part of the treatment.

The results of the present study indicate that, following the treatment, the mean scores of research self-efficacy for Class B students were higher than those of Class A. The mean self-efficacy scores for Class B students after the treatment (4.01) also increased compared to their scores before the treatment (2.33). Additionally, students in the experimental group performed better in their research proposals than the control group students. A positive correlation was observed between students' research self-efficacy and their research performance. The positive effects of the treatment on the research self-efficacy of students in the experimental group were confirmed in the study.

The self-efficacy levels of the students in the experimental group increased after the treatment is similar to what other researchers found in other studies (Baker & DeDonno, 2020; Black et al., 2013; Butz et al., 2018; Seng et al., 2020b). Unlike the participants in the study by Hess et al. (2023), who developed significant scientific self-efficacy due to their previous research experience, qualitative data in this study indicate that the higher mean scores of the participants were attributed to their

perceived growth in research knowledge and skills and the supportive research-training environment. Participants' greater understanding of research knowledge and skills after the treatment is parallel to findings obtained in previous research (Baker & DeDonno, 2020; Pierrakos & Martin, 2008; Seng et al., 2020a; Seng et al., 2020b). The contribution of this study to the field lies in its utilisation of a research self-efficacy instrument adhering to Bandura's (1997) recommendations, inclusion of research performance data, incorporation of both a control group and an experimental group in the research design, and engagement of participants who have received relatively less attention in the existing literature.

In this study, Class A students (the control group) maintained consistently low self-efficacy levels across three dimensions, averaging around 2.6. Class B students learned the theories prescribed in the syllabus and had opportunities to access hands-on experiences and discussions in the RAs. At the same time, those in Class A only followed the theory-oriented syllabus. Class A students may have needed more opportunities to practice and succeed in completing the tasks offered in the treatment, contributing to their lower sense of research self-efficacy and lower performance scores. The Research-Writing Skills course's time and curriculum constraints made it challenging for control group students to grasp the necessary knowledge and skills. Since incorporating practice opportunities and sharing experiences in discussions resulted in a higher sense of self-efficacy of students in the experimental group, learning time and the content of the current course syllabus should be reviewed. Adapting the syllabus to include additional hands-on experiences and discussions is worth considering.

The cultivation of self-efficacy through four sources of self-efficacy is confirmed in this study. The hands-on experiences and practice helped the students in the experimental group to master research tasks step-by-step so that they experienced success (mastery experiences). The interaction with peers and the instructor, the sharing sessions during discussions, and the pleasant research training environment (physiological and emotional states) helped reduce research anxieties and difficulties. The constructive feedback from peers and the instructor (social persuasion) enabled the students to recognise their research limitations and develop strategic learning plans. Examining peers' work and reading articles (vicarious experiences) improved research skills, resulting in higher self-efficacy.

Supportive peers and mentors have been known to contribute to positive research experiences and research self-efficacy among postgraduate students (Liu et al., 2019; Love et al., 2007; Overall et al., 2011). Some scholars (Medaille et al., 2022; Poh & Abdullah, 2019) mentioned the contribution of the warm, friendly, and supportive research environment to a stronger sense of research self-efficacy. However, previous research has primarily overlooked the use of sources of self-efficacy as a framework to design programmes aiming at improving research self-efficacy. Therefore, the present findings have important implications for future research activities/ training programmes.

By understanding how RAs helped students in the experimental group cope with frustrations and challenges and enhance their self-efficacy, several suggestions for future programmes are made. Firstly, the combination of skills development and a supportive environment may bring the most benefits to undergraduates' self-

efficacy. The warm and friendly research-training environment, which provides reassurance, sympathy, and encouragement, will probably make undergraduates feel safe to seek help to overcome research challenges. Supportive feedback recognising students' efforts and achievements and pointing out their areas for improvement (Pierrakos & Martin, 2008) may gradually cultivate students' research abilities. Secondly, the knowledge and skills provided by the RAs should include hands-on experiences, and learning opportunities should allow for progressive success. The students complete basic tasks and enjoy success before moving to more challenging tasks. Thirdly, the RAs should include weekly open discussions, allowing students to share challenges, reduce stress, and exchange knowledge and skills. The discussions nurture a positive learning culture, which fosters a stronger sense of research self-efficacy among students.

Conclusion

The quasi-experimental study showed that students in the experimental group exhibited a stronger sense of research self-efficacy and performed better than those in the control group. The development of self-efficacy through the four sources was confirmed. There are some limitations of this study. First, participant selection was not random, making it challenging to ensure initial equivalence between the two groups and weakening the research's inferential power. There is also a concern that students from both groups may have shared ideas outside the study, potentially contaminating the results. The study's external validity may be limited since it was conducted in a unique setting with EFL student teachers, making generalisation to other settings challenging. Furthermore, the study duration was relatively short (about four months), providing a limited perspective on self-efficacy development. Future research should consider tracking self-efficacy in more extended activities like thesis writing to draw firmer conclusions (Medaille et al., 2022). Despite these limitations, the study's implications are valuable for designing training programmes to enhance research self-efficacy in various settings.

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EFL LECTURERS' PRACTICE, PERCEPTION, AND EVALUATION OF ENGLISH AS THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

Erikson SARAGIH

Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia
eriksonsaragih@usu.ac.id

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ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions in non-English speaking countries, such as Indonesia, have practised English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in teaching-learning activities. Previous studies have explored EMI implementation policies and the difficulties of their implementation in Indonesian higher education contexts. However, this study examined the perception, comprehension, practices, and evaluation of EMI in Indonesia where English functions as a foreign language. The data of this study were taken from questionnaires distributed to 42 English lecturers. The results reveal that most lecturers' speaking skills are in the very good category, 95% of lecturers understand the EMI concept well and always apply EMI to learning activities. In EMI practice, the lecturers face obstacles, especially in arguing concepts, explaining and clarifying concepts, giving examples, and defining concepts. In addition, the lecturers reported barriers to expressing content materials in English, preparing long materials, and requiring a longer time to explain materials. The study also reported some students' problems in EMI practice, especially dealing with their low confidence in using English and low ability to comprehend materials. To apply EMI successfully, both lecturers and students need to improve their speaking skills in the context of higher education in Indonesia.

Keywords: EMI; tertiary education; practice; perception; evaluation; Indonesia context

Introduction

The complex history of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is connected to colonisation and globalisation (Kim et al., 2014). It can be associated with British colonial authority and the expansion of the British Empire in the 19th and 20th centuries in many parts of the world. The impact of the British Empire resulted in many of its colonies adopting English as their primary language of government, instruction, and communication. English eventually became the most widely spoken language in the world due to its economic and cultural domination, the growth of American popular culture, and the significance of English in international diplomacy and business (Sah, 2022).

In the EMI context, English is not only seen as a way to access global knowledge and opportunities, but it can also be a source of linguistic and cultural tension that causes a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, with both positive and negative consequences (Cheng, 2020). The positive sides include issues of global communication, access to education resources, and employability for higher education graduates (Zein et al., 2020). On the other hand, the negative sides cover issues of language barriers, inequality, cultural bias, and teacher competency (Goktepe & Kunt, 2021).

The application of EMI in the teaching and learning process in non-English-speaking countries is still an intriguing topic nowadays (Chang, 2019; Goodman, 2014; Salahshour et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2020). Although using English as the target language continues to cause many challenges in various nations, the policy of applying EMI is still seen to be able to greatly motivate both educators and students to grasp English literacy (Chang, 2019; Floris, 2014). As a result, some educational institutions are continuing to establish policies in the area of foreign language instruction (Pearson, 2014; Samani & Narafshan, 2016).

Along with the paradigm shift in foreign language teaching from language description to functional language use for communication purposes, the use of EMI continues to be in demand by foreign language teachers and receives full support from educational institutions, particularly higher education in various countries (Eshghinejad & Moini, 2016; Fang, 2018). Furthermore, most educators share the enthusiasm for using EMI in foreign language acquisition. Even though there are no clear standards for implementing this policy in numerous countries, EFL teachers continue to use it in their classrooms. EMI is increasingly being used in higher education, although the variables behind EMI rise vary by nation. There are at least two reasons underlying the application of EMI. Firstly, most academic research—roughly 94%—is published in English in high-impact international journals. Therefore, considering that the subject is mainly written in English, it makes sense for students to practise English if they wish to keep current in their education. In addition, most of the language and information in many technical subjects, as well as the research and theses of students, are written in English.

In the last two decades, several researchers have conducted a lot of research on the use of EMI in the practice of English as a foreign language (Mancho-Barés & Aguilar-Pérez, 2020). Because of the significance of English, there is indeed a fast-expanding trend throughout many worldwide learning settings for English to be

accepted as the mode of instruction, even though the general populace communicates the language of the country. Of course, there are a lot of drawbacks to employing EMI, both for teachers and students.

Despite diverse attitudes regarding its usage, the use of English in Indonesian education programmes has been expanding for the last several years (Dewi, 2017). Indonesia's modernisation agenda has driven this expansion of English language education by Indonesian education institutions. The growth of English language instruction by applying EMI is driven by Indonesia's modernisation needs. English is used globally across borders in communication skills among persons in which the first languages are frequently not English, not just by native speakers or as a regional variant.

The creation of ELF has boosted language mastery for a variety of objectives and established EMI in a variety of settings. Although the use of EMI started the globalisation phase of academic institutions and improved educational quality can be assumed to a certain extent, the efficiency of EMI implementation in core subjects has yet to be thoroughly explored.

Some studies on EMI practices in the context of education in Indonesia have been carried out in the last two decades (Floris, 2014). The majority of them explored the relationship between EMI practices and government policies in the framework of EMI in the Indonesian school system, particularly concerning issues of sustaining the Indonesian language to demonstrate national identity (Dewi, 2017).

Some studies describe the disagreement and rejection of the use of EMI in many schools associated with nationalist issues to maintain the use of Indonesian language as the primary medium of communication in the area of education (Zacharias, 2013). On the one hand, some academic institutions in Indonesia aim to internationalise, but on the other hand, they still want Indonesian to be the primary language of instruction.

Furthermore, some studies highlighted the importance of selecting certain subjects that use EMI as the learning language (Aizawa & Rose, 2020; Borg, 2019; Graham et al., 2018). Respondents suggested that employing EMI in specific learning processes, particularly mathematics and natural science, would aid students in preparing to continue their education overseas while using English as the language of instruction (Floris, 2014).

Although prior studies have investigated the EMI phenomena (Fitriati & Rata, 2020), hardly any studies have looked at EMI practices by English teachers at the university level (Yuan et al., 2020), particularly in English study programmes. In Indonesia, the use of EMI in the context of education is rather blurred, both in terms of government policies and EMI practices in educational institutions (Duran & Sert, 2019). As a result, English teachers tend to make EMI a personal option based on their desire and ability to do so.

The study examined EFL lecturers' practice, perception, and evaluation of English as the medium of instruction in tertiary education. The research questions are:

1. How do EFL lecturers perceive their readiness to implement EMI in Indonesian higher education?
2. How is the lecturers' comprehension of EMI?

3. What language barriers are faced by both EFL lecturers and students in practising EMI?
4. What suggestions are proposed to improve the quality of EMI practice in the Indonesian context?

The study intends to provide a comprehensive picture and elaboration of EMI practice and evaluation, especially for English curriculum designers and teachers who practise EMI in higher education contexts in Indonesia. In addition, it is of pivotal importance to add to previous studies regarding the practice and application of EMI.

Review of Literature

English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in a Global Context

The dominance of English has elevated its role as an instructional language in the global setting, notably in higher education and worldwide commerce (Guo et al., 2022). It is the most widely used second language in the world as an international language. It acts as a platform for open dialogue among speakers of various languages. A lot of academic institutions across the world provide programmes taught in English on the topic of education, drawing students from different nations. This facilitates information sharing on a worldwide scale and promotes cross-cultural learning (Sjøen, 2023).

Since people of different countries speak English, each one has its unique accent and dialect (Shepard & Rose, 2023). Concerns about linguistic imperialism and the possible marginalisation of other languages and cultures are allayed by this diversity, which also adds to the language's adaptability and represents the language's worldwide reach. Although there are many different varieties of English, there are also standard versions like British English and American English that are used as benchmarks for communication consistency and as a medium of instruction (Gao et al., 2022).

EMI Contexts in Indonesia

Indonesian is the official language and medium of teaching in Indonesia (Bolton et al., 2023). However, English is a language that is taught at several colleges and foreign schools. Since Indonesia is the world's fourth-most populated nation and third-largest democracy, its significance in global trade has grown. The use of EMI in Indonesia has been an intriguing topic, particularly concerning its application at institutions of higher education (Coleman et al., 2023).

The broader environment of English language instruction in a country cannot be separated from the growing popularity of EMI. The purposes of establishing an EMI programme might range from serving international students to encouraging internationalisation among national students.

Several universities in Indonesia are working hard to gain international recognition (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019). They partially achieve this by deliberately adopting EMI. At the high school level, it is typically used by schools that partner

with foreign universities. At college and university levels, EMI is typically used in English-based study programmes like English literature study or English language education as well as foreign classes at various institutions. Because EMI is highly preferred at many Indonesian institutions, language regulations in higher education regarding EMI implementation are still blurred. As a consequence, many universities have chosen different policies and strategies depending on the institution's needs (Simbolon, 2021).

Perspectives on the Implementation of EMI

In Indonesia, the internationalisation of higher education aims to raise educational standards, make Indonesian institutions more competitive internationally, and foster a more varied and welcoming academic environment (Harun et al., 2020). The Indonesian government has made this endeavour a top priority in recent years. To encourage international participation and collaboration in higher education, it incorporates some strategies and efforts. Increasing the number of international students is one of the important components of this internationalisation endeavour. Universities in Indonesia have been attempting to draw in more foreign students by providing scholarships, raising the standard of instruction, streamlining the visa application procedure, and offering programmes in other countries by EMI.

There are still many questions about the use of EMI at different educational levels in Indonesia (Jahan & Hamid, 2019). This argument centres on difficulties relating to the country's official language and the low level of English proficiency among lecturers and students. Regarding English proficiency, several parties contend that EMI can only be used if lecturers and students have sufficient English language proficiency. In actuality, most lecturers and students struggle with comprehending and using English (Coleman, 2017; Saragih et al., 2023). They thus contended that careful planning was required to support this effort. Other groups contend that Indonesian ought to be the primary language taught there, particularly in educational institutions. Making English the language of instruction in higher education is considered to violate the 1928 Youth Pledge and the 1945 Constitution.

Method

The case study was conducted at the beginning of the odd semester 2022/2023 academic year to examine the different views of individual lecturers about the perception, practice, and evaluation of EMI in the Indonesian context. Respondents in this research consisted of 42 lecturers of English Education departments at seven state-owned universities and 10 private universities in 10 cities from five main islands in Indonesia (Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Celebes, and Papua). They were from major cities, where EMI tends to be implemented. Respondents selected were those who practised EMI in the teaching-learning activities in their classroom.

The research team distributed questionnaires to 60 lecturers who met the criteria but only 48 lecturers returned online questionnaires. Of these, six questionnaires could not be used as research data due to technical problems (file problem). The participant demographic information is depicted in Table 1.

Table 1

Participant Demography based on Gender, Age, Education, Teaching Experiences and Types of College

No	Demography	Categories	Total	Percentage
1	Gender	Male	17	41%
		Female	25	59%
2	Age	< 30 years	2	4.76%
		30-40 years	2	4.76%
		41-50 years	19	45.23%
		51-60 years	15	35.71%
		>60 years	4	9.52%
3	University status	Public University	16	38%
		Private University	26	62%
4	Education	Bachelor	1	2.38%
		Master	17	40.47%
		Doctorate	24	57.14%
5	Teaching Experience	1-5 years	2	4.76%
		5-10 years	6	14.28%
		11-15 years	14	33.33%
		16-20 years	16	38.09%
		>20 years	4	9.52%
6	Types of College	University	36	85.71%
		Institute	4	9.52%
		College	2	4.76%

The online questionnaire consisted of 10 questions to explore perceptions of readiness, description of EMI of language barriers, and EMI evaluation to improve the quality of EMI implementation in the learning process at the higher education level in Indonesia. The questions asked are a combination of closed questions in the form of a Likert scale and open-ended questions. The question items were validated by a team of experts to ensure that the question items were precise and accurate.

The data were collected in September and October 2022, by distributing Google links to selected respondents. To collect the data, the researcher followed several procedures to maintain the integrity of the research process and ensure the rights of respondents are respected. Firstly, the researcher informed the respondents about the purpose of the study and they voluntarily agreed to participate without coercion. Secondly, the researcher protected respondents' privacy by guaranteeing that their responses were kept confidential or anonymous.

The questionnaire data were analysed based on the following steps; data cleaning (removing any incomplete or inconsistent responses), data entry (entering survey responses into a dataset by ensuring accuracy), and data visualisation (generating charts or graphs) to visualise data distribution, data interpretation (interpreting the results, drawing a meaningful conclusion from data), peer review (colleagues reviewing the analysis to ensure its accuracy and validity).

Results

The results of this study are described to show the lecturers' perception of EMI, comprehension of EMI, competence in EMI, their practice of applying EMI, and evaluation.

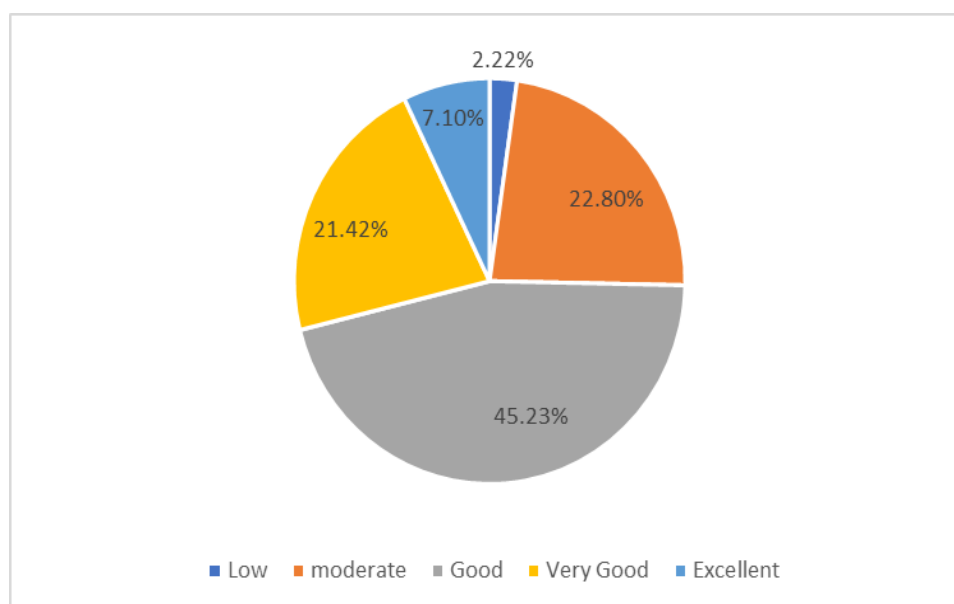
Lecturers' Perception of EMI

Perception of Speaking Skills

Theoretically, the mastery of EMI is positively correlated with the speaking skills of the English teacher. This section describes the self-reflection of English teachers about their speaking skills in connection with teachers' performance in implementing EMI in the classroom. The teacher's self-reflection of their speaking ability is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Self-Reflection of Teachers' Speaking Skills



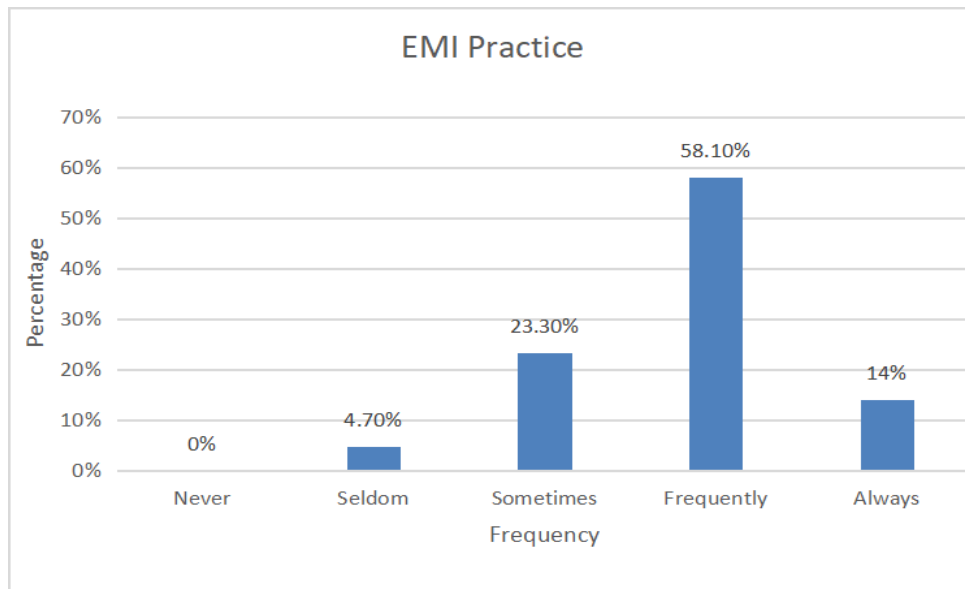
The self-grade speaking skills was performed by grouping assessments from a score range of 60-100. In this measurement, the score categories were grouped as excellent (100), very good (90), good (80), moderate (70), and low (60).

The results showed that 19 out of 42 teachers (45.23%) rated their speaking ability in the value of 80, 10 teachers (22.80%) rated their score 70, 9 teachers (21.42%) rated their ability score 90. Three teachers (7.14%) rated their ability in the "Excellent" category, and only one teacher (2.38%) rated their speaking ability in English in the "Low" category (60). Overall, most teachers do not have problems implementing EMI when it comes to their mastery of speaking skills in English.

Frequency of EMI Practice

The frequency of applying EMI in the learning process was elicited using a Likert scale with the options "Always", "Frequently", "Sometimes", "Seldom" and "Never". The frequency of EMI application in the learning process are depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2
Teachers' Frequency of Using EMI



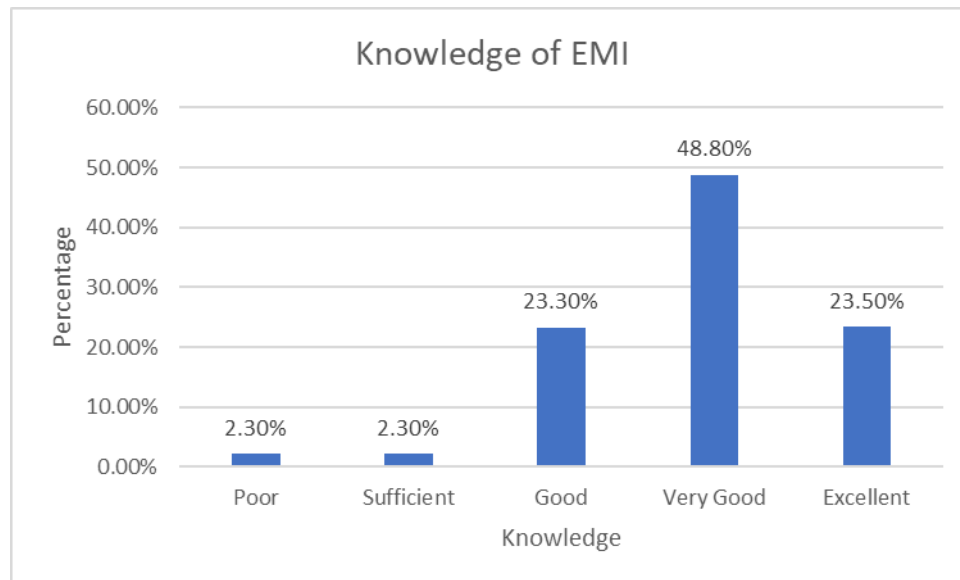
A total of 25 English teachers (59.52%) were in the "Frequently" category, 9 teachers (21.42 %) were in the "Sometimes" category, six teachers (14.28%) were in the "Always" category, and two teachers (4.76%) in the "Seldom" category.

Lecturers' Comprehension of EMI

Lecturers' comprehension of EMI includes their knowledge of EMI and their competence in using EMI. For this question, teachers were asked to rate their knowledge of EMI using as 1 for Poor, 2 for Sufficient, 3 for Good, 4 for Very good, and 5 for Excellent. The teachers' knowledge of EMI is depicted in Figure 3.

Figure 3 illustrates that the majority of lecturers understand EMI theories and concepts in the "Very Good" category (48.8%), the "Excellent" category (23.5%), and the "Good" category (23.3%). The data also show that a small number of teachers have a minimum understanding of EMI, namely, in the "Sufficient" category (2.3%) and the "Poor" category (2.3%). This phenomenon indicates that most teachers have read various literature on the practice and application of EMI before they apply EMI as the language of instruction in the learning process.

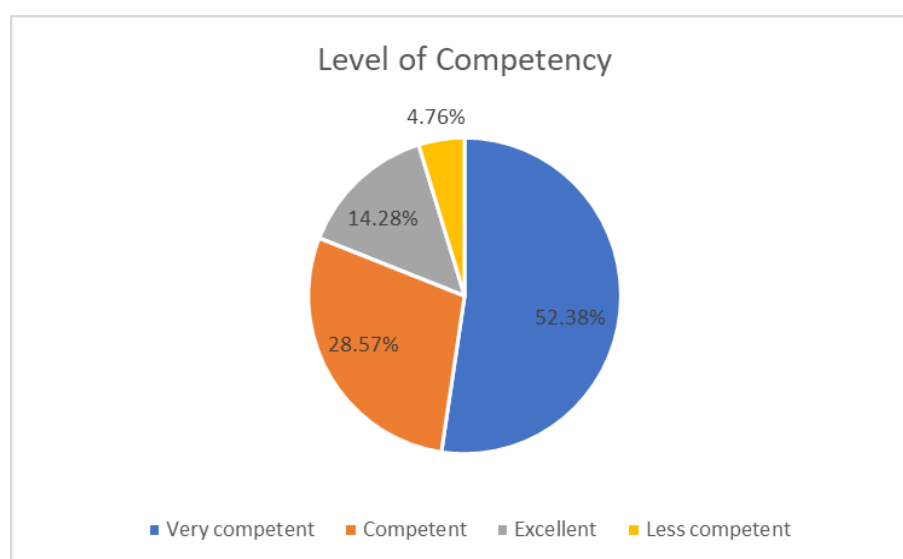
Figure 3
Lecturers' Knowledge of EMI



Lecturers' Competence in Using EMI

These question items confirm the self-reflection results on competency in implementing EMI. Figure 4 shows the percentages of the respondents' self-reported competency in applying EMI in the "Excellent", "Very Competent", "Competent", "Less Competent", and "Poor" categories.

Figure 4
Respondents' Competency in Applying EMI



A total of 22 respondents (52.38%) were “Very Competent”, 12 respondents (28.57%) were in the category of “Competent”, six respondents (14.28%) had “Excellent” competence, while two respondents (4.76%) were in the category of “Less Competent”.

The Practice of Applying EMI

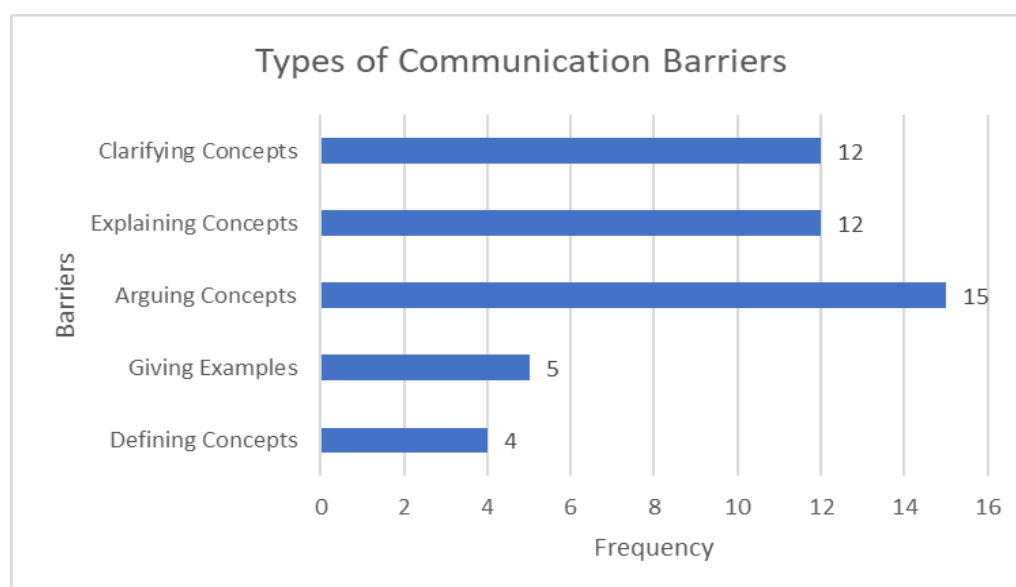
The practice encompasses the communication barriers, lecturers' and students' language barriers experienced by the respondents in practising EMI, the teaching components they felt were the most difficult in implementing EMI, and the solutions they took to solve problems in implementing EMI.

Communication Barriers to Applying EMI

Figure 5 provides an explicit description of the language barriers experienced by respondents in applying EMI in their teaching practices in response to open-ended questions. The “Arguing Concepts” function was the dominant obstacle experienced by 15 teachers (37%), followed by the “Explaining Concepts” and “Clarifying Concepts” functions experienced by each of the 12 teachers (30%). Furthermore, language barriers of “Giving Examples” were experienced by five teachers (13%), and “Defining Concepts” were experienced by four teachers (10%).

Figure 5

Types of Communication Barriers

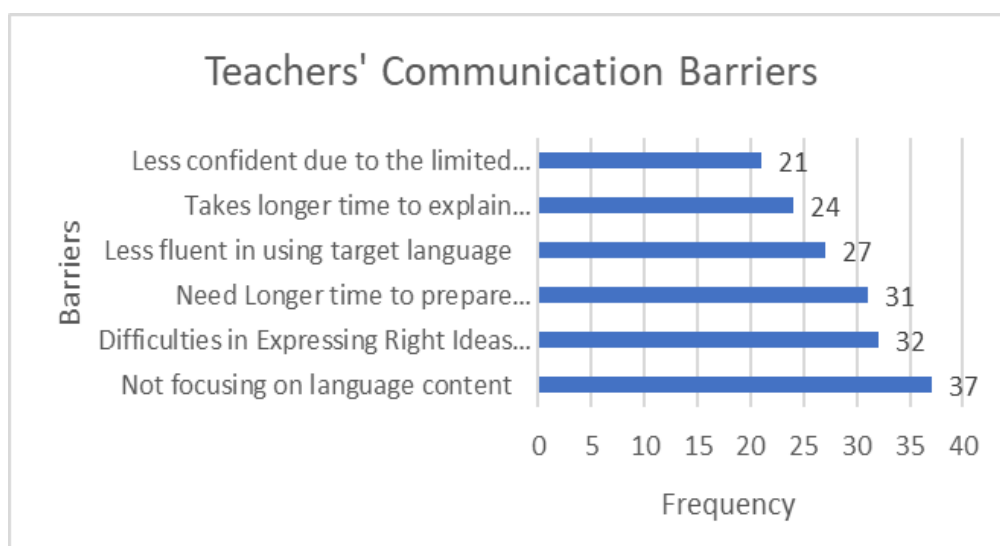


The Teachers' Barriers

Figure 6 describes the barriers faced by respondents in implementing EMI in their teaching practices. The barriers they experienced were generally related to 37 teachers (86%) not focusing on material content caused by language barriers, difficulties in expressing the right ideas in the target language (32 teachers or 74%), requiring a relatively long time to prepare the subject (31 teachers or 72%), not fluent in using the target language (27 teachers or 63%), takes longer to explain concepts (24 teachers or 59%), and less confident to teach the material because of limited technical vocabulary (21 teachers or 49%).

Figure 6

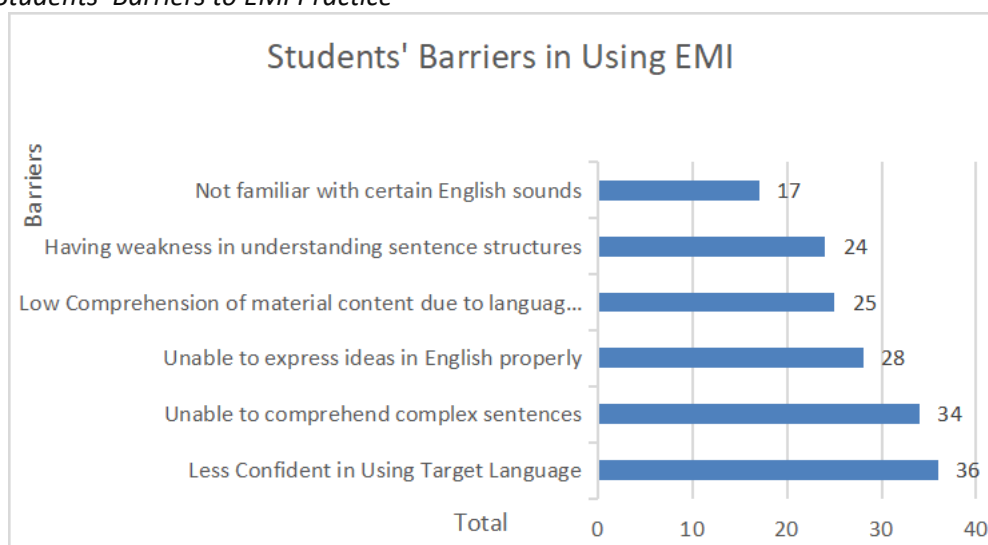
Description of Teachers' Communication Barriers



The Students' Barriers

Figure 7 describes the barriers experienced by students when they attended lectures with EMI, as seen from the lecturers' perspective concerns. The barriers were lack of confidence in using the target language (36 students or 83.7%), inability to understand complex sentences (34 students or 79%), inability to express ideas in English properly (28 students or 65%), mastery of the material becomes slow due to barriers of language (25 students or 58.13%), weak in mastering sentence structure (24 students or 55.8%), not familiar with the sounds of English (17 students or 39.5%).

Figure 7
Students' Barriers to EMI Practice



Evaluation

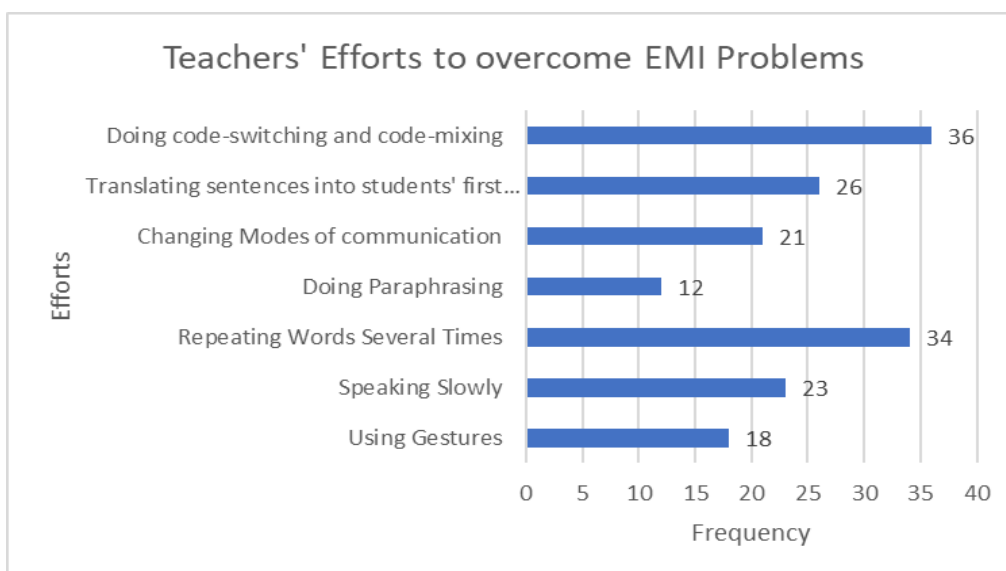
Respondents were prompted to provide details on the efforts they always make to overcome language obstacles in EMI, as well as suggestions for enhancing the effectiveness of EMI implementation in the assessment questions that took the form of open-ended questions.

Solutions to Language Barriers

Figure 8 describes the teachers' strategies to correct and minimise errors, increasing students' understanding of the subject delivered by EMI. The teachers' strategies included code-mixing and code-switching (36 teachers or 84%), repeating certain words several times (34 teachers or 79%), translating material into the first language (26 teachers or 60%), speaking slowly (23 teachers or 53%), changing modes of communication (21 teachers or 48%), using gestures (18 teachers or 41%), and doing paraphrasing (12 teachers or 28%). The following excerpt is an example of a strategy that one respondent applied when he faced language barriers in EMI practice:

... when I experience problems in expressing an idea in the target language, in this case, English, what I usually do is mix languages ... hmm ... code-switching or code-mixing ... repeating the concepts several times into our local language, Indonesian, of course ...

Figure 8
Strategies to Minimise Problems Using EMI



Suggestions for Implementing EMI

The teachers' recommendations for utilising EMI as linguistic communication in the learning process are shown in Figure 9. The teachers argued that both lecturers and students should improve their speaking skills (39 teachers or 92.85%), following EMI programme training (32 teachers or 76.19%).

The following summarises how the respondents felt about the idea of putting EMI into practice.

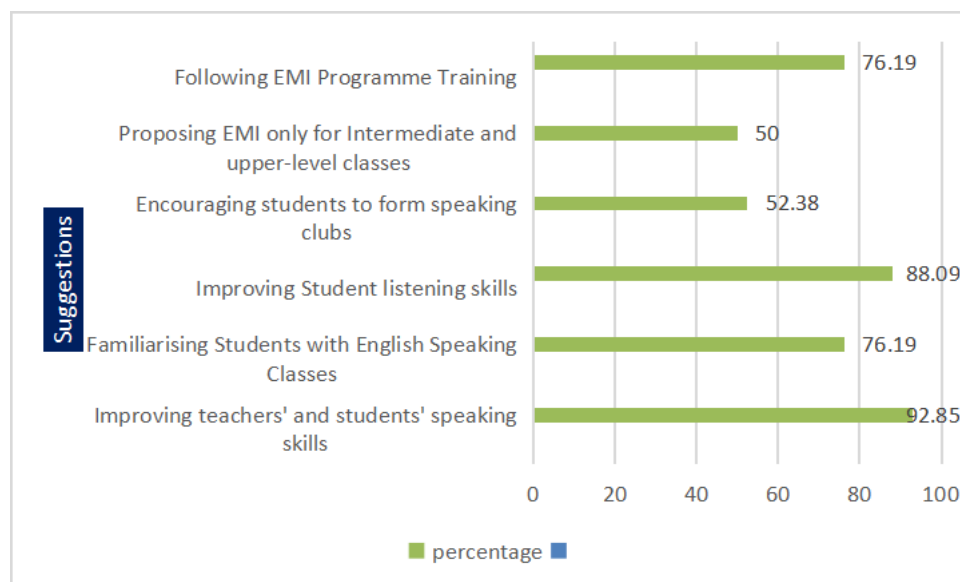
... to run EMI practices in university internationalisation efforts, both lecturers and students need to improve their English oral communication skills in English. Without good oral communication skills, especially in explaining the main material, EMI is difficult to implement.

Regarding proposed activities to improve oral communication skills in English, another respondent highlighted the importance of informal activities:

... theoretically, EMI is used in formal education activities, but lecturers and students also need to communicate in English in informal activities, in terms of discussing academic activities. For this reason, speaking clubs for lecturers and students need to be formed ...

Other suggestions offered by respondents to improve the quality of EMI implementation are familiarising students with English-speaking classes (32 teachers or 76.19%), improving students' listening skills (37 teachers or 88.09%), encouraging students to form speaking clubs (22 teachers or 52.38%), and proposing the EMI programme just for the intermediate and upper-level classes (21 teachers or 50%).

Figure 9
Suggestions for Applying EMI



Discussion

The study showed how lecturers at tertiary education in Indonesia comprehend, practise, and perceive the use of English as a Medium of Instruction in their teaching activities. Firstly, regarding the ability of lecturers to run the EMI programme, almost all lecturers are capable and very confident in what they are doing as evidenced by the positive assessment of their self-reflection. This fact confirms the findings of previous studies (Duran & Sert, 2019; Hong & Basturkmen, 2020). Although most of the lecturers have good speaking skills, they have moderate knowledge in understanding EMI theory and concepts (Vu & Burns, 2014). Of course, this fact is in unambiguous contrast to the lecturers' ability to speak. This fact is not in line with previous findings (Al-Issa, 2017; Ennis, 2018; Jia & Hew, 2021) which stated that the speaking ability of lecturers is in line with the understanding of teaching practice using EMI.

This investigation provides several conclusions that are connected to EMI practices. First, only 14.6% of all research participants consistently used EMI in their instruction, with the majority falling into the "Often" and occasionally "Sometimes" categories. Even though the lecturers are capable of doing so, the institution needs to pay particular attention to the lecturers' commitment and drive to implement EMI in their lessons (Rowland & Murray, 2020). The educators also discussed other advantages they perceived from using EMI, one of which is to give lecturers and students more possibilities to communicate continually in English. To improve spoken literacy, increase practice intensity, and motivate lecturers and students alike, the benefits of EMI implementation must also be addressed. This discovery supports earlier studies (Sah, 2022; Tai & Wei, 2021).

When incorporating EMI in the educational process, both instructors and students face difficulties and limitations. The lecturers disclosed that their difficulty in applying EMI was lowering the delivery of course material because of issues with language and the challenges they faced in explaining their thoughts (Macaro et al., 2020). Students' inability to utilise English confidently and their limited understanding of complex words are among the difficulties they face when applying EMI (Saragih, 2019). Previous studies have also supported the two challenges faced by professors and students (Ali, 2020). Additionally, instructors, as well as learners, use code-switching and code-mixing in addition to repeating statements that they initially believed to be incorrect to get around language obstacles when applying EMI (Haidar & Fang, 2019).

Most teachers were in favour of implementing EMI in educational activities, particularly to promote the globalisation of university operations. However, the application of EMI in the teaching-learning process in higher education is still opposed by some lecturers, nevertheless. Those who have a different view contend that Indonesian language instruction should promote a love of Indonesian as a national identity (Efendi et al., 2021). In this case, they questioned the essence of using English in the teaching and learning process in the context of education in Indonesia. They believe that the role of Indonesian language in the academic world will be degraded if EMI is applied to all subjects at the university. The application of EMI can threaten the use of Indonesian not only in higher education but also at the elementary and secondary education levels. Furthermore, few teachers believe that EMI is very appropriate to be applied to the English teaching and learning process, and in international classes at the tertiary level, but not in the subjects contained in the national curriculum.

Conclusion

The study on the perception, understanding, practice, and evaluation of English as a Medium of Instruction shows that although lecturers typically have a positive opinion and comprehension of EMI, they encounter difficulties putting it into practice, particularly when presenting instructional materials due to language constraints. The findings of this study additionally highlight the challenges faced by students who lack the confidence to express themselves in English, which affects the opportunities for learning encounters. The study shows efforts made to improve EMI's quality, especially those aimed at enhancing English communication between lecturers and students, and the requirement for specialised instruction for both parties to maximise the effectiveness of EMI implementation. Based on these findings, those involved in higher education internationalisation effort in Indonesia need to consider some policies to promote this EMI practice. Although the results of this study can directly describe EMI practices in the context of higher education in Indonesia, future studies on this issue should broaden its focus to research EMI practice to other subjects at the higher education level in Indonesia.

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EMPLOYING THE SMART INTERACTIVE WHITEBOARD TO TEACH GUIDED WRITING VOCABULARY

Wei Lun WONG¹

Mazura Mastura MUHAMMAD^{*2}

Muhamad Syafiq YA SHAK³

Mairas ABDUL RAHMAN⁴

Mei Chew LEE⁵

Vickneswari PANDIAN⁶

^{1,2,5,6}Sultan Idris Education University, Malaysia

³University Teknologi MARA Perak Branch, Malaysia

⁴Sultan Zainal Abidin University, Malaysia

colin_me-and-you@live.com.my

mazura@fbk.upsi.edu.my

moham381@uitm.edu.my

mairas@unisza.edu.my

leemeichew2@gmail.com

vicknes_110582@yahoo.com

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the effects of employing the Smart Interactive Whiteboard in a Malaysian primary-level guided writing class. The study also examines students' perspectives on different teaching techniques and the factors affecting personal preferences. The study employs a sequential explanatory research design. The participants comprise 42 11-year-old students at the Malaysian Year 5 level. Quantitative data are collected in the form of pre- and post-test scores. Simultaneously, qualitative data are gathered using semi-structured interviews to support the quantitative findings and to provide data triangulation. The findings reveal that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard is preferred by most participants over traditional flashcards. The study also provides valuable comparative insights into vocabulary teaching methods and identifies areas of improvement for guided writing teaching approaches. Therefore, the Smart Interactive Whiteboard can potentially cater to students' multiple needs and learning requirements, being aligned with the

academic and professional needs of the target community. The Smart Interactive Whiteboard is also effective in engaging students in the learning process, making vocabulary learning enjoyable and effective at different proficiency levels.

Keywords: Smart Interactive Whiteboard; vocabulary teaching; guided writing; flashcards; ESL

Introduction

The principal aim of primary-level English language education in Malaysia is to equip students with fundamental linguistic skills to enable effective communication in various contexts (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013). Primary-level English is divided into two levels, with Level One (Years 1 to 3) encompassing phonic learning and writing skills followed by Level Two (Years 4 to 6) for improved linguistic skills. Nonetheless, numerous students struggle to master English vocabulary (Misbah et al., 2017; Namaziandost et al., 2021). This poses difficulties in carrying out short essay writing tasks.

Various factors contribute to the inadequate command of English vocabulary, including low learner motivation levels among young students in school (Hsu, 2019; Protacio, 2017). In particular, Md Yunus and Abdullah (2011) argued that young students are required to learn various subjects daily, thereby generating significant pressure which leads to a sole focus on passing examinations.

Furthermore, low English learning motivation arises due to teaching methods by some teachers who continually practise conventional teaching methodologies (Intan & Fatin, 2015). As such, English lessons might lack crucial communicative elements, which are considered more enjoyable than traditional grammar-based methods, thus resulting in constantly low English learning motivation. Similarly, Sathya (2020) posited that varied and engaging teaching methodologies would produce the most optimal learning outcome to fulfil different student learning styles and intelligence.

In Malaysia, English is acquired as a second language (Gill, 2002), mainly through formal English lessons in school. However, primary students' English proficiency remains inadequate even after completing the primary school level. In terms of writing, numerous students struggle to employ appropriate vocabulary (Afzal, 2019; Fareed et al., 2016), due to ineffective conventional teaching techniques over multiple writing lessons (Abdullahi, 2003; Karimi et al., 2018; Suhaimi, 2014). When a teaching technique is not highly engaging to students' senses, such as visualising and listening, boredom and disengagement would be engendered in the classroom (Macklem, 2015).

Existing literature has extensively investigated the effectiveness of different teaching methodologies at different educational levels. This study sets out to add to the existing literature by comparing the effects of technological and conventional approaches in teaching vocabulary to primary school students. The findings are valuable for policymakers and English as a Second Language (ESL) practitioners in implementing pertinent interventions to improve students' English skills.

Following this, the current study attempts to answer three research questions:

- 1) Is the use of the Smart Interactive Whiteboard more effective than flashcards in teaching vocabulary to young Malaysian ESL learners?
- 2) What are the ESL learners' perceptions of the two vocabulary teaching techniques?
- 3) Which factors affect the learners' preferences for a particular technique?

Based on these questions, there is one testable hypothesis, as follows:

H1: The Smart Interactive Whiteboard is more effective than flashcards in teaching English vocabulary to young Malaysian ESL learners.

Literature Review

The Mediated Mind

The Mediated Mind refers to the employment of meaningful media to mediate the cognitive processes in students' brains (Ai & Lu, 2018) through what is known to mediators as artefacts. Vygotsky (1978) categorised artefacts into two types, namely, physical and symbolic. Physical artefacts include books and computers while language and technology represent symbolic artefacts. This concept is reflected in this study by comparing the Smart Interactive Whiteboard and flashcards.

Mayer's Multimedia Instructional Principles

Mayer (2009) proposed 12 instructional principles for ESL practitioners when designing multimedia teaching and learning materials. Six principles were selected due to their high relevance to the objectives of this study:

- 1) Coherence: "People learn better when extraneous material is excluded rather than included." (p. 89)
- 2) Redundancy: "People learn better from graphics and narration than some graphics, narration, and printed text." (p. 118)
- 3) Segmenting: "People learn better when a multimedia message is presented in user-paced segments rather than as a continuous unit." (p. 175)
- 4) Modality: "People learn more deeply from pictures and spoken words than from pictures and printed words." (p. 200)
- 5) Voice: "People learn better when narration is spoken in a human voice rather than in a machine voice." (p. 242)
- 6) Image: "People do not necessarily learn better when the speaker's image is added to the screen." (p. 242)

Mayer's (2009) principles are important because firstly, they contextualise the theoretical insights of the Mediated Mind approach, which is based on older theories, especially Vygotsky's (1978) distinction between physical and symbolic artefacts.

Secondly, Mayer (2009) offers a set of concrete rules, or predictions, that enable us to grasp the relationship between media and learning.

Finally, a set of principles like this directly feeds into the objectives and research questions of this paper, dealing as they do with student perceptions and preferences and the effectiveness of different media in learning.

Technology in Education

Technology is a powerful educational tool that effectively improves teaching development and initiatives while ensuring sustainable teaching approaches (Anthonia et al., 2016). Dunkel (as cited in Liu et al., 2002) asserted that technology could increase students' self-esteem, vocational preparedness, language proficiency, learning autonomy, and ability to provide immediate feedback. Furthermore, Richards and Renandya (2002) discovered that integrating technological resources in the teaching and learning process would facilitate authentic learning environments to communicate in the intended language and allow collaborative learning.

Accordingly, this paper employed the Smart Interactive Whiteboard as a vocabulary teaching technology application. Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (as cited in Lin, 2009) proposed some benefits of adopting technological tools in a second-language classroom:

- 1) Technology provides interaction, communicative activities, and a real audience;
- 2) Technology makes students become active learners;
- 3) Technology supplies comprehensible input;
- 4) Technology facilitates the focused development of English skills; and
- 5) Technology employs multiple modalities to support various learning styles and strategies.

Chunk Pedagogy

Chunk pedagogy (Lewis, 1993) for vocabulary teaching is a pedagogy that emphasises learning "language chunks" that contain certain lexical-grammatical structures. In a similar vein, Ziafar (2020) and Nelson (2018) argued that vocabulary teaching should provide students with sensitivity to word chunks, word collocation, and basic "chunk" structures to assist in expanding vocabulary.

Furthermore, Li (2004) and Zhang and Wei (2004) demonstrated that vocabulary teaching should concentrate on output training on chunks instead of mere reading and writing to improve communicative competence. Concurrently, providing vocabulary examples based on students' proficiency levels could enhance the long-term recall of the learnt language.

Conventional Instructional Materials

Margulieux and Catrambone (2021) defined resources that organise and support instruction as instructional materials that assist the information aspect of teaching

and enhance the learning and retention of information (Shukla, 2019). Lin et al. (2021) provided a list of typical and conventional instructional materials employed in teaching and learning. These included blackboards, textbooks, charts, pictures, posters, maps, atlases, globes, flashcards, flip cards, worksheets, science lab apparatus and materials, models, crossword puzzles, quizzes, storytelling, dramatisation, one-act plays, dictionaries, encyclopaedias, reference books, learning toys, and abacuses. For the current study, flashcards are chosen from this list as they are commonly used to support vocabulary pedagogy.

Flashcards

Flashcards are traditional teaching tools to help ESL learners acquire vocabulary (Li & Tong, 2019). According to Obermeier and Elgort (2021), a flashcard is a piece of cardboard with a word, a sentence, or a simple picture printed on it. The letters displayed on the flashcards must be written in capital letters to allow high legibility for students sitting both in the front and back of the classroom. A sample sentence is provided for students to compose a correct sentence with learnt words. Flashcards are considered effective in acquiring new vocabulary compared to memorising wordlists (Sun et al., 2021). However, the use of flashcards has also been associated with several disadvantages, as follows (Auliya, 2016):

- 1) The creation process is time-consuming.
- 2) Flashcards are not sufficiently large for students sitting at the back of the classroom to read the words and pictures displayed.
- 3) Flashcards are only effective for small classes with 5 to 10 students and might not be feasible for a large class.
- 4) As flashcards primarily utilise pattern drills, students might not understand the pronunciations owing to the goal of producing similar sentences. Students may not be able to produce sentences that are not introduced and drilled in a particular lesson.
- 5) Flashcards are monotonous when teachers apply them repetitively.

Method

Research Design

A sequential explanatory research design was employed. This is a mixed-method design in which both quantitative and qualitative approaches are utilised. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) explained that this type of research design commences with collecting quantitative data before collecting qualitative data that assist in elaborating the quantitative findings.

The sequential explanatory design is chosen because the qualitative analysis of student perceptions can offer a refined explanation and extension of the quantitative findings.

Sampling

Simple random sampling was conducted to collect quantitative data by randomly selecting eligible participants with a certain probability (Lavrakas, 2008). Forty-two students from two classes were recruited for either control (n=21) or experimental (n=21) groups. In the qualitative phase, purposive sampling was performed as a non-probability method in selecting a judgmental or expert sample (Lavrakas, 2008). The participants in the qualitative and quantitative phases were the same participants to maintain high data validity and relevance during the interviews.

The qualitative phase used a smaller sample size than the quantitative phase as only participants who could provide extensive responses were selected.

Research Materials

Essays and Tests

To analyse the effectiveness of each teaching technique, pre- and post-tests in the form of guided essay writing were conducted. The questions were adapted from the previous exam questions for UPSR (Ujian Pencapaian Sekolah Rendah or Primary School Achievement Test) from 2016 and 2017. The UPSR questions have been standardised across the whole of Malaysia to ensure adequate reliability and validity. In addition, the tests were designed by qualified and certified teachers with a set of standard instructions to administer and mark the tests, thus ensuring the validity of the test items. Finally, the same format has been employed for over a decade (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). As the present study focuses on vocabulary, the marking scheme for vocabulary was adopted instead of the conventional UPSR marking scheme.

Interviews

The current study followed Kvale's (1996) six stages of interview investigation. The first stage is thematising, in which participants answer the following questions: What is going to be studied? Why this is going to be studied? and How this is going to be studied? The answers were then categorised based on the three questions to provide the background and guidelines of data analysis and reporting.

The second stage is interviewing, where the researcher maintains the participants' motivation by asking necessary background questions (Krosnick & Presser, 2009). The third stage is transcribing. Mishler (1991) explained that the data and the relationship between meaning and language are contextually situated, unstable, and subject to continuous reinterpretation. Thus, only the clearest and most suitable interpretations are encouraged.

The fourth stage, analysing, followed Hycner's (1985) guidelines for analysing interview data using the following techniques:

- 1) Performing transcription.
- 2) Listening to the interview for the gist.

- 3) Delineating units of general meaning.
- 4) Delineating units of meaning relevant to the research questions.
- 5) Eliminating redundancies.
- 6) Clustering units of relevant meaning.
- 7) Determining themes from clusters of meaning.
- 8) Writing a summary of each interview.
- 9) Returning to the participants with the summary and themes.
- 10) Modifying the themes and summary.
- 11) Identifying general and unique themes for all interviews.
- 12) Contextualising the themes.
- 13) Producing a composite summary.

In the fifth stage, data validity and reliability are verified to minimise bias. This is achieved by conducting peer debriefing on the interpreted data and inviting an expert, such as a lecturer, to endorse the interview questions (Barber & Walczak, 2009). The sixth and final stage is reporting, which includes an introduction (main themes and contents), an outline of the methodology, results, and discussion. Direct quotations from the interview transcript are also utilised to illuminate and relate to the general text (Kvale, 1996).

Data Analysis

Table 1 shows the data analysis techniques. Participants' essays from the pre- and post-tests were marked using a rubric before the scores were analysed quantitatively using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software version 21.

The scores were subjected to a t-test to reveal significant differences between the scores of pre- and post-tests from both groups. A dependent t-test was used where the two groups were related – comprising the same participants, whereas an independent t-test was used where two groups were unrelated, such as an experimental group and a control group.

The interviews were also video-recorded and transcribed to record the students' perceptions as well as to ascertain the factors affecting the learners' preferences for vocabulary teaching approaches.

Table 1

Data Analysis Framework

No.	Data	Data Analysis Technique
1.	Pre- and Post-Test Scores (Students' Essay)	Independent and dependent t-test
2.	Interview Responses	Hycner's (1985) Guidelines from Kvale's (1996) Stage 4

Qualitative data were obtained from the interviews. Following Hycner's (1985) guidelines, the interviews were transcribed and listened to repeatedly to grasp and

classify the common themes and latent meanings in the texts. The researcher delineated units of general meaning and specific meanings relevant to the present research. Meanwhile, redundancies were removed for improved data organisation.

Subsequently, coding was performed by clustering units of relevant meaning, where the generated codes were analysed systematically to determine related themes. A summary was written for each interview, which was then returned to the interviewed participants to be confirmed or modified. Finally, through contextualisation, the general theme was reviewed while unique themes were refined for all interviews to generate clear theme definitions and names.

Results

Students' Guided Writing Performance

Table 2 reveals a mean difference of 0.667 between the pre-and post-test scores, which indicates that the students in the experimental group who were taught using the Smart Interactive Whiteboard obtained higher scores in the post-test at 5% significance level ($p < 0.001$). This result suggested that vocabulary teaching using the Smart Interactive Whiteboard could improve students' guided writing performance based on lexical knowledge and skills.

Table 2

Dependent t-test Results on Mean Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error mean	95% Confidence Interval				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-Test						-		
Post-Test	.667	.557	.126	-.929	-.404	5.2	20	.000
						92		

Table 3 illustrates the mean scores of pre- and post-tests among students taught vocabulary using both flashcards (FC) and Smart Interactive Whiteboard (SIW). The mean post-test scores for both control and experimental groups were 4.548 and 10.381, respectively, which posited that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard could assist students in achieving higher guided writing scores compared to flashcards only.

Table 3*Mean Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups*

IV	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test_SIW	21	6.095	5.2717	1.1504
FC	21	4.619	3.9652	.8653
Post-test_SIW	21	10.381	5.3803	1.1741
FC	21	4.548	4.5191	.9862

Table 4 presents the independent t-test results regarding the mean pre- and post-test scores of both control and experimental groups. As the p-values of the pre-test scores were 0.311 and 0.312 exceeding 0.05, the findings indicated insignificant test score improvement before utilising flashcards or the Smart Interactive Whiteboard. Nonetheless, the p-values of the post-tests were 0.000 (under 0.05), hence indicating significant test score improvement after adopting the Smart Interactive Whiteboard.

Table 4*Independent t-test Results on Mean Pre- and Post-test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval	
								Lower	Upper
Pre_Equal Variances Assumed			1.026	40	.311	1.4762	1.4395	1.4331	4.3855
Equal Variances not Assumed	1.943	.171	1.026	37.143	.312	1.4762	1.4395	-1.4401	4.3924
Post_Equal Variances Assumed			3.804	40	.000	5.8333	1.5333	2.7344	8.9322
Equal Variances not Assumed	1.772	.191	3.804	38.842	.000	5.8333	1.5333	2.7316	8.9351

Therefore, flashcards did not manifest a significant improvement in students' guided writing vocabulary, although the positive difference was significant. Although both techniques produced significant improvements in terms of spelling and the contextual usage of relevant words, flashcards were less effective than the Smart Interactive Board. This provides support for hypothesis H1.

Themes on Feelings towards the Smart Interactive Whiteboard (SIW) for Vocabulary Teaching

Qualitative data was extracted from the interview transcripts following the analytical procedures suggested by Hycner (1985). The data took the form of general themes and specific sub-themes or codes based on the students' interview responses. The themes and codes were then tabulated (see Table 5), along with representative extracts, following Bartels et al. (2008). Finally, a composite summary was produced following Hycner (1985).

Table 5
Identified Themes and Codes with Extracts from the Transcripts

Themes	Codes	Extracts
Positive Perceptions About SIW	Opportunity to learn from Internet.	"I could surf the Internet to look for vocabulary and refer to sample essays"
	Interesting Features.	"Colours help me to remember better as they enable us to understand comprehension learnt in the class by highlighting vocabulary". "It is attractive as I could listen to the pronunciation by the sound system, and it is clear".
	Videos and Animations. Visualiser.	"The animations are interesting. It is not boring being just a picture" "The size of words and pictures could be adjusted so we could look at them clearly"
Positive Feelings About Flashcards	Colourful Pictures.	"I like flashcards because the pictures are beautiful. For example, the word 'wonderful' has many children playing around. They are colourful. I like colourful pictures because I learn new vocabulary by recognising the pictures. Without pictures, I cannot know what the vocabulary is about".
	Dual Languages.	"The meaning of the vocabulary is shown in dual languages".
	Flashcard Size.	

Negative Feelings About Flashcards	Inconvenience.	<p>"The size of the picture is big. I could see the words even though I sit at the back of the class"</p> <p>"I do not like it because it is inconvenient. The teacher must keep flipping the cards. I also have to sit in front of the class'.</p> <p>"I do not like it because it is inconvenient. The teacher has to keep flipping the cards. I also have to sit in front of the class".</p>
	Environmental Waste.	"Wasting papers because we need to print the materials many times".
	Recall and learning.	"I do not remember anything from the four sessions of learning, and I do not improve from learning with flashcards".
SIW Features Assisting Vocabulary Learning	Video Content.	"I learn the content of the videos and some vocabulary from subtitles easily."
	Vocabulary Learning.	"I prefer the Smart Interactive Whiteboard because it helps me to learn many vocabularies"
	Pictures as Assistants.	"I can learn the vocabulary from the pictures by just looking at the pictures and the words given"
	Learning through Sounds and Music.	"Sounds and music attract me in learning so I could remember the words easily".
	Moral Values.	"I learn how to earn money".
	Correct Sentences.	"I can learn a lot of vocabulary and beautiful sentences for essay writing"
	Pronunciation Listening.	"I could practice my pronunciation of words by listening to the pronunciation projected from Smart Interactive Whiteboard".
Flashcard Features Influencing Teaching Method Preference	Internet Access.	"I can learn the meaning of vocabulary through the Internet"
	Bright and Colourful Pictures.	"The pictures and the colours are beautiful. I learn new vocabulary by recognising the pictures. With pictures, I know what the vocabulary is. Without pictures, I cannot know what the vocabulary is".
	Constructing Sentences.	"I like flashcards because I learn how to make sentences and know the meanings of new vocabulary".

Table 5 shows 5 broad themes and 20 narrower codes or sub-themes extracted from the interview transcripts, along with supporting extracts. In general, all 12 interviewed students displayed positive feelings towards the Smart Interactive Whiteboard (SIW) for vocabulary teaching.

These positive perceptions arose firstly from the opportunity to utilise the Internet when using the SIW. Five students expressed personal enjoyment in learning vocabulary through the SIW that is connected to the internet. The students could employ search engines, such as Google, to find additional meanings and to further understand the usage of difficult words. Secondly, the SIW had many interesting features, such as vibrant colours and sound. The colours attracted attention and highlighted taught vocabulary. Colours also allowed students to focus effortlessly on salient words, thus allowing immediate recall of recently learnt vocabulary and sentences. In addition, the presence of sound was favoured by the students, who appeared to find this more engaging than the teachers' voices. Thirdly, students reacted well to the videos and animations shown in the SIW. The students enjoyed learning with these features, which engaged the students in learning vocabulary and provided enjoyable learning by creating an informal and relaxing learning environment. Fourthly, the Visualiser feature could clearly display words and pictures on the board. This helped students sitting at the back of large classrooms to easily read the displayed words.

Next, the interviews revealed that the SIW could assist vocabulary learning in a number of ways. Firstly, students could learn essay writing from video content, especially relating to essay ideas. Simultaneously, students could learn vocabulary from the video subtitles, which was enjoyable as watching videos was relaxing yet engaging. Secondly, as the main objective was to learn vocabulary for essay writing, students were more confident with the SIW as a teaching technique if they were able to master some vocabulary successfully at the end of the lesson. Thirdly, students attested that the pictures promoted effortless vocabulary recall and recognition. Without pictures, the students encountered difficulties in recognising the vocabulary. Fourthly, the students displayed higher vocabulary recall, including word spelling and meanings, when the teacher taught the words using the SIW's sound system and music functions. Students experienced a sense of achievement when learning this way because they could apply the learnt vocabulary in essay writing, with good vocabulary recall. Furthermore, students stated that moral values could also be internalised during the learning process using the SIW, which could help them develop a constructive personality.

Next, students preferred learning with the SIW because it helped them to acquire correct sentence structures, which were useful for essay writing. The method was more efficient than learning vocabulary on its own as the students would be required to compose complete sentences rather than spelling the words.

Another significant factor influencing the students' preference for the SIW was listening to the pronunciation of words through the Internet or the internal learning system of the SIW. In addition, the students could practise pronunciation after listening to the word pronunciation, which significantly improved the students' pronunciation and vocabulary recall for essay writing after the lesson.

Lastly, students found the Internet to be a highly valuable tool for learning, especially when students could use the SIW to seek word meanings. The Internet is recognised for promoting and aiding self-learning whereby students can manage their own personal learning processes.

Several students expressed positive sentiments towards learning vocabulary through flashcards, for several reasons. Firstly, students could visualise bright and colourful pictures on the flashcards, which encouraged visual learning. Students could also discern the words and pictures effortlessly as the flashcard materials did not reflect light. Furthermore, the vibrant colours of the pictures assisted students in remembering the vocabulary effectively due to the high salience of the colours. According to some students, colours were an effective stimulus to linguistic acquisition as students would concentrate on the colours before receiving other learning inputs. A second reason for positive perceptions of flashcards was the fact that vocabulary definitions were shown in dual languages. Since every student who participated in this study was also learning Mandarin, the method was effective when Mandarin meanings were displayed as well as Malay ones. Thirdly, the size of the flashcard pictures was sufficient for students sitting at the back of the classroom to see.

Despite these positive perceptions of flashcards, some students expressed negative feelings towards them, which directly influenced their preferred choice of vocabulary learning method. In particular, flashcards were considered tedious as the teacher needed to flip the flashcards to introduce each word with a picture. Some students stated that they needed to sit in front of the class to see the words and pictures. In addition, students considered flashcards to be a waste of paper and therefore bad for the environment. Furthermore, several students reported low vocabulary recall, improvement, or engagement from the four learning sessions using flashcards.

Finally, the students gave two major factors influencing their preference for flashcards as a vocabulary learning method. Firstly, colourful and attractive pictures on the flashcards aided recall of learnt vocabulary in different lessons. Notably, colourful pictures could play a significant role in assisting students to learn vocabulary effectively. Conversely, a lack of colourful stimuli would create obstacles in sustaining personal attention for learning.

Students could also construct correct sentences with the learnt vocabulary. In addition, students understood new word meanings and could remember the words effortlessly. As such, flashcards assisted students in learning additional vocabulary for essay writing, which the students considered successful, and some of them preferred the flashcards as a learning tool upon achieving their learning goals.

Discussion

The current findings demonstrated that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard was more effective than flashcards in primary-level vocabulary teaching, which is consistent with Alfahadi (2015) and Şen and Ağır (2014). These findings provide some quantitative and qualitative support for hypothesis H1. Specifically, the mean post-test scores of the experimental group (using the Smart Interactive Whiteboard) were higher than those of the control group (using the flashcards). This suggests that students in the experimental group exhibited significant improvement in guided writing. The use of flashcards on the other hand did not improve vocabulary usage in guided writing, a finding that corresponds to Leny (2006).

Although the visuals were more attractive and colourful in this study, smaller and less legible flashcards negatively affected learning. Students exposed to flashcards interpreted the vocabulary inaccurately and did not manifest significant improvement in guided writing.

Despite this, there were a few positive comments about using flashcards, primarily on the use of dual languages to display meanings. Some students were also content with the images, which they deemed colourful and legible. This finding is in line with Bellani (2011), who found that flashcards improved the memory retention of learnt vocabulary and enhanced synaptic connections, as a flashcard would allow students to focus on the images and the related vocabulary that is being taught.

The Smart Interactive Whiteboard meanwhile enabled the students to focus on learning vocabulary by acting as a physical mediator (artefact), according to Vygotsky's (1978) social view of learning. Wertsch (1993) argued that the connection between meaningful artefacts and students' brains could mediate cognitive processes. Similarly, Dunkel (2002) posited that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard is a technological innovation for increasing students' language proficiency.

Baddeley (1986, 1999) proposed a visuospatial sketch pad as a component of working memory in the brain to maintain and manipulate pictures and a phonological loop to store and rehearse the pronunciation of vocabulary items. The phonological loop could facilitate learning by sustaining learnt vocabulary in working memory until students entirely mastered the learnt words.

The positive feedback on the Smart Interactive Whiteboard in this study supported the multimedia learning principles (Mayer, 2005), in particular the modality principle, in that students could enhance learning with different modes rather than only using a single one. Multimedia tools can therefore help students to acquire additional knowledge, especially when words and attractive pictures are displayed concurrently during the lesson.

The findings of this study also confirmed those of Morgan (2008), who investigated the impact of the Smart Interactive Whiteboard on student task engagement. The increase in the mean post-test scores after applying the Smart Interactive Whiteboard indicated a significant elevation in student task engagement, which is crucial in the teaching and learning process. Morgan concluded that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard was a decisive teaching tool to enhance student academic performance and engagement. In addition, the Smart Interactive Whiteboard could stimulate active participation in the classroom by encouraging reluctant students to participate in the lesson activities.

In the current study's post-tests, the students from the experimental group managed to form numerous correct sentences via suitable vocabulary when examples of each vocabulary item were provided before writing essays. This supported the language chunk concept proposed by Lewis (1993). The instances assisted the students to construct correct sentences instead of forming a sentence solely based on the learnt vocabulary. During the intervention, 40 vocabulary items were introduced, resulting in students selecting appropriate vocabulary. Notably, some students with limited English proficiency preferred flashcards to learn vocabulary, owing to the bright pictures and transferability in producing grammatically suitable and meaningful sentences. However, the interviews revealed that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard

was an effective tool that can successfully enhance the learning of guided writing as well as vocabulary acquisition.

Conclusion

This study examined two interventions to improve guided writing vocabulary. The interventions were flashcards (a traditional approach) and the Smart Interactive Whiteboard (a modern technological approach). The findings demonstrated that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard significantly improved students' ability to construct sentences through suitable vocabulary. To answer the first research question, pre- and post-test results were compared. Subsequently, semi-structured interviews were administered to collect qualitative data to supplement the quantitative findings while addressing the second and third research questions. The results revealed significant improvement in guided writing between the pre- and post-tests, which was ascribed to the effect of employing the Smart Interactive Whiteboard to teach vocabulary. The findings also showed that students could construct correct and appropriate sentences with suitable vocabulary based on displayed pictures. Furthermore, the semi-structured interview results were gathered and categorised into different themes based on students' opinions to further support the quantitative findings.

The second research question focussed on the students' intervention preferences for learning vocabulary. Significant writing improvement in the experimental group suggested that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard was highly effective for vocabulary teaching. Students asserted that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard was satisfactory due to its attractive and practical features for engaging students to learn effectively. The main features were Internet access, bright pictures, videos, a visualiser, convenience, and a sound system, which managed to actively engage students in the lessons. The system also allowed students to internalise vocabulary, grammar, moral values, and pertinent ideas in guided writing.

The third research question investigated the factors influencing students' preferences for either intervention. The Smart Interactive Whiteboard was shown to fulfil students' learning needs and to achieve specific objectives through suitable methodologies, as the tool is aligned with the academic and professional needs of the target community. As a result, the Smart Interactive Whiteboard was effective in engaging students in the learning process, and they agreed that the Smart Interactive Whiteboard could promote fun learning and effective vocabulary acquisition from lower to higher proficiency levels. Finally, the Smart Interactive Whiteboard provided the students with sufficient opportunities to practise the language by reading the instructions displayed on the whiteboard and listening to the pronunciations. Weak students could learn the vocabulary through pictures, videos, animations, or other media instead of solely reading one type of explanation for the introduced vocabulary.

Ethics Approval Statement

Research ethics approval was obtained from the University Human Research Committee, Sultan Idris Education University, Malaysia. Reference Number: 2021-0454-01.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AS LINGUISTIC CAPITAL AMONG BANGLADESHI GRADUATES

Md Tarikul ISLAM
Selvajothi RAMALINGAM*
Universiti Malaya, Malaysia
tarikulislam101@yahoo.com
selvajothi@um.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

English language proficiency is considered an essential tool for Bangladeshi graduates to use in various aspects such as ensuring job security, attaining higher education, securing international business, using social networking, and communicating with friends and families. English language proficiency in personal development relates to Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) concept of cultural capital in language learning and practice among Bangladeshi graduates. This study aimed to identify how graduates use English language as linguistic capital in the Bangladeshi context. This qualitative research utilised a phenomenological research design and thematic analysis. Purposive sampling technique was used to collect the data through face-to-face interviews involving 20 Bangladeshi graduates in the capital city Dhaka. The results indicate that English language proficiency is used as linguistic capital, which converts into economic capital in developing a career, earning money, and gaining prestige in communication. This study contributes to promoting an awareness among graduates to use English as linguistic capital in individual and national development.

Keywords: English language proficiency; cultural capital; graduates; Bangladesh

Introduction

The language learning phenomenon among Bangladeshi graduates shows that English language proficiency is useful in employment, higher education, local and international business, technology, social media and prestigious communication among friends and families as expressed via Bourdieu's (2018) concept of linguistic capital (Islam et al., 2022a; Rahman & Singh, 2020). Moreover, English language

proficiency is considered an essential additional qualification to secure jobs in Bangladesh, especially in the private sector (Imam, 2005). The English language-dominated phenomenon influences graduates' career development, which in turn is contingent on graduates' socioeconomic background, social status, friends, families, and overall surroundings (Islam et al., 2022a). However, English language proficiency hardly provides equal opportunities to graduates in wealthy, middle and working classes (Islam et al., 2022a). Various studies have been conducted on how people use English as linguistic capital worldwide, but studies have yet to be conducted in the Bangladeshi context (Hamid et al., 2009; Erling et al., 2012; Islam et al., 2022a; Islam et al., 2024). Therefore, this study would fill the research gap and contribute to creating awareness among graduates of Bangladesh to perceive the economic benefits of linguistic capital.

Linguistic Background of Bangladesh

English language has been used in the Bangladeshi society since the British colonial period when India, Pakistan and Bangladesh were administered together under British rule (Hamid & Erling, 2016). The wealthy class of that period used the language to communicate with the British people since English was the language of the wealthy class in the Indian subcontinent (Imam, 2005). However, the scenario changed after the British left the continent, and Bangladesh subsequently became independent from India and Pakistan in 1971; with political changes came linguistic changes as the economy of modern Bangladesh developed (Rahman et al., 2010). English language spread and was enhanced due to the internationalisation of neoliberal economy and globalisation, all while Bangladeshi graduates are part of this scenario (Piller & Cho, 2013). Hence, to conduct international trade, English is highly in demand as Bangladesh secures international business with exports of ready-made garments and human resources around the world. Consequently, people learn English and speak it daily to accommodate the current trend. However, due to the growth of English-medium education, only some urban, rich families use English in personal conversations (Islam et al., 2022a). In contrast, the semi-urban, rural living, middle- and lower-class graduates seldom use English to converse with their friends and family (Mohanlal & Sharada, 2004).

Linguistic Diversities among the Social Classes

Based on the socioeconomic patterns of Bangladesh, the graduates are segmented into lower, middle and wealthy classes with linguistic diversities observed among the groups, where the wealthy-class graduates' use of English differ from the middle and lower class (Islam et al., 2022a; Imam, 2005).

First, the wealthy class graduates have solid economic backgrounds and social values, which assist them in securing a superior status in society as they also have connections in developed countries around the world, especially in western countries (Bhuiyan, 2011). This group of graduates often conducts international business and relations overseas, which would require English language proficiency; consequently, most graduates study in English-speaking institutions either at home or abroad (Pinon

& Haydon, 2010). Moreover, they use English as the language of communication among friends and families to maintain social prestige and status; thus, it becomes a prestigious language to the wealthy class (Islam et al., 2022a).

Second, middle-class graduates maintain a good connection with both the rich and lower-class members of the society (Hamid et al., 2009). The middle class mixes English and local languages in communication to showcase their ability and prestige of having an English medium education, although their economic power may reflect otherwise (Haidar, 2017). The middle class uses English language as linguistic capital to develop better careers and earnings that support Bourdieu's (1986) cultural capital concept of language use in society (Hamid et al., 2009). Next, working-class graduates experience economic instability due to various factors, so they focus on living to survive economic struggles, resulting in their dependence on the middle and wealthy class of graduates to overcome their financial issues (Islam et al., 2022a). The working class graduates use English language to accommodate middle and upper-class people, albeit infrequently, which also reflected the linguistic capital possess by them (Jahan & Hamid, 2019).

English Language Use in Career Enhancement

English language is considered as an essential tool for success in career advancement for Bangladeshi graduates due to globalisation and the influence of neoliberal economy (Islam et al., 2022b). Job vacancies advertised by many private organisations require applicants to have good proficiency in the English language (Karim et al., 2021). Multinational companies have been found to recruit few candidates with poor English skills (Salahuddin et al., 2013). Employees would find it difficult to obtain a promotion with low English language proficiency in the workplace (Khan & Chaudhury, 2012). Consequently, the graduates have focused their efforts on learning English. As an entrepreneur, graduates require English language proficiency to succeed internationally. In Bangladesh, the garments export industry offers enormous employment opportunities to graduates where people proficient in the English language have more options and opportunities to succeed, resulting in vast numbers of English learning centres mushrooming around the country and the English language teachers benefiting economically (Islam, 2018).

English Language Use in Social-media for Earning

Social media has increasingly influenced people's lifestyles and languages in recent decades (Islam et al., 2020). Social media such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, WhatsApp, and Instagram use English as the common language (Haque, 2017). Hence, the English language becomes the dominant lingua franca in spreading information quickly around the globe. Bangladeshi graduates use this social media platform to teach and learn English extensively and easily (Biswas et al., 2020). Hundreds of online English teaching platforms are available in Bangladesh, which have largely started since the COVID-19 pandemic (Afrin, 2020). The teaching and learning of English language through social media in Bangladesh brings economic benefits. English language proficiency is seen as linguistic capital used to earn money through lessons

which are conducted via social media (Hamid, 2016; Sultana, 2014). On the other hand, there are still vast numbers of brick-and-mortar coaching centres around Bangladesh, including the British Council.

Theory

This study anchors itself on Bourdieu's (1986) theory of cultural capital. According to Bourdieu (1986), cultural capital consists of familiarity with the dominant culture in society, particularly the ability to understand and use "educated" language. The possession of culture varies with social class, yet the education system assumes the possession of cultural capital (Sullivan, 2000). As Bourdieu puts it: "The same academic qualifications receive very variable values and functions according to economic and social capital (particularly the capital of relationship inherited from the family) which those who hold these qualifications have at their disposal" (Bourdieu et al., 1977, p. 506). According to Blackledge (2001), speaking English, feeling comfortable approaching a teacher, reading and writing in English, or reading a story at bedtime are measures of what Bourdieu (1986) called cultural capital. It refers to middle-class people's knowledge, attitudes, values, language (speaking correctly and nicely is a form of linguistic capital), tastes and abilities. Cultural capital is not necessarily about money but can be exchanged for money. Cultural capital is "the instrument for the appropriation of symbolic wealth socially designated as worthy of being sought and possessed" (Bourdieu & Richardson, 1986, p. 73). Due to colonialism, neo-colonialism, capitalism, migration and immigration, the English language became a powerful tool for personal development and advancement. The language has come to be seen as a cultural capital which can be exchanged for better job opportunities, prestige, progress, and modernity (Malik & Mohamed, 2014). In these circumstances, five research questions were posed to explore how Bangladeshi graduates use English as linguistic capital in higher education, international business, social network-based income, career advancements, and prestigious language in conversations.

Methodology

The study employed a qualitative, phenomenological research design that seeks to understand and describe the universal essence of a phenomenon in sociolinguistic experiences. The research investigates everyday experiences of human beings in order to gain deeper insights into how people understand those experiences.

Purposive sampling technique was used to collect the data through face-to-face seating interviews with 20 male and female Bangladeshi graduates. The Bangladeshi capital city of Dhaka was selected as a research location due to the high density of graduates and educational institutions. Many graduates migrate to the city for higher education and better job opportunities. Table 1 presents the demographic background of 20 respondents.

Table 1*Demographic Background of Respondents (N=20)*

Respondents	Numbers
Education	
Bachelor	10
Master	10
Designation	
Teacher	7
Student	3
Banker	2
Housewife	2
Business	2
Unemployed	1
Self-employed	1
Quality assurance officer	1
Merchandiser	1
Sex	
Male	11
Female	9

Open-ended interview questions were used to collect data for individual interviews and focus group discussions. Comments and suggestions were later sought from experts from the same field to ensure the validity and reliability of the interview questions. Before the interview and discussion began, the respondents were briefed on the purposes of data collection and they were given assurances on the confidentiality of the study. The researcher also explained data accessibility and ownership to the respondents. Pseudonyms were used for all interviewees to ensure anonymity. The researcher repeated the interviews and discussions until the data gleaned achieved saturation at the 20th interview. The interviews were recorded for transcription, translation and analysis.

The recordings were listened to by the researcher many times for transcription and translation. Subsequently, the translated data were analysed manually by the researcher. Thematic analysis was applied to the data by having the keywords and phrases in the minor categories to form a long list of codes, which were compiled to answer the research questions. Next, some of the codes from the minor categories box list were collapsed into major categories. Finally, the themes were produced from the major categories. It was found that many important codes have been selected to support the themes related to the theory. The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the University of Malaya and approved by the Ethics Committee of the university.

Findings

The findings are presented in five specific sections according to the research questions to ensure the use of English language as linguistic capital reflects Pierre Bourdieu's (1986) cultural capital concepts in language learning and practice among Bangladeshi graduates. Each of these sections would focus on higher education, international business, social networks, career developments, and communication among friends and families respectively.

English as Linguistic Capital in Higher Education

The first research question is on how English is used as linguistic capital in higher education. Respondent B claimed that he has been learning English for the last six months in a coaching centre to improve his English language proficiency because of his interest in going overseas for higher education. He had to pay 20000 Bangladeshi Taka (BDT) for his English language course fees. The good amount of money he paid as fees is a way of exchanging money into linguistic capital. The respondent also opined that the BDT 20000 is his investment; via this investment, he will earn more than that in the future.

I aim to study abroad, so I have been learning English in a coaching centre for the last six months, but before this, I also learned English as spoken English in another coaching centre. I am a slow learner, so it is taking more time, but I am hopeful I will be successful. I have paid BDT20000 as fees which is an immense amount, but in future, I will be able to earn more than my investment. (Respondent B)

Similarly, respondent F has completed a master's degree in English language and literature, then works as an English language teacher in a college and at the same time works as a part-time language instructor in a coaching centre. He is well paid in the coaching centre too. He also thinks that English speaking ability is his only capital for earning money. His higher education in the English language helped him as linguistic capital to survive.

I am a poor economic background graduate from a rural area, but I managed to get higher education (Hons and Master in English language and literature) from the national university of Bangladesh. My English language proficiency is the only capital I use to earn money, and I teach English at the college and coaching centre, where I get enough salary to manage my family's expenditures. (Respondent F)

Both respondents, B and F claim that English language is highly required for higher education, so respondent B has been learning English for the last six months, while respondent F uses English as linguistic capital to earn an income.

English as Linguistic Capital in International Business

This section presents the findings of the second research question, which aimed to find how English language is used as linguistic capital in international business. Respondent D stated that he is an owner of a broker house (broker house is a third-party organisation that deals with buying and selling garments abroad between garment factories and foreign buyers). Due to the nature of his work, he must possess good communication skills in English to gain good profit. Based on his statement, the English language is the linguistic capital.

I joined as an assistant merchandiser in a broker house after graduation and post-graduation in business studies, where I had experience and gained business policy. I started my own business. English language proficiency helped me a lot to succeed in my job and business. Good English makes it easier to understand the buyer and satisfy them. (Respondent D)

Another respondent, J, stated that he works in a private organisation as a broker. Export of human resources is the second largest source of income for the Bangladeshi government, where English language is a crucial part of communication in this business. If the candidates are good in the language, they can secure good income and positions in foreign countries. Besides, as he works as a broker to export talents abroad, he has to be a good speaker of English. It is largely impossible to handle a business without a good proficiency in English language.

Due to the nature of the business, I have to handle the foreigners buying the garments, and I have managed to talk in English. Although I could improve at English, I can work better. Besides, it is easy to handle foreigners with good English. (Respondent J)

The respondents claim that all international businesses require English language proficiency for communication and further growth. So, English language skills is pivotal for a person to succeed in international business.

English as a Linguistic Capital in Social Networks for Income

The third research question is on how English is used as a linguistic capital in social networks for income. Respondent M described that she is teaching English to a good number of students online, which is more than the number that can fit in a physical class. Besides, she writes blogs and has a YouTube account and a Facebook page to teach English. This way, she earns smart money, where English language works as linguistic capital.

During and after the Covid-19 crisis, I have largely conducted online English language teaching, which is better than physical classes because I have more students than before. Now, I earn better than before through English language teaching online. (Respondent M)

Similarly, respondent G is used to online teaching and learning because the physical class is time-consuming and requires transportation costs. She can save money and pay for online courses. She is preparing to sit for the IELTS online with two instructors to get good test scores. Moreover, she subscribes to several online platforms to learn English.

I am interested in getting higher education abroad, so I am preparing for my IELTS score. I prefer online social media-based English learning procedures because it is cheap and easily accessible, and time-saving. Moreover, I am a subscriber to several online English language teaching platforms. (Respondent G)

At the present moment, online teaching platforms in Bangladesh are gaining popularity due to their features and the current trends in learning. Social media-based English language teaching in Bangladesh is also becoming more popular due to its easy accessibility from any corner of the world.

English as a Linguistic Capital in Career Advancements

The fourth research question is on how English is used as linguistic capital in career advancement. Respondent C explained that she works in a Korean-owned garment factory where she needs English to communicate with Korean officers on specific issues. The Bangladeshi garment industry is the top employment provider where many posts require proficiency in English language so as to assist them to be empowered in social settings. English language proficiency enhances career advancement, especially in securing jobs at private companies, both local and multinational corporations.

I have been working in this factory for the last seven years as Quality Assurance Manager so, I have to talk to high-level officers and sometimes I have to participate in training session with foreigners where I need the English language to understand the discussion in the training session. Without English skills, it was not possible. (Respondent- C)

Similarly, one of the respondents, H, claims that he has just completed a Master's in English language and literature from a private university and is looking for jobs, particularly public administrative jobs. In the meantime, he works as an English language tutor. He gives tuition to several students in individual students' houses and earns handsome amounts, which he spends and saves for his parents and himself.

I have just completed a Master's in the English language and am looking for jobs. My first choice is public administrative jobs. Before having the job, I currently give home tuition service. I have several students; I go to the individual students' houses and teach them English subjects. English language skills help me to find jobs and conduct tuition services. (Respondent- H)

According to respondent H, English language proficiency is a form of linguistic capital to him because it helps him to earn money and to support his parents and

family economically. He is rather confident that language proficiency will eventually allow him to secure a public administrative job. From this point of view, English is considered as linguistic capital that can be exchanged for money.

English as a Prestigious Language in Conversations

The fifth research question investigates how English is used as a linguistic capital in a prestigious language in conversations, so this segment of findings presents English language proficiency not only as linguistic capital, but also as a language coveted in conversations with friends and family members. In the interview with respondent A, he stated that he teaches two students who are studying in a renowned English medium school in the capital city. This suggests that English language is perceived to be a prestigious language as their parents worked as high-ranked administrative government officers and are used to speaking English to their children as speaking in the language projects a sense of prestige in the community. Moreover, their parents think that if they speak Bengali to the children, they will lose their fluency in English, and the school does not allow them to speak Bengali.

I have completed a Master's in Mathematics and worked as a house tutor, so I teach two students who study in a renowned English medium school. I teach Maths in English medium because they don't understand Bengali clearly because their parents do not allow them to speak Bengali. Once, I asked the parents why they never talk in Bengali, and they answered that if they speak in Bengali, the children will lose the flow of English speaking; besides, English is a prestigious language. (Respondent- A)

Similarly, respondent O shared regular conversation experiences among their friends. They are three friends who live in the same area but attend different universities. The respondent's friend studies at a top-ranking private university while the respondent and another of his friends are at a national university. When they meet and gossip, the friend who studies at a private university uses too much English in speaking and the other two friends also try to speak in English but they do not speak as much as him in the language.

We are three friends who live in the same area in the capital city, but we two study at the National University while another friend studies at a top-ranking private university; he uses too much English in speaking, and we try to adjust him. Maybe it is his habitual fact, or he speaks English as a prestige. (Respondent- O)

According to the respondents' statements, there are families in Bangladesh that use English in daily conversations as they see the language as prestigious and they have an affection for the language. Moreover, among casual friend circles, they are Bangladeshis who have developed a habit of conversing in English language possibly due to the influence of their environment.

Discussion

The findings present the English language as an essential tool to pursue higher education. As a result, many students who were taught using Bengali as a medium of instruction enrolled themselves in English coaching centres in order to obtain the required score needed to secure placements in universities. An English language coaching centre earns a considerable amount of money by essentially exchanging linguistic capital into money (Hamid et al., 2009). The coaching centre offers various programmes for the student, such as oral English, basic grammar, IELTS preparation, English certificate courses, university admission, and English for occupations in Bangladesh. English language is sold as a product to customers at high prices (Ali & Hamid, 2020). The students also have to fulfil the given requirements from universities for higher education and employers for job recruitment. Higher education is only possible with English language proficiency, resulting in the graduates having to gain good scores in English standardised tests before commencing the main courses at the university level (Bergey et al., 2018). Hence, the candidates must go to coaching centres to improve their English language proficiency to pursue higher education (Janum, 2021). Mutual benefits exist: the candidate benefits from higher education, while the coaching centre owners and teachers benefit economically. Through these programmes, students would acquire linguistic capital in which they will be able to use it in the future.

English is an indispensable language for communicating and conducting international business successfully. Private companies have to adjust to foreign countries' demand, neoliberal economic pressure, and English language-based technology so they recruit skilled workers who are proficient in English (Park et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the findings indicate that many multinational companies in Bangladesh are not able to frequently satisfy this demand. In the era of globalisation, many graduates engage in international business in Bangladesh, particularly in the ready-made garment industry of Bangladesh, which exports a vast number of garments around the world.

In the 21st century, a country can hardly survive alone, so countries rely on international trade, which is carried out mostly by using the English language (Hu & McKay, 2012). Hence, a country would be in the advantage if it could supply skilled people conversant in English to conduct trades. Subsequently, to fulfil the demand for English language proficiency, schools, colleges, universities, coaching centres, and private house tutors sell English as linguistic capital all in the name of assisting to produce graduates to become proficient in English (Islam et al., 2022b).

Globalisation gained traction and speed via electronics and social media, as any news, events, or incidents can be disseminated around the world in a single minute, and English is the major language used in the process. (Rantanen, 2005). Similarly, social media is also used as a platform to teach English language worldwide; people can engage the service of native English language teachers quickly through this platform (Alharthi et al., 2020). In Bangladesh, English language teachers made full use of the social networks in teaching English (Jahan & Ahmed, 2012). These social media-based generations have considerable opportunities to earn money through teaching the English language. So, English as linguistic capital easily converts into

economic prosperity through social media (Bourdieu, 2018). During the COVID-19 crisis, online teaching and learning practices have improved tremendously around the world. Correspondingly, Bangladeshi graduates also joined the bandwagon on the online teaching and learning process, utilising learner-friendly social media such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, WhatsApp, and Instagram. There are hundreds of online English language teaching platforms available in Bangladesh.

English language proficiency enhances career development in various ways. Bangladeshis who possess a good command of the English language enjoy more opportunities to secure positions and promotions in the workplace (Islam et al., 2022b). Besides, most job advertisements mention that proficiency in English is preferred, and many job interviews are conducted in English. Conversely, people who are proficient in English can quickly secure jobs, which indicates that the candidates have acquired the proper value of linguistic capital (Erling et al., 2012). The finding of this study also demonstrates that graduates will be able to receive a promotion in the workplace due to their English language skills.

Lastly, English is also perceived as a prestigious language of communication among Bangladeshi graduates, whether with friends or families (Islam et al., 2022a). The deliberate use of English language among Bangladeshi graduates can be explained through cultural factors such as globalisation, internationalisation, and influence of the English as a medium of instruction (Sultana, 2014). An outset arises among the parents and graduates that the English language adds social prestige and values in building a better career and social recognition (Imam, 2005). Conversations in family and social circles are found to be mainly in the native language, Bangla, except for some differences in urban elite class who uses English with children to maintain their social status and adjust to the English medium of instruction in educational institutions (Islam et al., 2022a). Similarly, middle and affluent graduates use the English language with friends and families, which in turn will pass down a part of cultural capital or linguistic capital to the next generation.

Conclusion

The study aimed to identify how graduates use English language as linguistic capital in the Bangladeshi context. The research was conducted using a qualitative, phenomenological research design and thematic analysis, where the purposive sampling technique was used for sampling, and face-to-face interviews were conducted to find the results. The results indicate that English language proficiency is linguistic capital for Bangladeshi graduates to access job security, higher education, international business, income via social networks, and prestigious communication with friends and families. Moreover, the present findings also present the dimensional use of English as linguistic capital among Bangladeshi social settings which carry social and cultural diversity among the graduates. Hence, this study suggests creating awareness on the necessity of using English language in daily life with the balanced use of local languages. Nevertheless, this study is limited to covering Islamic-based graduates from a Madrasah background. Further research should be conducted on the impact of the English language as a form of linguistic capital beyond the Islamic education-based graduates in Bangladesh.

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ENHANCING ENGLISH CONDITIONAL SENTENCES AMONG EFL UNDERGRADUATES THROUGH SCAFFOLDING TECHNIQUES

Wadinlada THURATHAM

Rajamangala University of Technology Tawan-ok, Thailand
wadinlada_th@rmutto.ac.th

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ABSTRACT

Students have the potential to progress to a higher level in their language learning and development. To test this hypothesis, this research aims to 1) examine how scaffolding techniques improve English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' understanding of conditional sentences, and 2) investigate the students' attitudes towards the use of scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction. The participants were 27 English major students in a public university in Thailand. Two instruments were used to collect the data: two sets of tests on conditional sentences and a questionnaire. The data were analysed by using the SPSS software (version 20) and were converted into mean scores and standard deviations. The results from a paired t-test demonstrated that there were significant differences between the pre-test and post-test. Thus, it can be indicated that scaffolding techniques, namely, conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural could reinforce the students' grammatical knowledge of conditional sentences. Additionally, the results from the questionnaire acknowledged that the students had positive attitudes towards the use of scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction. Therefore, scaffolding techniques can be regarded as effective techniques that help EFL students overcome their grammatical difficulties with if-conditionals and reach higher achievement in their language learning.

Keywords: EFL students; grammatical knowledge; if-conditionals; scaffolding techniques

Introduction

Scaffolding techniques have been suggested to be considerably applied in EFL instruction as they have yielded positive outcomes in students' English language learning and development, across four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening (Boonmoh & Jumpakate, 2019; Jiang, 2018; Piamsai, 2020; Viriyapanyanont, 2021). Therefore, instructors use various kinds of scaffolding techniques to improve students' learning, such as conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural scaffoldings. When instructors employ supportive techniques, students' knowledge and skills develop gradually, preparing them for advanced language learning.

English grammar is crucial for EFL learners because it is the fundamental knowledge for English language learning. The study led by Saengboon (2017) revealed that Thai EFL students were aware of the importance of learning grammar as it was an essential element for communication, and it extended their understanding of sentence structures as well as productively reinforced their academic reading. Nonetheless, it is still a problem for Thai students (Kampookaew, 2020; Khumphee & Yodkamlue, 2017; Promsupa et al., 2017). To successfully communicate, EFL students need to possess grammatical knowledge and the ability to express their thoughts in written texts (Richards & Reppen, 2014). Without grammatical knowledge, the students would not be able to accurately construct sentences to be used for communication. Thus, students are required to have sufficient knowledge of grammar to have effective communication (Thuratham, 2022).

However, EFL students still struggle with grammatical errors in conditional sentences and are unable to get through these difficulties although if-conditionals are significant for students in language learning as these sentences can be applied in their everyday communication, such as giving advice and instructions. Nonetheless, most of previous studies in Thailand emphasised analysing grammatical errors on if-conditionals, but a few studies highlighted methods that help students solve grammatical problems with if-conditionals (Watcharakorn, 2018; Yossatorn et al., 2022) even though these studies have been conducted in the general education of English language curricula in Thailand and have been taught in both secondary and higher education institutions. To develop students' grammatical knowledge and skills with if-conditionals in the present study, a variety of scaffolding techniques (conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural) were blended and introduced in the EFL classroom. These techniques were examined to determine whether they could facilitate students' understanding of grammatical structures in all types of if-conditionals. As a result, the students would have a strong foundation at the first stage of their undergraduate studies, enabling them to move from their actual position to the potential one in English grammar in later years.

Research Questions

The study examined the effectiveness of scaffolding techniques for the development of EFL students' grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals. The two research questions are:

1. To what extent can scaffolding techniques improve EFL students' grammatical knowledge of conditional sentences?
2. What are the EFL students' attitudes toward the use of scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction?

Scope of the Study

This research only focused on if-conditionals as they have been taught in Thai higher education institutions in general. Thus, four types of if-conditionals, specifically factual conditional (type zero), future predictive conditional (type I), hypothetical conditional (type II) and counterfactual conditional (type III) were investigated. The examples of if-conditionals were adapted from the course and practice books entitled "English for Everyone Level 3 Intermediate" and "Level 4 Advanced", published by Dorling Kindersley Limited (Boobyer, 2016; Hart, 2016; Johnson, 2016; MacKay, 2016). These books were used by the students in this study, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

The Examples of Four Types of If-Conditionals

Factual Conditional Type 0	Future Predictive Conditional Type I
If + present simple, present simple <i>If a glass falls, it breaks.</i> Present simple + if + present simple <i>A glass breaks if it falls.</i>	If + present simple, future simple <i>If you stay up late, you'll be very tired tomorrow.</i> Future simple + if + present simple <i>You'll be very tired tomorrow if you stay up late.</i>
Hypothetical Conditional Type II	Counterfactual Conditional Type III
If + past simple, subject + would + infinitive <i>If I knew your phone number, I would contact you.</i> Subject + would + infinitive + if + past simple <i>I would contact you if I knew your phone number.</i>	If + past perfect, subject + would have + past participle <i>If Nadia had not taken the compass, she would have got lost.</i> Subject + would have + past participle + if + past perfect <i>Nadia would have got lost if she had not taken the compass.</i>

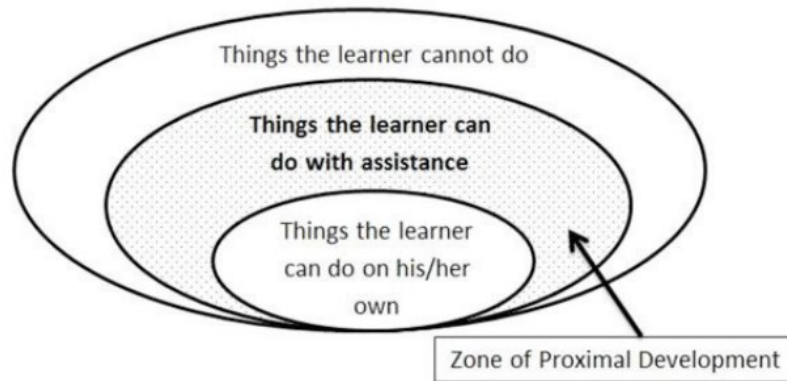
Literature Review

Scaffolding Techniques

The present study used scaffolding techniques in the sociocultural theory proposed by Lev Vygotsky. In other words, children interact with people around them, and they absorb knowledge and develop skills more effectively when guided by facilitators in their learning. This gap between a learner's current development and the potential development is known as the "zone of proximal development (ZPD)" (Vygotsky, 1978) as illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2

The Zone of Proximal Development (Bekiryazıcı, 2015)



As instructors play roles in language teaching as facilitators, the instructors are required to consider and employ effective methods to support students in language learning to achieve success in language development. Therefore, four types of scaffolding categorised by Hannafin et al. (1999) were used in this study, that is, conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural. First, conceptual scaffolding helps students consider and prioritise important concepts to handle learning problems. Second, metacognitive scaffolding helps students manage their thoughts to solve problems during learning. Third, procedural scaffolding helps students by giving advice on how to use learning methods effectively. Finally, strategic scaffolding helps students utilise strategies or alternative methods to solve problems in learning.

Many studies revealed positive outcomes from the implementation of scaffolding techniques in classrooms which developed students' English skills (Boonmoh & Jumpakate, 2019; Jiang, 2018; Majid & Stapa, 2017; Piamsai, 2020; Viriyapanyanont, 2021). Regarding reading skills, Viriyapanyanont (2021) found that scaffolding techniques could encourage English major students to read, so the students could follow the reading steps and have a better understanding of the contents of stories as

well as gain more vocabulary from reading. For the writing skill, Piamsai (2020) employed scaffolding techniques – specifically conceptual, metacognitive, and affective – in an academic writing classroom with non-English major students. The results confirmed that the scaffolding techniques facilitated students in academic writing as their post-test scores were higher than the pre-test scores, and the students revealed positive attitudes towards applying scaffolding techniques in the writing class. A study led by Majid and Stapa (2017) acknowledged that the scaffolding technique using Facebook in a blended learning ESL class supported the students to better learn and develop their writing process and descriptive writing performance. As for the speaking skill, Boonmoh and Jumpakate (2019) affirmed that scaffolding was an effective approach to develop students' speaking skill from the self-study group called "Let's Speak" through presentation activities, so they felt more confident to speak English. Moreover, Jiang (2018) found that applying a scaffolding strategy with authentic teaching materials like news from VOA programs, could enforce EFL Chinese students' development in listening skills, as the students gradually improved their listening comprehension.

If-Conditionals

If-conditionals are used to describe the results of real or unreal situations under conditions. Each conditional sentence is comprised of a subordinate clause and a main clause. Generally, the subordinate clause starts by "if" as for a condition, and the main clause or an independent clause introduces the result of that condition. In English, conditional sentences are divided into four types. It is basically known as zero, first, second, and third conditionals. To start with, the zero conditional is used to talk about general truths or scientific facts, and the first conditional is used to describe the future results of possible situations. However, the second conditional is used to describe the present results of imaginary or unlikely situations, and the third conditional is used to talk about regrets for unreal situations in the past. Thus, the students can apply their knowledge of if-conditionals in everyday communication.

Even though if-conditionals have been taught in English language curricula from secondary to higher education in Thailand, EFL students still struggle with using conditional sentences grammatically and meaningfully. Yossatorn et al. (2022) showed that Thai EFL students lacked abilities to use the past counterfactuals (third type) of if-conditionals, and their grammatical errors on structures may be found over the whole task. Katip and Gampper (2016) also studied Thai students' errors using if-conditionals, and the results indicated that the students struggled with written problems in tenses used in conditional sentences, especially present and future simple tenses. They produced the subject and verb agreement incorrectly. For spoken errors, the future simple tense was the most problematic one.

Similarly, Taka (2020) found that some Indonesian students did not know how to use conditional sentences in their everyday conversation even though they had

learned them before. Fatimah (2019) also found major problems with if-conditionals that made Indonesian students confused and unable to construct conditional sentences, including tenses, structures, and meanings. Moreover, Rdaat and Gardner (2017) examined whether Arab students in Coventry University understood the types and structures of conditional sentences correctly or not, and the results from questionnaires revealed that more than half of the students were unable to identify conditional sentences and explain their meanings and functions.

Methodology

Research Design

This experimental research used a single group pre- and post-test design. The students were administered the pre-test before applying the scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction. Then, the post-test was given to examine whether scaffolding techniques could improve the students' grammatical knowledge in conditional sentences or not. To examine the effectiveness of using scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction, the students' attitudes were explored.

English as a Foreign Language undergraduate students who graduated from high school are required to attend a compulsory course on the subject "English for Undergraduate Students" in the first semester of every academic year. Based on the researcher's teaching experience, she has found that the students need a strong foundation in English grammar, with if-conditionals. In this regard, it is very important to equip these students with productive methods to strengthen their grammatical knowledge in this area so that the students can move up another step when they study English grammar in later years. Also, there is a belief that the students have potential to move to a higher level of language development. This idea is based on Vygotsky's (1978) idea that children can move from their actual position to the potential one by scaffolding students along the way of their learning. To help EFL students to achieve that level, this study will demonstrate how four types of scaffolding techniques work.

Participants

The participants were English as a Foreign Language undergraduate students who were required to attend a compulsory course on the subject "English for Undergraduate Students" in the first semester of every academic year. The 27 participants were first-year students from the Department of English for International Communication in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at a public university in Thailand.

This course was required for only English major students. This was the fundamental subject for students to develop a strong foundation, especially in grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals which would profitably extend their understanding and further support their English skills as well as their studies in later

years. The male and female students whose ages were above 18 years old were included in the study, and they voluntarily participated in the experiment throughout the study. The students who did not participate in all class activities or students who decided to withdraw from the study were excluded from the study. Additionally, this study was approved by the Research Ethics Review Committee for Research Involving Human Research Subjects of Rajamangala University of Technology Tawan-ok, Thailand on 25th November 2021 (COA No. 037, RMUTTO REC No. 058/2021).

Instruments

The data of this study was collected from two instruments, namely, the tests of grammatical errors on conditionals and a questionnaire. First, the pre- and post-tests focused on structures (set A) and types of conditionals (set B).

The questionnaire comprised 20 close-ended statements to gather data on their background information and attitudes toward the use of scaffolding techniques in conditional sentence instruction. The questionnaire covered four types of scaffolding techniques: conceptual, metacognitive, procedural, and strategic.

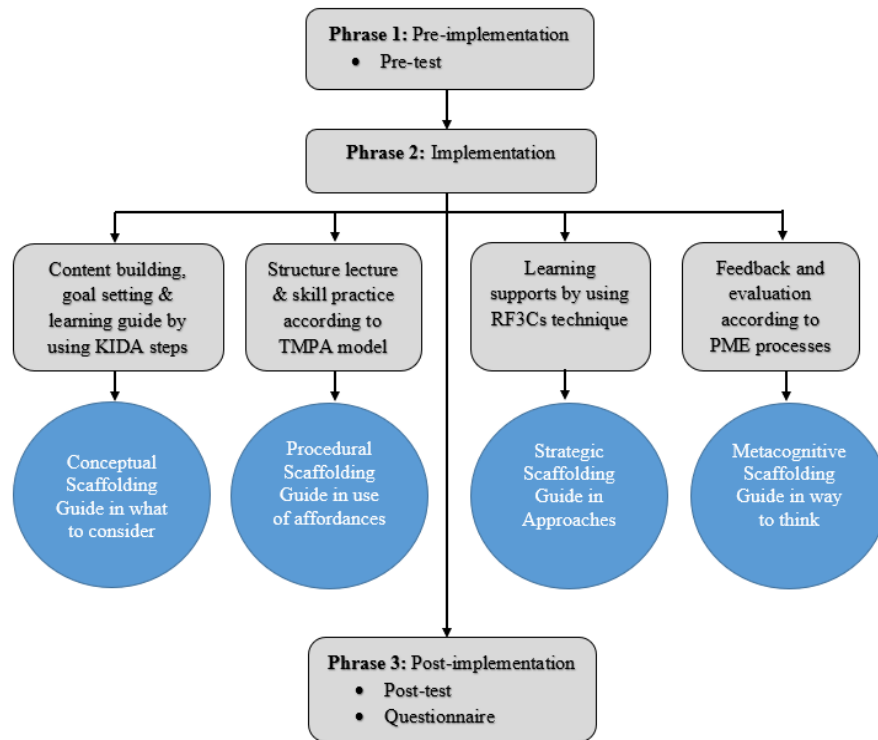
Data Collection Procedures

This study followed the framework of scaffolding instruction adapted from Spycher (2017), so the study was divided into three phases as illustrated in Figure 3.

Phases of implementation

For Phase 1, Pre-Implementation, the first week was planned to identify students' grammatical errors with if-conditionals so that the teacher could prepare the appropriate lesson plans for their needs. In this regard, the students were assigned to take two sets of the pre-test of if-conditionals to find out their grammatical errors with structures and types of conditional sentences before participating in the scaffolding instruction. The test set A was the gap-filling task, and the test set B was the identifying task. The contents of the testing were mainly adapted from the exercises in the course and practice books, entitled "English for Everyone Level 3 Intermediate" and "Level 4 Advanced", published by Dorling Kindersley Limited. The contents of the testing were checked and evaluated by three experts in English departments using the Index of Item-Objective Congruency (IOC) for the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Then, the contents were adjusted according to their advice. The results of the pre-test were collected and kept until the final phase of the study to compare with the results of the post-test.

Figure 3
Research Procedure



Phase 2, Implementation, took place after the pre-test was administered. The students then participated in the if-conditional instruction. The instruction was organised according to the lesson plans which were designed to cover grammatical knowledge of four types of conditional sentences, so the instruction consisted of four lessons. The contents and exercises used in the lesson plans were adapted from the course and practice books entitled “English for Everyone Level 3 Intermediate” and “Level 4 Advanced”, published by Dorling Kindersley Limited. Thus, the students took part in each lesson for three hours a week with 12 hours in total, so the instruction separate from the course. The instruction had been designed only for teaching if-conditionals and was completed in four weeks. Phase 3, Post-implementation, took place at the end of the study, when the students took the post-test, which had the same sets of test items as the pre-test, including the gap-filling task (set A) and the identifying task (set B). Subsequently, both tests were compared to assess any improvement in students’ grammatical knowledge of conditional sentences following the implementation of scaffolding techniques in the study. Following the assessment, a questionnaire was distributed among the students to collect information about their background information and attitudes towards the utilisation of scaffolding techniques

in if-conditional construction. The questionnaires covered the four categories of scaffolding techniques.

To ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire contents, they were reviewed and approved by three experts from the English department. The Index of Item-Objective Congruency (IOC) was employed to assess reliability and validity. Students' attitudes were measured based on the 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly agree = 5' to 'strongly disagree = 1' as it was easily utilised, and confirmed by the respondents. To avoid language barriers, the questionnaires were translated into Thai to ensure that the students understood all the details in the questionnaires.

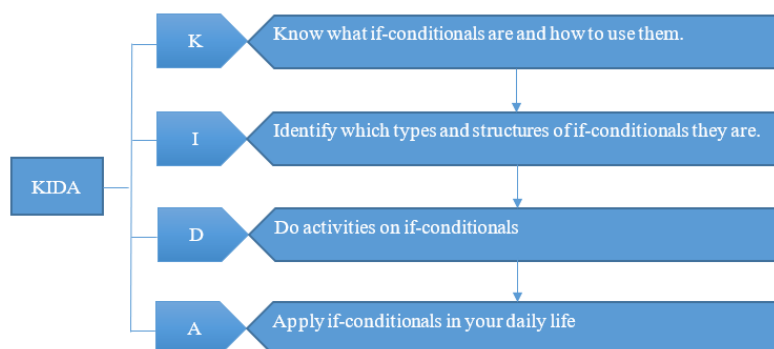
Stages of Scaffolding Techniques

The scaffolding techniques were grouped into four stages adapted from Spycher (2017) to meet the aim of the present study.

In the first stage, conceptual scaffolding was initiated by introducing students to the content information regarding conditional sentences and the learning objectives. Subsequently, students were instructed to follow KIDA steps as shown in Figure 4, which constitute a learning technique designed to guide their approach to learning if-conditionals. These steps assist students in effectively organising their concepts for successful learning.

Figure 4

Stage 1: KIDA Steps

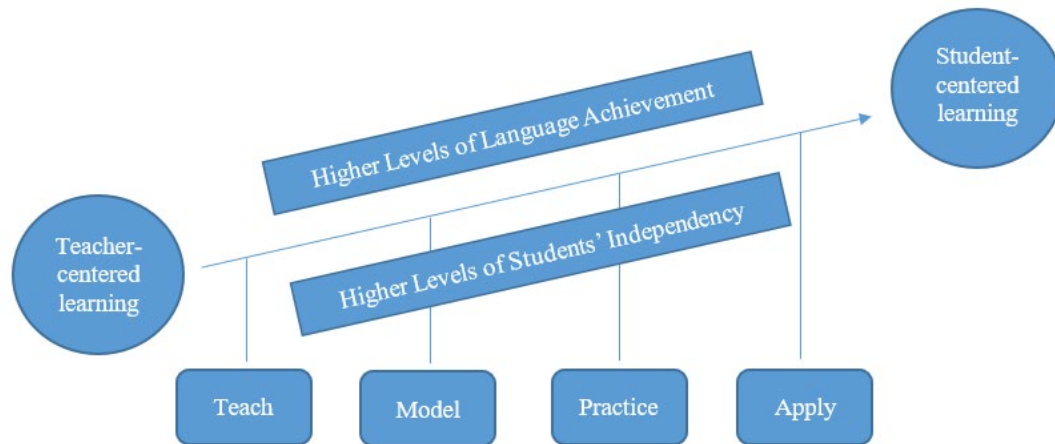


Next, the teacher implemented procedural scaffolding in the instruction of if-conditionals using the TMPA model as illustrated in Figure 5, which emphasises Teach, Model, Practice and Apply (Echevarria et al., 2010). Initially, the teacher delivered lectures on if-conditionals to the students, following the teaching steps (Teach). Teaching tools, such as PowerPoint, audio files, and visual aids, were utilised to aid students' comprehension of if-conditionals (Model). Subsequently, students engaged in practical exercises to apply their grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals. This includes asking and responding to questions, as well as participating in group discussions

(Practice). To assess their understanding, students were tasked with searching for news articles containing different types of if-conditionals and creating conditional sentences according to provided structures, translating them into Thai (Apply). This approach is believed to empower students to take control of their learning independently.

Figure 5

Stage 2: TMPA Model (Adapted from Echevarria et al., 2010)



In the strategic scaffolding stage, students were tasked with correcting structures and distinguishing between types of if-conditionals. When students hesitated or faced difficulties in providing answers, they received support through the RF3Cs technique as presented in Figure 6. This technique was developed to assist students in effectively resolving errors in conditional sentences.

Finally, metacognitive scaffolding was employed by the researcher to enhance the students' metacognition during the Planning, Monitoring, and Evaluating (PME) processes in the if-conditional instruction as shown in Figure 7. This technique enabled students to gain a deeper understanding of if-conditionals and correct their own errors, ultimately helping them achieve their learning goals.

Figure 6
Stage 3: The RF3Cs Technique

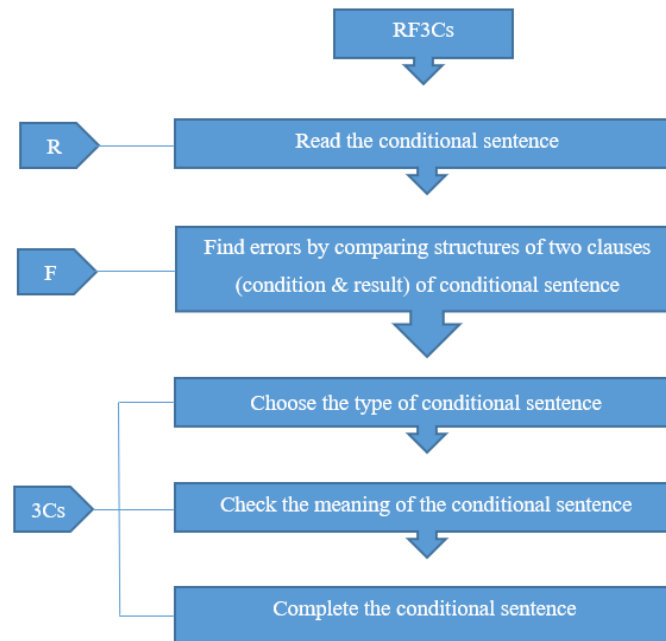
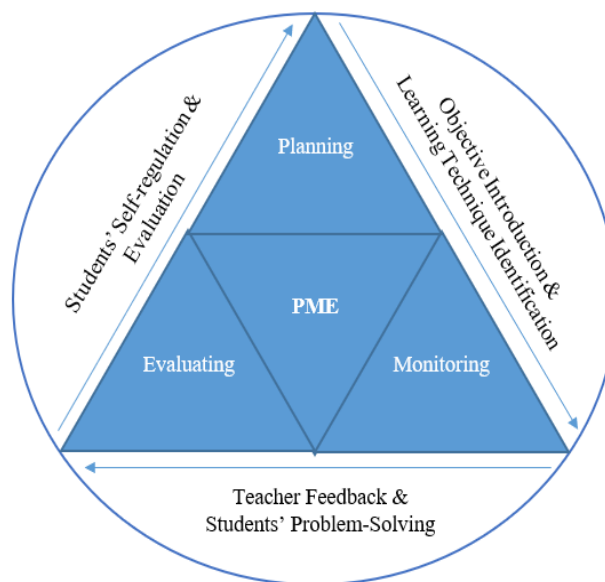


Figure 7
Stage 4: PME Processes (Adapted from Hannafin et al., 1999)



Data Analysis Procedures

The pre-test and post-test scores were collected, compared, and analysed by using a paired t-test to reflect the development of students' grammatical knowledge of conditional sentences within groups before and after implementing a treatment.

For quantitative analysis, the students' attitudes were analysed by using the SPSS software (version 20) for mean and standard deviation as it helps researchers obtain appropriate results to report research (Cronk, 2019). Also, the five-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", was used to interpret the degrees of students' agreement. If the value was higher than 3.00, it can be implied that the students had positive attitudes towards scaffolding techniques (Alkurdi & Alghazo, 2021).

Results

Effect of Scaffolding Techniques on EFL Students' Grammatical Knowledge on Conditional Sentences

Table 1 shows that students had improved their grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals after the if-conditional instruction using scaffolding.

Table 1

The Pre-Test and Post-Test Results of Set A and Set B

Pre-test and Posttest	N	\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Paired Differences 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pre-test & Post-test (set A)	27	-5.074	3.802	.732	-6.578	-3.570	-6.935	26	.000
Pre-test & Post-test (set B)	27	-3.185	3.138	.604	-4.427	-1.944	-5.274	26	.000

* $P < .05$

According to Table 1, the results from the paired t-test showed that there were statistically significant differences between the pre-test and post-test scores at 95% confidence level. In other words, the students' post-test scores were higher than the pre-test scores in both sets of tests on if-conditionals, focusing on structures (set A: $t = -6.935$, $df = 26$, $p < .05$) and types (set B: $t = -5.274$, $df = 26$, $p < .05$) respectively. The scaffolding techniques, namely conceptual, metacognitive, procedural, and strategic were effective methods that could help students gain a better understanding of grammatical knowledge on if-conditionals.

EFL Students' Attitudes Towards the Use of Scaffolding Techniques in the If-Conditional Instruction

The questionnaire results (Table 2) showed that students had positive attitudes towards the use of scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction as the mean scores of all types of scaffolding techniques were above 3.00. Additionally, mean scores that were above 4.20 were interpreted as "strongly agree" (Sözen & Güven, 2019).

Table 2

The Students' Overall Attitudes Towards the Use of Scaffolding Techniques

No.	Statements	\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
1	Conceptual Scaffolding (KIDA steps)	4.42	0.52	Strongly Agree
2	Metacognitive Scaffolding (PME processes)	4.35	0.49	Strongly Agree
3	Procedural Scaffolding (TMPA model)	4.43	0.53	Strongly Agree
4	Strategic Scaffolding (RF3Cs technique)	4.32	0.55	Strongly Agree

The most effective type of scaffolding technique was procedural scaffolding as its mean score ($\bar{X} = 4.43$) ranked the highest. It was followed by conceptual scaffolding ($\bar{X} = 4.42$), metacognitive scaffolding ($\bar{X} = 4.35$) and strategic scaffolding ($\bar{X} = 4.32$). The students strongly agreed that all types of scaffolding techniques helpfully eradicated their errors and increased their grammatical knowledge on conditional sentences.

Table 3 shows that the levels of agreement were slightly different for the items, ranging from 4.15 (agree) to 4.70 (strongly agree).

Table 3

The Students' Attitudes Towards the Use of Scaffolding Techniques by Item

No.	Statements	\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Conceptual Scaffolding				
1	Students were introduced learning steps prioritised by the teacher which reduced complexity in learning conditionals.	4.56	0.58	Strongly Agree
2	Students were recommended to follow KIDA steps in learning conditionals.	4.44	0.64	Strongly Agree
3	Students understood the structures of conditionals visualised by the teacher.	4.30	0.67	Strongly Agree
4	Students were given hints when students hesitated to correct conditionals.	4.56	0.64	Strongly Agree
5	Students were reminded to follow RF3Cs technique to solve grammatical errors on conditionals.	4.26	0.66	Strongly Agree
Metacognitive Scaffolding (PME)				
6	Students understood the objectives of tasks on conditionals. (Planning)	4.15	0.60	Agree
7	Students used technique guided by the teacher to achieve	4.26	0.66	Strongly Agree

	their tasks on conditionals. (Planning)			
8	Students knew their grammatical problems on conditionals from teacher' comment. (Monitoring)	4.22	0.64	Strongly Agree
9	Students used suggestions from teacher to revise their tasks on conditionals. (Monitoring)	4.41	0.57	Strongly Agree
10	Students checked their tasks on conditionals before submitting to the teacher. (Evaluating)	4.70	0.54	Strongly Agree
Procedural Scaffolding (TMPA)				
11	Students were taught conditionals according to learning steps. (Teach)	4.44	0.58	Strongly Agree
12	Students were taught contents of conditionals by PowerPoint slides and were provided opportunities to do activities from zero to third conditionals. (Model)	4.56	0.64	Strongly Agree
13	Students had opportunities to practise grammatical knowledge on conditionals by asking and responding to the questions. (Practice)	4.52	0.58	Strongly Agree
14	Students had opportunities to discuss about conditionals together in the class. (Practice)	4.22	0.70	Strongly Agree
15	Students could review types and structures of conditionals from the templates (searching for news and writing sentences structures and translating their own sentences) created by the teacher. (Apply)	4.41	0.64	Strongly Agree
Strategic Scaffolding				
16	Students were asked to correct structures and differentiate types of conditionals on each item on exercise before receiving answers.	4.37	0.63	Strongly Agree
17	Students were supported by using the RF3Cs technique to achieve conditionals during exercise.	4.19	0.62	Agree
18	Students knew how to solve the errors in conditionals exemplified by the teacher.	4.33	0.62	Strongly Agree
19	RF3Cs technique helped students notice and analyse errors in conditional sentences.	4.30	0.67	Strongly Agree
20	RF3Cs technique helped students solve grammatical errors on conditional sentences.	4.41	0.64	Strongly Agree

The students strongly agreed with all items of conceptual scaffolding. The mean scores of items 1 and 4 stayed about the same at 4.56. By way of explanation, the students thought that the learning steps given by the teacher could reduce their complexity in learning conditional sentences. Also, when they felt hesitant to make corrections on conditional sentences, they received hints from the teacher which facilitated their learning. The next highest mean scores were for items 2 ($\bar{X} = 4.44$), item 3 ($\bar{X} = 4.30$) and item 5 ($\bar{X} = 4.26$). The students thought that they were recommended to follow KIDA steps in learning if-conditionals at the beginning of the instruction which guided their ways of learning conditional sentences. The students could understand the structures of conditional sentences simplified by the figures on the PowerPoint slides. When the students were unable to solve errors on conditional sentences, they followed the RF3Cs technique which helped them reduce the number of errors.

As for metacognitive scaffolding, the strongly agreed with four items (Items 7, 8, 9 and 10). Item 6 was rated as “agree”. To put it simply, the highest mean score was 4.70 as the students greatly viewed that they checked their tasks on conditional sentences before submitting them to the teacher (item 10). When the students were required to revise their tasks on conditional sentences, they used suggestions from the teacher to guide their way (item 9, $\bar{X} = 4.41$). The students agreed that they used the RF3Cs technique to help them complete their tasks (item 7, $\bar{X} = 4.26$). The students thought that they knew their grammatical mistakes in conditional sentences from the teacher’s comment (item 8, $\bar{X} = 4.22$). However, the lowest mean score was item 6 which indicates that the students understood the objectives of these tasks ($\bar{X} = 4.15$).

As for procedural scaffolding, the results show that the students strongly agreed with all items. Item 12 ranked the highest ($\bar{X} = 4.56$). The students agreed that they learned the contents of if-conditionals from the PowerPoint slides. The next highest rank was item 13 ($\bar{X} = 4.52$). The students thought that they also had opportunities to practise their grammatical knowledge on conditional sentences through question-and-answer activities. The next mean score was item 11 ($\bar{X} = 4.44$). The students firmly agreed that they followed the learning steps taught by the teacher to learn conditional sentences. The students felt that they could review types and structures of if-conditionals from the templates created by the teacher (item 15, $\bar{X} = 4.41$), and they had opportunities to discuss conditional sentences with their peers in the class (item 14, $\bar{X} = 4.22$).

With respect to strategic scaffolding, the students strongly agreed with all items, except item 17. The highest mean score went to the item 20 ($\bar{X} = 4.41$). The students viewed that the RF3Cs technique helped them solve grammatical errors on conditional sentences. The second highest score was item 16 ($\bar{X} = 4.37$). The students thought that they were asked to correct structures and differentiate types of conditional sentences in exercises before knowing the answers. It was followed by items 18, 19 and 17 respectively. The students believed that they knew how to solve the errors in conditional sentences from the examples given by the teacher (item 18, $\bar{X} = 4.33$). When using the RF3Cs technique, the students strongly agreed that they could find and analyse errors in conditional sentences (item 19, $\bar{X} = 4.30$). As for item 17, the mean score ranked the lowest at 4.19. The students agreed that the RF3Cs technique could facilitate them to achieve conditional sentences when doing exercises.

Discussion

This study highlighted how scaffolding techniques, specifically conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural improved EFL students’ grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals. The students felt positive that the instruction helped to develop their grammatical knowledge.

Scaffolding techniques have been applied in language learning in various forms of instruction to support and develop students’ language skills effectively (Jiang, 2018;

Majid & Stapa, 2017; Piamsai, 2020; Safa & Motaghi, 2021; Safdari et al., 2019). By the same token, scaffolding techniques have been found to support students' learning autonomy and help them optimise their skills with different types of tasks. As a result, the students could go beyond their perceived limits to complete tasks that seemed to be difficult for them (Kim et al., 2018). However, a few studies in Thailand highlighted methods that helped students improve grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals in higher education. In the present study, mixed scaffolding techniques, including conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural were employed. The results of this study showed significant improvement in students' grammatical performance after the if-conditional instruction.

Regarding the structures of if-conditionals, the students improved their grammatical knowledge of counterfactual conditional (type III) the most even though this conditional type was considered the most problematic for EFL students in terms of use and comprehension (Katip & Gampper, 2016; Rdaat & Gardner, 2017). The other types included hypothetical conditional (type II), factual conditional (type 0) and future predictive conditional (type I). The future predictive conditional (type I) had the least improvement compared to other types of if-conditionals as a considerable number of studies revealed that students had the least error of if-conditionals in line with the structure of type I (Katip & Gampper, 2016; Kholilah, 2020).

On the other hand, when types of conditional sentences were compared, the findings showed that the students enhanced their grammatical knowledge of hypothetical conditional (type II) the most. The following types included factual conditional (type 0), counterfactual conditional (type III) and future predictive conditional (type I) sequentially. It can be presumed that the students would be confused about the meanings of conditional sentences between the future predictive conditional (type I), the most problematic type for comprehension supported by Katip (2015) and the factual conditional (type 0). When these two types of sentences were interpreted from English into Thai, their meanings were quite similar. Thus, it would be possible for students to get confused about the meanings of conditional sentences between the factual conditional (type 0) and the future predictive conditional (type I) after they were interpreted into Thai. Consequently, it can be inferred that L2 would have effects on L1 in terms of grammar (Haman et al., 2017) and interpretation, so students would have difficulty selecting and identifying the correct types of conditional sentences.

Regarding the students' attitudes towards the use of scaffolding techniques in the if-conditional instruction, the results from the questionnaire ascertained that the students had positive attitudes towards the mixed scaffolding techniques in all aspects. The most effective technique was procedural scaffolding, followed by conceptual scaffolding, metacognitive scaffolding and strategic scaffolding subsequently. Regarding procedural scaffolding, it consisted of the TMPA model, that is, teach, model, practice and apply which was one of the scaffolding strategies that was practical for EFL students (Echevarria et al., 2010). Therefore, scaffolding would be useful for students when it

provides opportunities for them to participate in class activities and practise (Sari & Rozimela, 2020). The more the students practise, the better their language skills.

Moreover, the students fully acknowledged that they were introduced to if-conditionals and recommended to follow the KIDA steps in the study which reduced their confusion in learning if-conditionals. The students also paid attention to the visual structures of conditional sentences. When they lacked confidence in grammatical use and hesitated to correct the errors in conditional sentences, they were given hints and reminded to follow the RF3Cs technique which helped them solve grammatical errors in conditional sentences successfully. Conceptual scaffolding helped students consider and prioritise important concepts in learning. When their concepts are well-organised, the students can understand the target knowledge and deal with problems in learning (Hannafin et al., 1999).

Besides, if the students understood the task objectives with conditional sentences and were guided in learning (planning), they would be able to manage their thoughts to solve the problems during learning (Hannafin et al., 1999). Then, the students would be able to notice their grammatical errors (monitoring) and re-examine their tasks before submitting them to the teacher (evaluation). As a result, the students would accomplish their tasks as the feedback or comments from the teacher were important and could influence students' development in language learning. Thus, metacognitive scaffolding, which was composed of PME processes such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Hannafin et al., 1999) was evidently accepted by the students to help them gain grammatical knowledge with conditional sentences. Many studies also affirmed that metacognitive scaffolding had a positive impact on the development of four language skills (Berenji, 2021; Jafari et al., 2021; Rahmat et al., 2021; Safa & Motaghi, 2021).

In addition to strategic scaffolding, students had opinions that the RF3Cs technique used in this study could help them notice, analyse, and solve grammatical errors in conditional sentences exemplified and simplified by the teacher in the task activities. Strategic scaffolding helps the students utilise strategies or alternative methods to solve problems in learning (Hannafin et al., 1999). Moreover, strategic scaffolding could also motivate EFL students in language learning. In simple terms, when students apply various language learning strategies in the classroom, they become more proficient language learners (Rezaee et al., 2018).

Conclusion

This study shows that blended scaffolding techniques, namely, conceptual, metacognitive, strategic, and procedural can be used as effective methods for improving EFL students' grammatical knowledge of if-conditionals. The findings shed light on the students' improvement in structural knowledge of if-conditionals on counterfactual conditional (type III) the most, followed by hypothetical conditional (type II), factual conditional (type 0) and future predictive conditional (type I). However, the results from

identifying types reversed the structural results of if-conditionals. To clarify, the students developed their grammatical knowledge on hypothetical conditional (type II) the most. Following type II were factual conditional (type 0), counterfactual conditional (type III) and future predictive conditional (type I) sequentially. Moreover, the results from the questionnaire affirmed that the blended scaffolding techniques had very positive effects on the students' development of grammatical knowledge with if-conditionals led by procedural scaffolding, conceptual scaffolding, metacognitive scaffolding, and strategic scaffolding. Therefore, the study shows that the blended scaffolding techniques are productive methods to help students eliminate their errors and gain a better understanding of structures and types of if-conditionals. Thus, the students had the potential to move from their actual position to the higher position of development aligned with the ZPD constructed by Vygotsky (1978). As a result, the students can finally achieve the target knowledge, and they would have a strong foundation to move to another step of their learning, especially in English grammar in later years of education. However, the findings on the benefits of blended scaffolding techniques among Thai undergraduates for if-conditionals need to be verified in further studies applying these techniques or an individual scaffolding technique to different grammatical issues in EFL contexts.

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EVALUATING STUDENTS' VIEWS ON THE IMPORTANCE AND USEFULNESS OF CEFR IN SPEAKING TEST

Looi-Chin CH'NG*¹

Farah Fadhliah MAHMUD²

Siti Huzaimah SAHARI³

Aqilah ARSHAD⁴

Siti Zuraina GAFAR@ ABD GHAFAR⁵

^{1,2,3}Universiti Teknologi MARA Sarawak branch, Malaysia

^{4,5}Universiti Teknologi MARA Perak branch, Malaysia

chngl026@uitm.edu.my

farahfadhliah@uitm.edu.my

huzaimahs@uitm.edu.my

aqilaharshad@uitm.edu.my

zuraina822@uitm.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is crucial for speaking tests as it provides a standardised framework to assess and gauge language proficiency accurately and consistently. This research evaluates ESL students' awareness and perceived usefulness of the CEFR in group discussions. Data were obtained from 105 diploma students from UiTM Sarawak and UiTM Alor Gajah using an online questionnaire. The results indicate a moderate level of CEFR awareness, although opinions on its impact and role in language assessment and goal setting were varied. Respondents generally view CEFR-aligned speaking tests positively, showing a favourable perception of its usefulness. However, some have expressed concerns that these tests could be potential obstacles in their efforts to improve their language skills. The study highlighted the need for further education and training on CEFR-aligned assessments to enhance students' comprehension and confidence in language proficiency development. It also emphasises the importance of designing assessments that help learners overcome potential barriers to improving language proficiency.

Keywords: CEFR; speaking test; group discussion; ESL teaching and learning

Introduction

In today's interconnected global landscape, effective communication skills have never been more essential, particularly within the realm of tertiary education. Discussion skills, especially in language learning programmes, are of paramount importance, aiming to cultivate students' capacity to engage in meaningful conversations. Proficiency in effective discussion not only enriches comprehension of course material but also hones critical thinking, active listening, and empathy. For many English as a Second Language (ESL) students, communication remains a persistent barrier, extending beyond their academic journey into the professional realm, where English communication skills are indispensable for global employability (Awang & Kasuma, 2008).

The CEFR has emerged as a pivotal tool in language education, offering a standardised and comprehensive means to evaluate language proficiency. Developed by the Council of Europe (2001), the CEFR furnishes a detailed framework for assessing and characterising language proficiency across various skills and levels. Since its inception, the CEFR has been widely embraced by educational institutions, language testing organisations, and language professionals across the globe (Brunfaut & Harding, 2020; Zaki & Darmi, 2021). Nevertheless, limited attention has been directed towards gauging university and diploma students' awareness and perceived utility of the CEFR guidelines, especially in the context of speaking test discussions. Self-assessment has the potential to empower students and enhance language proficiency when they are familiar with and independently apply the CEFR framework. However, there is a noticeable gap in research when it comes to understanding the importance and usefulness of CEFR in speaking tests from the students' perspectives. Assessing ESL students' awareness of CEFR-aligned speaking tests in group discussions and gauging their perceived usefulness of these tests will contribute significantly to a more comprehensive understanding of how CEFR influences students' language learning experiences and assessments.

Thus, this study examines diploma students' awareness of the CEFR and their perspectives on the applicability of its guidelines during speaking test discussions. The objectives are to:

- (1) evaluate the extent of awareness among ESL students regarding CEFR-aligned speaking tests in the context of group discussions; and
- (2) measure the perceived usefulness of CEFR-aligned speaking tests in group discussion as perceived by ESL students.

Literature Review

Implementing the CEFR in Language Education

The CEFR was created to establish a common language for effective communication in educational settings among Council of Europe member states (Council of Europe, 2001). Its primary goal is to enhance language education by emphasising reflection, communication, and networking within educational settings (Council of Europe, 2001; Göksu, 2015). The CEFR identifies five communication competencies: listening,

reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, and writing (Darmi et al., 2017). It also outlines six progressively advanced proficiency levels: Breakthrough (A1), Waystage (A2), Threshold (B1), Vantage (B2), Effective Operational Proficiency (C1), and Mastery (C2) (Council of Europe, 2001).

However, its influence has since expanded globally, extending beyond Europe to USA, South America, Asia, and the Asia-Pacific region. The evolution of the CEFR has resulted in its versatile application across various contexts, including curriculum development, syllabus design, instructional material creation, and the establishment of robust assessment systems (Jones et al., 2016).

Recently, adapted versions of the CEFR framework have been adopted as proficiency standards by English educators and learners in countries like Thailand, Japan, Vietnam, Malaysia, and China (Jones et al., 2016). Particularly, non-English-speaking nations appreciate the CEFR's inherent openness, adaptability, and flexibility, which facilitate effective English language acquisition. In Malaysia, the Ministry of Education (MOE) incorporated the CEFR into the Malaysian Education Blueprint (MEB) for 2013-2025. This recent incorporation of the CEFR into the Malaysian Education Blueprint emphasises the nation's commitment to enhancing English language standards (Jones et al., 2016).

As such, the call for research intensifies, urging an exploration of university students' speaking abilities within the CEFR framework, particularly in institutions where English is the medium of instruction (Razali & Latif, 2019). The emphasis on speaking as a crucial element of communication, as highlighted by Darmi et al. (2017), aligns with the revealed challenges Malaysian students face in speaking English proficiently, particularly in speaking assessments (Asdar, 2017).

Perception and Understanding of CEFR in Language Learning

The initiation of the CEFR in Malaysia since 2013 aimed at aligning the English language education system with CEFR standards, seeking to elevate the quality of English language education to an international level. Subsequent research primarily focused on teachers' familiarity with and adoption of the CEFR, with less emphasis on students' awareness of their CEFR results.

A study conducted by Darmi et al. (2017), involving 25 Malaysian English teachers, examined their perspectives on students' performance in English language proficiency courses using CEFR descriptors. The findings revealed varying opinions among teachers across different proficiency courses, suggesting that the CEFR standards aimed at university students were not consistently met.

Uri (2023) highlighted a challenge faced by teachers in Malaysia regarding the adoption of CEFR. Even after attending training courses on CEFR, some teachers remained unclear and uncertain about implementing the CEFR, indicating a lack of understanding of the framework. Similar results were obtained by Nawai and Said (2020) who studied primary school teachers' attitudes toward the CEFR and Uri and Abd Aziz (2018). Both studies found that teachers had problems comprehending the purpose of using the CEFR and were reluctant to incorporate it into their classrooms.

Sidhu et al. (2018) indicated that although teachers generally had positive evaluations of school-based assessments, they lacked a full understanding of the

methodology and had only a basic grasp of the updated CEFR-aligned ESL curriculum. Teachers provided minimal constructive feedback on assignments, and students were not encouraged to reflect on their work. Essential elements like peer and self-assessment, which foster independent learning, were inconsistently applied.

Collectively, these results revealed the limited awareness among teachers regarding the CEFR in Malaysia. This lack of awareness is likely to impact students' understanding of their CEFR scores.

Facilitating Language Learning Through Discussions

Speaking stands as the skill through which students are most frequently evaluated in real-life circumstances, emphasising its practical significance (Brown & Yule, 1983). Bueno et al. (2006) emphasise that speaking is often perceived as one of the most intricate language skills for learners to cultivate, even after years of language learning.

Speaking holds the utmost importance among the four language skills, enabling students to convey emotions, ideas, and knowledge while gaining insights into the perspectives of others. Genç (as cited in Darancik, 2018) associates speaking prowess with communication competence, cultural awareness, and the acquisition of crucial language abilities. It empowers students to communicate effectively, share ideas, and comprehend the world more profoundly.

Research by Darancik (2018) accentuates the critical role of speaking skills in language acquisition. The results reveal that 57.52% of students perceive speaking as the most formidable skill, underscoring the necessity for heightened focus on speaking instruction. Nonetheless, students view speaking as an enduring and impactful skill for attaining proficiency in a foreign language, with 71.5% prioritising its enhancement to augment their overall language aptitude. This finding suggests the importance of prioritising speaking in instruction, as student motivation plays a significant role in successful learning.

Additionally, according to McNaughton (2020), in-depth classroom discussions involving specialised terminology play a substantial role in deepening comprehension and fostering reading skills. Research indicates that extensive discussions aid in better language comprehension, surpassing mere word decoding (García & Cain, 2014, as cited in Hjetland et al., 2017). Proficiency in oral language and the ability to make inferences contribute to heightened reading comprehension (Oakhill & Cain, 2012, as cited in Hjetland et al., 2017). Consequently, the evolving pedagogical approach emphasises intricate discussions to derive meaningful understanding and expedite progress in reading comprehension (McNaughton & Lai, 2012).

Despite the challenges it presents to learners, speaking remains a critical component for effective communication. To assist learners in progressing, it is essential to examine how structured frameworks, such as the CEFR can support the development and assessment of speaking skills.

Perceived Effectiveness of CEFR in Speaking Assessments

Previous research predominantly examined teachers' utilisation of CEFR in language

learning, emphasising their comprehension and proficiency in application. However, it is equally crucial to explore the student perspective on CEFR.

Students should be able to understand their language performance in the CEFR context because the framework categorises language skills, and self-assessment through “can do” statements. Glover (2011) examined the response of university students in Turkey to the Common Reference Levels (CRLs) within the CEFR for self-assessment of speaking skills. A notable finding from the study indicated that students, when well-informed about the CEFR descriptors, experience enhanced proficiency and confidence in speaking. Simultaneously, this knowledge allows students to self-assess their language abilities, thereby improving and making their speaking skills more relevant. With assistance from teachers, students develop self-awareness, enabling them to identify areas for improvement and customise their language learning strategies. As a result, they can articulate their ideas more effectively.

Apart from that, understanding the importance and usefulness of CEFR in speaking tests is crucial for students. It provides a standardised framework for language proficiency, including speaking skills. Students who are familiar with the CEFR can better understand the expectations for different proficiency levels, enabling them to prepare more effectively for speaking tests. Faez et al.'s (2011) study demonstrated that students who were well-informed about the framework in classroom instructions experienced increased motivation, enhanced self-confidence in their learning, and were more inclined to actively use the language.

Methods

Utilising a descriptive quantitative approach, this study analysed data gathered from both UiTM Sarawak and UiTM Melaka to evaluate ESL students' awareness and perceived usefulness of CEFR-aligned descriptors in group discussions. The choice of this research design allowed for a systematic assessment of students' awareness and perceived usefulness, employing objective measurement through numerical data collection. This approach facilitated statistical analysis, enabling the identification of patterns and trends (Black, 1999). Moreover, by surveying a representative sample across multiple campuses, the study ensured generalisability and enabled systematic examination of variations in responses (Black, 1999; Nardi, 2018).

This study included 105 diploma students who participated in an August 2023 webinar discussing the application of CEFR in the Speaking Test for the ELC151 course. The participants were from UiTM Sarawak, specifically from three campuses: UiTM Samarahan, UiTM Samarahan 2, and UiTM Mukah, along with students from UiTM Melaka, Alor Gajah campus. This diverse group represented a cross-section of students. The respondents were primarily first-year second-semester students from various faculties, exhibiting a mix of proficiency levels mainly consisting of CEFR B1, with a minority at CEFR A2 and B2 levels.

ELC151 Integrated Language Skill II is a mandatory language remedial course for first-year second-semester diploma students at UiTM, and focuses on general English. It is a prerequisite course available to those who have passed ELC121 at the B1 CEFR level. The course enhances intensive reading skills and strategies. The course also integrates speaking and listening skills so that it better equips students for

effective communication in both social and academic contexts. ELC151 aims to elevate students from CEFR B2 (low) to CEFR B2 (high) through diverse materials and situations.

At UiTM, the CEFR serves as a standardised framework for evaluating and improving students' language proficiency. This framework is predominantly utilised in language courses to elevate students' proficiency within the specified band. Throughout the course, students advance based on their CEFR levels, with targeted learning objectives and assessments aligned with each proficiency stage.

Instruments

Researchers designed and employed a 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire to gauge students' awareness and perception of the CEFR in speaking test discussions. The questionnaire encompassed three sections: Section 1 for student profiling, Section 2 for CEFR awareness, and Section 3 for CEFR usefulness with Likert-scale ratings ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), enabling valuable insights into students' responses and perceptions regarding CEFR.

Prior to its use in the webinar for data collection, the questionnaire underwent a crucial pilot study on the campuses. Consequently, adjustments were made to the questionnaires based on the findings from the pilot study, incorporating relevant items to enhance their overall validity and reliability. For instance, two question items were excluded from the actual questionnaire: "Do you think incorporating the CEFR in language instruction improves the accuracy of language assessment?" and "Do you feel that using the CEFR helps to set clear language learning goals?" These questions were excluded because their focus differed from the main objective of measuring students' awareness of the CEFR framework. They required a deeper understanding of CEFR and its impact on language instruction, which might be beyond the scope of the students' experiences.

The Awareness section included five questions focused on evaluating students' knowledge about CEFR. These questions gauged familiarity with CEFR, experience with CEFR-based speaking tests, knowledge of CEFR descriptors, belief in CEFR's efficacy for language instruction, and perception of CEFR's role in setting language learning goals.

The Usefulness section comprised four questions aimed at evaluating students' perceptions of CEFR's practicality in speaking test discussions. These questions assessed the clarity and helpfulness of CEFR descriptors in identifying strengths and weaknesses, fairness and unbiased nature of CEFR-aligned speaking tests, feedback received based on CEFR descriptors, and potential impact of CEFR-aligned speaking tests on language proficiency. Examining perceptions of Usefulness offers valuable insights into students' views on the relevance and benefit of CEFR alignment in speaking assessments.

In this research, data were collected from 105 diploma students who participated in an August 2023 webinar discussing the application of the CEFR in the Speaking Test for the ELC151 course at UiTM. Informed consent was obtained during the webinar and through Google Form before the data collection.

Results and Discussions

This section presents results on respondents' awareness and perceived usefulness of CEFR in speaking test discussions based on data collected from an online 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire completed by 105 diploma students from UiTM Sarawak and UiTM Alor Gajah.

Extent of Awareness Among ESL Students Regarding CEFR-Aligned Speaking Tests in the Context of Group Discussions

Table 1

Respondents' Level of Agreement Towards CEFR

Item 1	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	4	3.8 %
2. Disagree	7	6.7 %
3. Neutral	41	39.0 %
4. Agree	36	34.3 %
5. Strongly agree	17	16.2 %

Table 1 shows that 3.8% expressed strong disagreement, 6.7% disagreed, 39.0% remained neutral, 34.3% agreed, and 16.2% strongly agreed with being informed about CEFR. These results suggest a moderate level of awareness and acquaintance with CEFR among the respondents. However, the notable percentage of neutral responses indicates a lack of firm viewpoints or uncertainty regarding their understanding of CEFR. This could be attributed to insufficient training, limited knowledge, and time constraints faced by educators in comprehending the CEFR framework. Students' lack of comprehension may pose challenges in integrating CEFR into the teaching and learning process, not only in Malaysia but also in other developed countries like Australia and Hong Kong.

The respondents were queried about their prior experiences in taking a speaking test aligned with CEFR standards. Table 2 shows that 1.9% strongly disagreed, 6.7% disagreed, 35.2% maintained a neutral stance, 38.1% agreed, and 18.1% strongly agreed. These results indicate a large portion of respondents were familiar with speaking tests conforming to CEFR standards. However, the neutral responses suggest a degree of uncertainty or a lack of a definitive understanding of the specific nature of these assessments. The results provide empirical evidence to show the lack of awareness regarding the integration of CEFR standards in their speaking tests (Asdar, 2017; Darmi et al., 2017).

Table 2*Respondents' Awareness of Speaking Test Based on CEFR Standard*

Item 2	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	2	1.9 %
2. Disagree	7	6.7 %
3. Neutral	37	35.2 %
4. Agree	40	38.1 %
5. Strongly agree	19	18.1 %

Regarding awareness of CEFR descriptors for speaking skills, respondents were asked about their familiarity with the descriptors for various CEFR levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2). The results in Table 3 show that 1.0% strongly disagreed, 3.8% disagreed, 27.6% were neutral, 44.8% agreed, and 22.9% strongly agreed, as depicted in Table 3. These findings suggest a notable portion of respondents possess some understanding of the CEFR descriptors related to speaking skills. However, the substantial percentage of neutral responses indicates potential for enhancing respondents' comprehension and acquaintance with these descriptors. Although most respondents in this study affirmed their awareness of the existence of CEFR level descriptors, scholars have highlighted the lack of clear reference in CEFR rating scales, potentially causing difficulty and confusion for learners and educators (Idris & Raof, 2017). Conversely, certain studies critique the formulation and validation of the CEFR descriptors, particularly regarding their utilisation in language assessments. Criticisms encompass the abstract and overlapping wording used in the descriptors, along with potential theoretical gaps (Alderson, 2007).

Table 3*Respondents' Level of Agreement on the Descriptors of the CEFR Levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2) for Speaking Skills*

Item 3	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	1	1.0 %
2. Disagree	4	3.8 %
3. Neutral	29	27.6 %
4. Agree	47	44.8 %
5. Strongly agree	24	22.9 %

The study also investigated how participants perceived the impact of integrating CEFR into language instruction on the accuracy of language evaluation. Specifically, respondents were asked if they believed integrating CEFR led to improved language assessment accuracy. The results indicated that 23.8% strongly opposed this

notion, 16.2% disagreed, 18.1% were neutral, 30.5% agreed, and 11.4% strongly agreed (see Table 4). These outcomes indicate a diversity of perspectives among respondents, with a notable proportion expressing disagreement or uncertainty about the impact of CEFR on language assessment accuracy. This variance in opinions could stem from the adaptability that CEFR provides to language educators and researchers. Research from 2011 in Japan underpins this point, highlighting the way in which CEFR's global nature allows for customisation according to specific educational contexts.

Table 4

Respondents' Level of Agreement of Incorporating CEFR in Language Instruction in Improving the Accuracy of Language Assessment

Item 4	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	25	23.8 %
2. Disagree	17	16.2 %
3. Neutral	19	18.1 %
4. Agree	32	30.5 %
5. Strongly agree	12	11.4 %

In addition, respondents were asked if using CEFR helped them set clear language learning goals. The results in Table 5 showed that 21.0% strongly disagreed, 19.0% disagreed, 17.1% were neutral, 28.6% agreed, and 14.3% strongly agreed. This indicates that while many respondents see the value of CEFR in setting clear language learning goals, quite a few have doubts about its effectiveness in this aspect.

Table 5

Respondents' Level of Agreement of Using CEFR to Set Clear Language Learning Goals

Item 5	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	22	21.0 %
2. Disagree	20	19.0 %
3. Neutral	18	17.1 %
4. Agree	30	28.6 %
5. Strongly agree	15	14.3 %

These findings align with the perceptions of teachers regarding the effectiveness of CEFR implementation, as discussed in the study by Uri and Abd Aziz (2020). According to their findings, in the context of English education in Malaysia, it is found that when CEFR was introduced, secondary school teachers did not understand its effectiveness. However, with time, they improved and could suggest appropriate CEFR levels for reading and writing (Uri & Abd Aziz, 2020). It is important

to consider teachers' opinions as they can reveal reasons for possible resistance or support for CEFR among teachers. This helps us in better grasping the significant effects of CEFR in classrooms.

Understanding the initial challenges that teachers faced with CEFR in English education in Malaysia highlights the learning curve in adopting such framework. It is important to consider students' perspectives on CEFR, as their understanding and acceptance play a crucial role in enhancing English proficiency. By considering both teachers' and students' viewpoints, educational approaches can be tailored to improve language learning, ensuring effective implementation and benefits for all involved in the educational process.

Usefulness of CEFR-Aligned Speaking Tests in Group Discussion as Perceived by ESL Students

Respondents were inquired about the clarity and usefulness of CEFR descriptors in identifying their strengths and weaknesses in speaking abilities. The data in Table 6 demonstrates that 4.8% had reservations, 25.7% held a neutral stance, 45.7% agreed, and 23.8% strongly agreed that CEFR descriptors are clear and beneficial for pinpointing strengths and weaknesses in speaking skills. These results imply that a notable majority of respondents find CEFR descriptors valuable in evaluating and understanding their speaking skills. This is corroborated by Cinganotto's study (2019), which highlighted that CEFR descriptors are easily referenced, clear, and advantageous for students assessing their communication skills. Utilising CEFR descriptors is advocated in language classes as it allows students to determine their proficiency levels, identifying both strengths and weaknesses. While the descriptors are clear, there is a suggestion to augment them with additional specific examples to assist students struggling with language, particularly in speaking skills (Cinganotto, 2019).

Table 6

Respondents' Level of Agreement on CEFR Descriptors Clarity and Usefulness in Identifying Strengths and Weaknesses in Speaking Skills (e.g., Fluency, Pronunciation, Vocabulary)

Item 6	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
2. Disagree	5	4.8 %
3. Neutral	27	25.7 %
4. Agree	48	45.7 %
5. Strongly agree	25	23.8 %

Respondents were asked about their perception regarding the fairness of

these tests, irrespective of the test-taker's background or native language. Table 7 revealed that 1.9% disagreed, 25.7% were neutral, 47.6% agreed, and 24.8% strongly agreed. These results suggest that most respondents view CEFR-aligned speaking tests as just and impartial, underscoring their objectivity in assessing language skills without favouring specific linguistic or cultural backgrounds. Additionally, CEFR primarily focuses on logical coherence. Some research has noted that CEFR places the least emphasis on language accuracy as a criterion for evaluation. It also encourages educators to emphasise students' strengths rather than solely highlighting grammatical errors (Zheng et al., 2016). This approach promotes fairness and impartiality during speaking tests by encouraging students to freely express themselves using diverse methods.

Table 7

Respondents' Level of Agreement for the CEFR-aligned Speaking Test is Fair and Unbiased

Item 7	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
2. Disagree	2	1.9 %
3. Neutral	27	25.7 %
4. Agree	50	47.6 %
5. Strongly agree	26	24.8 %

Furthermore, Table 8 presents the perspectives of respondents regarding the effectiveness of feedback provided using CEFR descriptors to enhance their speaking abilities. They were asked if the feedback aligned with CEFR descriptors contributed to their speaking skills improvement. The data displays that 1.9% held a negative opinion, 25.7% maintained a neutral viewpoint, 47.6% agreed, and 24.8% strongly agreed. These results indicate that a significant portion of respondents find feedback based on CEFR descriptors valuable in supporting their advancement in speaking skills. Students can progress from one proficiency level to another with the aid of feedback derived from CEFR descriptors (Sugg, 2019). This feedback proves to be motivational over time, boosting students' confidence levels, as learners benefit more from continuous feedback than constant teaching. Moreover, there is evidence suggesting that such feedback fosters autonomous learning among the students themselves (Sugg, 2019).

Table 8

Respondents' Belief Regarding the Helpfulness of Feedback Based on CEFR Descriptors in Improving Their Speaking Skills

Item 8	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	0	0.0%
2. Disagree	2	1.9 %
3. Neutral	27	25.7 %
4. Agree	50	47.6 %
5. Strongly agree	26	24.8 %

In addition, the respondents were asked about their perception whether CEFR-aligned speaking tests hindered their progress in achieving higher language proficiency. The data in Table 9 illustrate that 2.9% strongly held a negative view, 5.7% disagreed, 25.7% remained neutral, 51.4% agreed, and 14.3% strongly concurred that CEFR-aligned speaking tests impede the attainment of improved language proficiency. These results indicate that a notable portion of respondents see CEFR-aligned speaking tests as potential obstacles in their efforts to enhance their language skills. Additionally, it indicates that a valuable aspect of the CEFR framework lies in its facilitation of easier communication about language competencies and proficiencies, thus, enabling a standardised assessment of students' language skills on an international scale. Consequently, students can ultimately attain higher language proficiency (Baharum et al., 2021).

Table 9

Respondents' Level of Agreement on the CEFR-aligned Speaking Tests as a Barrier to Achieve Better Language Proficiency

Item 9	Counts	% of Total
1. Strongly disagree	3	2.9 %
2. Disagree	6	5.7 %
3. Neutral	27	25.7 %
4. Agree	54	51.4 %
5. Strongly agree	15	14.3 %

Conclusion

This study shed light on diploma level students' perspectives regarding the usefulness of the CEFR in speaking test discussions within the context of UiTM's English language courses. The positive perceptions revealed in the data patterns emphasise that students generally find CEFR descriptors clear. The clarity and helpfulness of CEFR descriptors in identifying strengths and weaknesses, along with the perceived fairness and value of CEFR-aligned speaking tests for skill improvement, were highlighted. The study reveals that students are a moderate level of familiarity and understanding. However, the majority of the students also regarded CEFR as a barrier in their efforts

to improve their proficiency. These findings highlight the need to address apprehensions and ensure that CEFR-aligned speaking tests support learners' language proficiency development without hindering progress.

The study's findings highlight the learning curve associated with embracing such framework and emphasise the importance of considering students' perspectives on CEFR. It is worth noting that students' viewpoints on CEFR-aligned speaking test are crucial but often seem underrepresented in existing literature.

By delving into the viewpoints of diploma students, this research endeavours to provide invaluable insights into the integration and utilisation of the CEFR framework, thereby contributing to the ongoing discourse on language proficiency assessment and curriculum development. The implications of this study extend to educational institutions, language educators, and curriculum developers, equipping them with discerning insights to optimise language learning outcomes for diploma students.

Despite the positive findings, the study has limitations. Future research could benefit from a more nuanced exploration of the factors influencing students' perceptions, potentially through qualitative methods such as qualitative interviews or focus groups to capture a richer array of perspectives.

Future research could examine the factors influencing students' comprehension and acceptance of CEFR, aiming to uncover the nuances behind varying opinions. Exploring the experiences of students facing challenges in more depth could provide valuable insights into tailoring support mechanisms. Moreover, investigating the impact of enhanced teacher-student dialogues, training programmes, and clarifications on students' confidence in applying CEFR during speaking test discussions could be a fruitful avenue for future studies. Overall, further research can contribute to refining the integration of CEFR into language instruction and optimising its benefits for language learning and assessment.

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FACE AND POLITENESS IN JAVANESE MULTILINGUAL INTERACTION

Emi NURSANTI^{1,2}

Sailal ARIMI*²

Nurvita WIJAYANTI^{3,2}

¹Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Indonesia

²Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia

³Universitas Bangka Belitung, Indonesia

emi_nursanti@uny.ac.id

sailal_arimi@ugm.ac.id

nurvita@ubb.ac.id

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

Javanese culture is unique since its orientation is to group togetherness, but the language displays the social distance between the conversers. Using a sociolinguistic perspective, this study investigated how Javanese people manage their concerns about self-other and positive-negative face. Linguistic data from a Javanese culture webinar held by Yogyakarta Palace were analysed using the explanatory sequential mixed-method design. The results show that from the most frequent to the least frequent, Javanese people are concerned about enhancing other-positive face (44.34%), other-negative face (39.15%), self-negative face (11.32%), and self-positive face (5.19%). Complimenting, greeting, showing sympathy, and expressing gratitude are their ways to show their concern for the other-positive face. Meanwhile, employing indirect requests and honorifics in Javanese *Krama* are strategies to enhance the other-negative face. People's tendency to please others, show respect, and avoid conflict is the underlying reason for their great concern for others' positive and negative faces. Their reluctance to enhance their self-face is due to their inclination to shame and guilt. Such face management is highly influenced by the cultural norms and values upheld by society. In a forum delivered in Bahasa Indonesia, their strong Javanese identity is represented by the insertion of Javanese honorifics showing deference.

Keywords: face; facework; Javanese; multilingualism; politeness

Introduction

Being widely applied in politeness research, the concept of positive and negative politeness proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) (henceforth B&L) is criticised for being Western-biased and not applicable in collectivist non-Western cultures (Byon, 2006; Gu, 1990; Ide, 1989, 1993; Mao, 1994; Matsumoto, 1989). Those studies claim that negative face, a person's wants to be free from imposition, does not exist in Asian cultures whose people are concerned more with group togetherness and oriented to social norm adherence. They also assert that a speaker's performance is greatly influenced by culture, so a culture-specific perspective is needed to understand linguistic politeness. Therefore, investigating face needs and facework preferences in one culture is useful to see how facework operates in a specific culture. While previous studies that prove the inexistence of B&L's negative politeness were conducted in Japan (Ide, 1989, 1993), China (Gu, 1990; Mao, 1994; Yu, 2003), and Korea (Byon, 2006), no studies have investigated how facework operates among the Javanese, the largest ethnic group in both Indonesia and Southeast Asia.

Javanese is a culture with high-power distance and strong collectivism (Gupta & Sukanto, 2020). The power distance is reflected in the two speech levels, *Krama* and *Ngoko*, to indicate respect and intimacy between interactants. Using *Krama*, either *Krama Lugu* or *Krama Alus*, is the most obvious way to demonstrate polite behaviour since politeness in this culture entails showing the appropriate amount of respect to people of high status and using the proper degree of formality to those of older generation and ones we do not get along with personally (Poedjosoedarmo, 1968). Unfortunately, studies show that the Javanese people, especially the young generation, are incompetent and reluctant to use Javanese *Krama* (Andriyanti, 2019; Subroto et al., 2008; Zentz, 2015). They use the national language or Bahasa Indonesia (henceforth BI) more because Javanese is less modern, feudal, and rigid (Smith-Hefner, 2009). As not many people speak the language, many from the younger generation are too unfamiliar to use *Krama* (Nursanti & Andriyanti, 2021).

Despite the lessened vitality of the Javanese, Yogyakarta Palace, together with Surakarta Palace, has been committed to conserving Javanese culture, including the language (Pemerintah Daerah Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta, 2021). Therefore, the language used there might be the standard of the Javanese language in Yogyakarta. Some public cultural events held by the palace are delivered in Javanese. However, to promote Javanese culture to more people, especially those not from Java, the palace also holds cultural events in non-Javanese languages. Hence, investigating how people in the palace, who strongly uphold Javanese cultural values, apply politeness norms in multilingual interaction is important to shed light on how they compensate the different politeness norms among Javanese, BI as the national language, and some other foreign languages.

Studies on Javanese linguistic politeness are numerous. From a micro-linguistic perspective, Krauß (2018) and Atmawati (2021) showed that politeness, honorific, and deferential systems are embedded in the Javanese vocabularies. Meanwhile, studies on politeness in various speech events reveal that by

considering the context of situation, Javanese speakers actively adjust their words and expressions to convey politeness to show respect or intimacy, such as refusal strategies used by Javanese learners of English (Wijayanto, 2013), politeness strategies in Javanese political discourse (Santoso, 2015), strategies and levels of politeness in tourism-service language (Purnomo, 2016), and Javanese speech levels in transactional communication (Sumekto et al., 2022). Studies that compared the politeness of Javanese and other languages, such as Tiarawati and Wulandari (2015), Kuntarto (2018), Sugianto (2021), and Nurjaleka et al. (2022), strengthen the argument that politeness is culturally distinctive, even between languages with similar politeness systems. The uniqueness of the Javanese politeness system is strongly influenced by its cultural wisdom, as shown in the studies conducted by Nadar (2007) and Sukarno (2010).

Since Yogyakarta palace is regarded as a center of Javanese culture with good maintenance of old traditions, the language used by its members also drew scholars' attention, such as Mukminatun et al. (2007), Sulistyowati (2008), Hidayani and Macaryus (2019), as well as Retnaningtyas et al. (2019). Those studies found that some factors, such as social status and age, influence the choice of address terms in the palace and they are sometimes shifted to show more respect to the interlocutor. Besides, Javanese *Krama*, the speech level indicating politeness, was the dominating code choice there. Thus far, no studies have investigated Javanese politeness in a multilingual interaction, particularly how the speakers apply politeness strategies to fulfill face needs.

Specifically, this study investigated how Javanese people manage face needs in a formal multilingual interaction and how it relates to the sociocultural aspects of Javanese society. It employed face classification from Kim et al. (2012), which was a juxtaposition of B&L's (1987) face need content and Ting-Toomey's (2017) face need agent. They classify 'face' into four types: 1) self-positive face (SPF) denoting a speaker's concern for approval and appreciation of one's own self-image, 2) other-positive face (OPF) reflecting a speaker's concern for another person's image, 3) self-negative face (SNF) pointing the need to save one's own freedom, and 4) other-negative face (ONF) referring to the need to not impede others' freedom to act. Those four face needs can be recognized as the general characteristics of people whose needs and desires are demonstrated through linguistic signs (Kim et al., 2012).

Literature Review

Face in Javanese Context

Face was coined by Goffman to mean "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (1967, p. 213). It implies that face is what others see from us and an individual's face is performed through certain behaviours and will be assumed or interpreted by others through the performed behaviours. However, B&L define face differently as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (1978, p. 61). This suggests that face exists within individual, but it is not assumed by others. B&L then explicate two kinds of face needs: 1) positive face referring to an

individual's needs to be approved, appreciated, liked, and validated, and 2) negative face or the need to be free from imposition. Combining both views, Ting-Toomey (2015; 2017, p. 1) has a more comprehensive explanation by saying that face deals with "how we want others to see us and treat us and how we actually treat others in association with their social self-conception expectations".

Face is vulnerable as it can be maintained, enhanced, attacked, or teased, which might cause the feeling of blushing, pride, embarrassment, or shame (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Those causing enhanced social self-worth are called face-saving acts, while the behaviours causing the stroked self-worth are known as face-threatening acts. In everyday interactions, people continuously make choices concerning their self-face and other's face. The verbal and nonverbal behaviours that individuals do to protect or save one's own, another person's, mutual, or collective faces in a sociocultural context is called "facework" (Ting-Toomey, 2017).

Politeness in Javanese culture is closely related to the metaphors of 'mouth' and "face" (Rahardi, 2013). A Javanese proverb *ajining dhiri gumantung ing lathi* (a person's self-esteem depends on his mouth) shows that the way we speak determines our image in front of others. Thus, language plays a crucial role in defining someone's self-image and the speech levels is the manifestation of the language norm. The metaphor of face (Javanese: *rai*) also represents someone's self-esteem. Some expressions using this metaphor are "*ora duwe rai*" (has no face), which means feeling extremely embarrassed, "*rai gedheg*" (wall face) indicating someone who has no shame, and "*nampek rai*" (slap on the face) showing actions causing shame. Geertz (1961) and Magnis-Suseno (1984) say that the feeling of *isin* (shame) is one of the strongest motivations for the Javanese to adapt their behaviour to societal norms. They are concerned about what other people might think when they show improper behaviour. Therefore, Javanese people construct a strict formal etiquette, called *tata krama*, to secure and protect them against the shame feeling.

East/West Divide of Politeness

Brown and Levinson's (1978) theory has been the most influential and widely used when researching linguistic politeness. Unfortunately, although they attempted to formulate a politeness definition aimed to cover universal instances of politeness, due to its limited applicability in non-Western cultures, it has also given rise to opposing arguments for not really being as universally applicable as claimed (Redmond, 2015). Several East Asian linguists have been critical of B&L's concept. Those criticising from the Japanese point of view are Ide (1989, 1993) and Matsumoto (1989). Ide (1989) argues that in contrast to Western society, where individualism is valued, East Asian cultures place great weight on group membership. Therefore, in East Asian countries, being polite primarily involves adhering to social standards or *wakimae*, rather than using volitional strategies. Meanwhile, Matsumoto (1989) claims that the negative face does not exist in Japanese culture because the Japanese self is interconnected rather than independent. Chinese linguists who made similar arguments relevant to Chinese culture are Gu (1990), Mao (1994), and Yu (2003) while that of Korean is Byon

(2006). Generally, they claim that culture plays an important role in shaping speakers' performance, so linguistic politeness should be understood from a culture-specific perspective.

Regarding those different views, Leech (2007) and Chen (2010) are scholars standing in the middle position. Leech (2007) claims that there are no absolute boundaries between East and West politeness since the concept of "collective, group culture" (East) and "individualist, egalitarian culture" (West) are not absolute but they are positioned on a scale. Polite interaction in all cultures implies that the speaker considers both individual and group norms and values. However, in a particular culture, one of the values is more powerful. Similarly, Cook (2022) asserts that the two types of politeness are used universally but they are manifested in a complex way in different social settings resulting in a cultural variance of politeness. Therefore, the debate on East-West politeness should be viewed as a trend in humanities research that welcomes multiculturalism that plays an important role in promoting cross-cultural understanding (Chen, 2010).

Javanese Politeness

The way Javanese people use their language sums up and symbolises the entire etiquette system in the culture (Geertz, 1960). While Japanese has *wakimae*, "the speaker's use of polite expressions according to social conventions rather than interactional strategies" (Ide, 1989, p. 223), as the social norm, the same concept applied in Javanese culture is called *unggah-ungguh*. Semantically it comes from two roots *unggah* (to go up) and *ungguh* (to sit). The former indicates the people's tendency to respect others based on their higher status, while the latter implies positioning oneself appropriately. Javanese etiquette demands everyone fulfill the obligation of status and position. Thus, *unggah-ungguh* means a way of speaking and placing oneself that shows respect for others in accordance with their status and position (Magnis-Suseno, 1984).

An element attached to every social situation in Java is respect, *urmat*, or *aji* (Geertz, 1961). Deciding the degree of respect someone should show is the first thought of a Javanese when meeting a new person. By applying the "respect" concept, the two people involved in an interaction will know each position toward one another, allowing further interaction to happen in a controlled and orderly manner. Respect can be shown in some ways: by posture, gesture and voice tone, address terms, and, above all, by speech levels. The speech levels in Javanese are based on the principle to whom and about whom one talks. *Krama* (high) and *ngoko* (low) are the two main levels available to express the status and/or familiarity of communication participants. Status is defined by factors, such as wealth, descent, education, occupation, age, kinship, and nationality, but the conversers' familiarity plays a more important role in determining the choice of linguistic forms (Geertz, 1960).

Studies show that several Javanese local wisdoms become the underlying concepts in applying politeness. *Tata krama* (good conduct or etiquette) is one of three well-rooted concepts in Javanese culture that influence people's behaviours; the other two are *andhap-asor* (depreciating oneself while exalting the others) and

tanggap ing sasmita (the ability to read the hidden meaning) (Sukarno, 2010). Wijayanto (2013) adds the concept of *ngemong rasa* (controlling one's own want to preserve other's feeling), which is usually done by using appropriate words to avoid upsetting others. Those cultural concepts indicate that being considerate of others' feelings is the main politeness strategy of the Javanese people. The demand to avoid conflict and always show the right attitude of respect is highly essential in Javanese social relations as a way to maintain social harmony (Magnis-Suseno, 1984).

Method

This study used mixed methods since combining elements of qualitative and quantitative approaches would be able to obtain comprehensive as well as in-depth justification and evidence. It employed an explanatory sequential mixed methods design by collecting and analyzing quantitative and then qualitative data in two successive phases in one study (Ivankova et al., 2006).

The data in this study were utterances delivered by Javanese people in a Javanese culture webinar. They consist of a moderator, two speakers, and some participants. Since the participants came from different parts of Indonesia and a few of them are from foreign countries, the utterances regarded as data are only those uttered by Javanese participants. It is known from their statement when the moderator asked about their identity. The data were collected by selecting the webinar video recording uploaded to Kraton Jogja's YouTube channel. Among a series of "International Webinar & Workshop on Javanese Culture" held by Yogyakarta Palace in July-August 2021, a webinar entitled "The Art of Banana Leaves Creation" was chosen since this one is considered the most interactive one. By choosing an interactive form of communication, the results are able to represent the actual everyday conversation. We applied blended mode to transcribe the recording by utilising Live Transcribe application and subsequently, manually correcting the errors.

For collecting and analysing the data, a datasheet was provided. It consists of four columns demonstrating face needs: SPF, OPF, SNF, and ONF. Considering that culture greatly influences individuals' face needs in general and the strategies they employ to manage these face needs (Kim et al., 2012), analysing the tendency of face need orientation would be plausible to see facework strategy in Javanese society. Therefore, identifying which utterances demonstrate politeness and which face need is oriented by a speaker in his/her utterance was the first step of data analysis. It was done by analysing linguistic features indicating positive value in the utterance, whether it is oriented to the speaker's or other's face and whether it is positive or negative face. Then, the occurrences of each face need were calculated resulting in statistical data showing which face need is more frequently and less frequently adhered. These quantitative data depict the general face management of Javanese people in multilingual interaction. Lastly, qualitative analysis was conducted by relating the quantitative data to the speakers' identities and the nature of the communication event. With a sociolinguistic perspective, the data were analysed by considering speech contexts and Javanese sociocultural aspects.

Results and Discussion

The webinar was delivered in BI, but the people involved are mostly Javanese living with a strong Javanese culture in Yogyakarta palace. Javanese and BI exhibit differences in how they see communication participants. Javanese places a strong emphasis on the differences in social status, indicated by its speech levels, while BI is considered inclusive and democratic. BI is considered more communicative, more flexible, and more egalitarian than Javanese (Smith-Hefner, 2009). However, they also share several similarities in terms of politeness norms. Both languages regard social harmony and respecting older people or those of higher social status as important. This leads to a need to retain cohesion in communication through face-saving actions that have been the communicative style of a collectivist culture like Indonesia (Gupta & Sukanto, 2020).

Looking at the positive and negative face proposed by B&L where negative face is when interaction participants expect social distance and freedom from imposition while positive face is when a speaker helps himself or others to gain acceptance and respect from others, Javanese and BI can be regarded as languages oriented to negative politeness (Nurjaleka et. al., 2022) but, as seen from its hierarchical speech levels, Javanese has a stronger orientation than BI. However, Table 1 shows a dissimilar result since OPF becomes the most dominant face-need addressed in the study although the number is not significantly different from ONF.

Table 1
Face-need Concern in a Javanese Multilingual Interaction

No.	Face needs	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Self-positive face (SPF)	11	5.19
2.	Other-positive face (OPF)	94	44.34
3.	Self-negative face (SNF)	24	11.32
4.	Other-negative face (ONF)	83	39.15
Total		212	100.00

Calculated from the occurrences of each face need, the statistical data in Table 1 portray the face need orientation of the people involved in the webinar. The frequent occurrences of OPF and ONF indicate that other's face becomes the main concern of Javanese people in their interactions. More than 75% of the politeness strategies they applied are directed toward other's face. The high concern of OPF implies that speakers find it essential to focus on the others' image since supporting another person's face can help foster a relationship (Redmond, 2015). In their adherence to the other's face, enhancing positive face was preferable than boosting the negative one. This suggests that in a forum where many people from different cultural backgrounds are gathered, making others feel appreciated and accepted is important.

Self-Positive Face (SPF)

SPF reflects concern for approval and appreciation of one's personal self-image. A speaker highly concerned with SPF usually communicates by pursuing compliments and approval from others to retain his/her positive image (Kim et al., 2012). In the forum under study, utterances indicating SPF concern were delivered by the moderator and some participants.

- 1) *Senang sekali pada pagi hari ini, saya bisa menemani peserta semua yang hadir pada workshop pagi hari ini dalam acara yang luar biasa, karena ini merupakan hal yang baru bagi Keraton Yogyakarta karena sebelum-sebelumnya, sebelum pandemi tepatnya, Keraton Ngayogyakarta mengadakan workshop ... secara langsung. Tetapi ... dalam keadaan pandemi ini, maka Keraton Yogyakarta Hadiningrat menghadirkan workshop dengan cara daring atau online seperti saat ini.*

[I am very happy this morning since I can accompany all the participants attending this morning's workshop in this extraordinary event because this is something new for Yogyakarta Palace as previously, before the pandemic, Yogyakarta Palace held workshops ... offline. But ... in this pandemic situation, Yogyakarta Hadiningrat Palace is presenting workshops in a daring way like online right now.]

Excerpt 1 was spoken by the moderator at the beginning of the meeting. As the one in charge of organising the event, she felt it was necessary to show her eagerness to be the moderator of the webinar. Besides enhancing her SPF, she also built a positive image of the event by stating that the webinar was special since this was the first time an online webinar was held by Yogyakarta palace.

Not only to build a positive image of herself or the event she hosted, but the moderator also adhered to SPF to enhance the positive image of her group members.

- 2) As informed earlier, all speakers and I are courtiers or retainers at the Palace of Yogyakarta.

Spoken in English to facilitate participants who do not understand Javanese or BI, excerpt 2 was uttered by the moderator to boost the positive image of herself and the webinar speakers because to be seen as competent is also one's positive face need. By stating that the moderator and the speakers of the webinar are courtiers or retainers at Yogyakarta palace, the audience would believe in their competence in hosting the webinar since the topic presented has been part of their daily life. Excerpts 1 and 2 show that the SPF enhancement done by the moderator was not meant to boost her own personal positive image but to create a good image of the webinar. They are related to her task in organising the event well. By enhancing the moderator's and the speakers' positive face, the participants would find the webinar worth joining.

Enhancing SPF was also performed by some participants. Aiming at displaying their competence, most of them mostly showed their concern about SPF when the moderator asked whether they managed to make the banana leaf crafts or not after the speakers explained the procedures.

- 3) *Sudah. Bahkan, mencoba yang lainnya juga tadi.*
[I did. I even tried making the other ones as well.]
- 4) *Nuwun sewu kalau saya kan sering bikin inthuk-inthuk ya ...*
[I'm sorry but I often make *inthuk-inthuk* (offerings in the form of a small rice-cone) ...]

Excerpt 3 was spoken to tell the moderator that besides making the same crafts as other participants, she also made some others. It implies that she did more than what other participants did. Excerpt 4 shows that the speaker could follow the workshop well because she has been familiar with making a craft from banana leaves. Both utterances indicate that the participants wanted to show that they were competent and good at doing the required task.

People with high SPF concerns think that it is important for them to look good in front of others and to maintain their positive image (Kim et al., 2012). However, the low number of utterances adhering to this strategy (5.19%) signifies that showing one's positive image in front of others is not the culture of Javanese people because being *andhap-asor* (humbling oneself politely) is one of its well-rooted principles (Geertz, 1960; Wijayanto, 2013). Therefore, some participants who managed to make the craft did not claim it due to their competence, but it was merely because of the guidance from the speakers.

- 5) *Yang sekarang tadi ngikutin... apa... Ibu Sabar, berhasil.*
[For this one, I followed ... what ... Ibu Sabar and I did it.]
- 6) *Ngelihat in cara tangannya Ibu Sabar. Nah, berhasil.*
[Looking at Ibu Sabar's hands. Then, I managed to make it.]

Excerpts 5 and 6 display the identity of Javanese people who are humble. It is a character built by the older generation of Indonesia, particularly Java. The principle of "*sepi ing pamrih*" or self-restraint and selflessness as a basic priority of Javanese ethics (Magnis-Suseno, 1984) is still maintained by most Javanese people. The principle of humility upheld by Javanese people makes the participants reluctant to show their SPF.

Other-Positive Face (OPF)

OPF refers to a speaker's concern for approval and appreciation of other's image. Those with a strong desire to protect OPF are averse to hurting other people's feelings (Kim et al., 2012). By giving or assigning some positive value to the interlocutor, some examples of speech events adhering to OPF are offering, invitation, compliment, and congratulation (Leech, 2014). In this study, OPF

becomes the most dominant face need enhanced by those involved in the webinar (44.34%).

- 7) *Oh ya memang Ibu ini dikenal sabar juga seperti tuturannya halus itu terlihat sabarnya ya Bu, njih.*
[Ah right. This lady is known to be patient, like her smooth speech. It shows her patience, right?]
- 8) *Gak apa-apa, tapi sudah tahu tekniknya ya Bu ya. Sudah berhasil membuat.*
[It's okay, but you've known the technique, Ma'am. You managed to make it.]
- 9) *Bagus, sudah bisa...*
[Good. You could do it.]
- 10) *Sugeng Enjang. Selamat pagi cantik.*
[Good morning (Javanese *Krama*). Good morning (BI), pretty.]

Excerpt 7 is a compliment given to one of the webinar speakers. Since her name is "*Sabar*", which means "patient" in Javanese and BI, the moderator stated that the name indicates the trait of the person. Meanwhile, excerpt 8 was addressed to one of the participants who felt disappointed because the craft she made was untidy. The moderator gave comforting words to boost the participant's positive image by stating that the important thing is she knows the technique and has managed to make it. Excerpt 9 is a compliment spoken by a webinar speaker addressed to a participant who had managed to make the craft. Excerpt 10 was uttered by a speaker as a reply to a greeting from the moderator. After the moderator greeted her in the Javanese and BI versions of good morning, the speaker replied in the same way by adding the word "*cantik*" (pretty) to refer to the moderator. In the Indonesian context, a compliment done by addressing someone as such is often done by the old generation to the younger one. Meanwhile, the greeting expressed by the moderator in both Javanese and BI is due to politeness consideration. As the interlocutor is a senior courtier, a greeting in Javanese would be more appropriate. However, the BI version should be added to facilitates the non-Javanese participants to understand the utterance.

Considering others' feelings can also be demonstrated through the sympathy maxim by giving high value to others' feelings (Leech, 2014). In the data, it was shown by inquiring about people's health in excerpt 11 or expressing gratitude in excerpt 12:

- 11) *Eyang sehat?* [Grandma, are you in a good health?]
- 12) *Oh nggih, matur nuwun, nggih Eyang nggih. Matur sembah nuwun nggih Eyang.* [Ah yes. Thank you, grandma.].

Saying "Thank you" after another person's favour indicates that we confirm the person's positive face, the desire to be seen as a kind individual (Redmond, 2015). In excerpt 12, the moderator expressed her thankfulness twice and both were in Javanese. However, those two excerpts demonstrate different meanings.

Matur nuwun conveys appreciation for other's favour neutrally while, *matur sembah nuwun* expresses deeper meaning and is commonly addressed to those with higher social status. The alternation from "*matur nuwun*" to "*matur sembah nuwun*" in excerpt 12 was due to politeness consideration.

Those concerned with OPF think it is important to help others maintain their positive image (Kim et al., 2012). The dominance of OPF in this study among the four types of face needs was due to the principle of *ngemong rasa* (controlling one's own want to preserve other's feeling) (Wijayanto, 2013). Displaying high concern for OPF by pleasing others through positive politeness acts such as complimenting, greeting, showing sympathy, and expressing gratitude is a way to maintain social harmony, which characterises life in a group-oriented culture.

Self-Negative Face (SNF)

SNF points to the need to protect the speaker's own freedom. People with a strong interest in protecting SNF are concerned about respecting their own boundaries and want others to stay out of their business (Kim et al., 2012). In this study, almost all utterances concerning SNF were made by the moderator. With the duty of organising the event well, the moderator felt it was her responsibility to impose several things on the audience to make the event run as planned.

- 13) *Maka untuk itu saya akan menyapa peserta-peserta yang hadir dari luar negeri, **perkenankan untuk saya menyapa ...***

[Therefore, I will greet the participants from abroad, **please allow me** to say hello ...]

- 14) Before we proceed to the main agenda this morning, **let me** announce ...

- 15) *Namun sebelumnya **saya mengingatkan nggih**, mengingatkan untuk peserta **apakah sudah siap propertinya?***

[But before that, **please allow me to remind**, I remind the participants... **are the properties ready?**]

Although she had the right to inform or to ask the participants to do something, the moderator did not express them in a forceful manner. Several hedges or softening devices were used to make the utterance less threatening. In excerpts 13 and 14, she said "*perkenankan saya*" (please allow me) and "let me" to ask for permission from the audience. In excerpt 15, she made an imperative statement less imposing by asking for permission "*saya mengingatkan nggih*" (please allow me to remind) and then continued it with an interrogative form.

Those examples explain that it is hard for Javanese people to boost their SNF because of the principle of *ewuh pekewuh*, which means uneasy, shame, or guilty feeling for doing or not doing something to others as it might offend or give an impression of being impolite or unpleasant. This principle highly influences the behaviour of Javanese people because they have strong solidarity and tend to avoid conflict. Thus, to balance her duty requiring her to impose several things on the

audience and the principle of *ewuh pekewuh* in her culture, the moderator employed hedging devices aimed at softening the imposition.

Other-Negative Face (ONF)

ONF refers to a speaker's need to not inhibit others' freedom to act. Those highly concerned with protecting ONF wtry not to obstruct other people's personal affairs and not to tell others how to behave (Kim et al., 2012). While positive politeness attempts to establish a relationship, negative politeness aims at softening the speech tone and maintaining a proper distance (Zhan, 1992).

To soften speech tone, indirectness is often employed. Aimed at minimising ONF threat, indirectness is a strategy to enhance ONF. It might be utilised if inhibiting others' negative face is inevitable. In this study, indirect message was mostly uttered by the moderator when she had to ask others to do something.

- 16) Every participant **is encouraged to** turn off their microphones ...
- 17) *Lalu apalagi Eyang yang **mungkin** bisa disampaikan, selain itu?*
[Then, besides that, what **might** you say, Grandma?]

While excerpt 16 was uttered to ask participants to turn off their microphones, excerpt 17 was expressed to ask a webinar speaker to go on explaining the material. In conveying those requests, the moderator did not use direct imperative but employed declarative and interrogative forms aiming at making the request less face-threatening. "*Mungkin*" (perhaps/maybe) was the most frequent hedging device she employed to ask others to do something. By avoiding imperative form and using "*mungkin*" to ask for something, it makes the imposition less powerful. Because *alus* people (those whose behaviours are regulated by the delicate intricacies of the complex court-derived etiquette) often do not like to say what is on their minds (Geertz, 1960), indirectness becomes one of the major politeness strategies in Javanese

Besides stating indirect message, ONF might be displayed by showing distance with the interlocutor and this has been facilitated by the Javanese speech levels. With BI as its main language, the webinar was delivered in mixed languages consisting of BI, Javanese, English, and Japanese. English was used at the beginning and closing of the webinar while Japanese was employed to say greetings and farewell to a participant from Japan. Javanese words and phrases were frequently used to mention cultural terms and display respect for the interlocutor. The latter function is a strategy for enhancing ONF.

- 18) *Tetap berjalan seperti Eyang Punto **ngendika njih?***
[It continues as Eyang Punto said, right?]
- 19) *Ini kami mau memaparkan atau **nyaosi pirs**a kegunaan dari daun pisang ...*
[Here we will explain (BI) or explain (Javanese Krama) the use of banana leaves ...]

20) *Itu pisang raja yang dipakai itu acara nyawisken sak inggilipun Ngarsa Dalem ...*

[The plantain is prepared in front of the King...]

The bold words in excerpts 18-20 are Javanese *Krama*. They were inserted into BI sentences since no words in BI can express the same meaning. Excerpt 18 was spoken by the moderator to one of the webinar speakers. Excerpt 19 was uttered by the moderator to the participants, and excerpt 20 was delivered by one of the speakers to refer to the King of Yogyakarta Palace. The words “*ngendika*” (said), “*nyaosi pirs*” (explain), and “*nyawisaken sak inggilipun ngarsa dalem*” (prepare in front of the King) showed that the speakers positioned themselves below others. In excerpts 18 and 19, Eyang Punto and all participants were positioned higher than the moderator. In excerpt 20, although the king was not present in the interaction, he was placed higher than the speaker. Yogyakarta people highly respect their king. For them, the king is the source of cosmic power in their area who brings peace, justice, and fertility (Magnis-Suseno, 1984). Excerpts 18-20 exemplify the principle of *urmat* (respect) that should be obeyed by Javanese people in every social situation. Although BI implies egalitarianism, Javanese people cannot easily leave their cultural principle in their BI interactions. Therefore, they kept using Javanese *Krama* for words showing deference since it is the only variety that can perfectly express deference upheld by Javanese people.

Javanese people are principally expected to keep social harmony by avoiding conflict and respecting the positions and statuses of all society members (Magnis-Suseno, 1984). This explains why ONF becomes the second most dominant face considered by the people involved in the webinar. The indirectness meant to make requests less threatening is a strategy of conflict avoidance while employing Javanese *Krama* is their way to show respect to other people. Those data show that in Javanese culture, it is practically impossible to communicate without indicating the status and familiarity of the conversers. Even when the communication is done in BI, status meaning should be included in the utterances, which finally leads to a mixed Javanese-BI sentence. Their strong Javanese identity makes the palace members tend to insert words in Javanese *Krama* to mark their polite utterances. Their employment of BI and English is for other purposes, such as to build solidarity or to mark the formality of the occasion.

Conclusion

Being in a collectivistic culture, Javanese people believe that conflict is dangerous and social harmony should be maintained. This explains the findings of their high preference to enhance other people’s face. The difference between positive and negative face concerns is not significant but both are oriented more toward other people than to the speakers themselves. As this tendency aligns with the cultural values upheld by society, these overall results show that face needs are fulfilled in accordance with cultural principles and expectations. This adds to what is known about facework and how they affect politeness norms in the Javanese cultural context as well as Asian collectivistic cultures. However, since face needs are

contextually bound, the findings of this study, which investigates face needs in an online Javanese-culture multilingual forum, might not be generalised into the common face concern of Javanese people. Larger-scale studies and ones from various contexts are needed to obtain a more detailed depiction of how Javanese people enact face needs in their daily interactions. Therefore, other researchers are encouraged to conduct similar studies in different kinds of interaction to provide a thorough explanation on the correlation between facework and politeness in Javanese society.

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HYPERCORRECTION AMONG NATIVE SPEAKERS OF BIDAYUH BIATAH WHEN SPEAKING ENGLISH

Leonardo GINYUN*

Florence Gilliam KAYAD

Universiti Malaysia Sarawak, Sarawak, Malaysia

22020034@siswa.unimas.my

kflorence@unimas.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

Hypercorrection has been described as a sociolinguistic phenomenon where linguistic overcompensation occurs from the over-application of a perceived rule of language usage prescription. This paper reports a study investigating hypercorrection among younger and older native speakers of Bidayuh Biatah when speaking English. The qualitative study data were collected from eight native speakers of Bidayuh Biatah: four younger participants aged 23 years old and four older participants aged 55 to 69 years old. Hypercorrection was analysed by categorising them into phonological, syntactical, and morphological hypercorrection within the environments in which they occurred. Results showed that participants used all three categories of hypercorrections, with phonological hypercorrection occurring the most, followed by morphological hypercorrection and syntactical hypercorrection. However, the younger participants demonstrated hypercorrection less frequently than the older ones. The tendency to hypercorrect phonologically suggests that younger and older participants prioritised sound correctness when speaking in English, which they considered a prestigious language. This sociolinguistic insight can inform pedagogical practices.

Keywords: hypercorrection; Bidayuh Biatah; speaking English; prestigious language

Introduction

Hypercorrection is speakers' inherent and unconscious tendency to miss grammatical usage marks to correct some non-standard forms, then accidentally apply them to other forms that are not necessary (Labov, 1966). Beebe (2009) characterised

hypercorrection as overgeneralised phonological correctness that the speakers perceived as authentic. Eckman et al. (2013) recognised hypercorrection as a technical term to describe a linguistic form extending beyond its prescribed usage, periodically resulting in speech production errors. They suggested that this occurrence is due to a stylistic shift in language use when a speaker of one variety attempts to imitate a more prestigious form of the language by overusing grammatical rules, exceeding the target variety's frequency norm.

In the context of second language acquisition (SLA), Eckman et al. (2013) identified three main arguments related to hypercorrection: that hypercorrection is a crosslinguistic influence, that it is equivalent to overgeneralisation, and that it occurs when a speaker tries to emulate a prestigious language variety.

Recurring patterns in previous studies suggest that age factors influence hypercorrection frequency (Sepasdar & Soori, 2014) and education level (Hubers et al., 2020). A study conducted among Dutch students of different age groups has shown that their tendency to hypercorrect increased proportionally with age and education level (Hubers et al., 2020). It was also observed that hypercorrection tends to happen among speakers who are learning a language that is deemed more prestigious, such as a standard form versus a more colloquial form within English (Menner, 1973), within Spanish (De Sifontes & Rojas-Lizana, 2013), and Dutch (Hubers et al., 2020). Hypercorrection can also occur between a language that is deemed more prestigious and a local language such as English by Korean speakers (Eckman et al., 2013), English by Slovak speakers (Metruk, 2018), and English by Kuwaiti speakers (Akbar et al., 2013).

Previous research on hypercorrection was mainly within the context of a monolingual country, from the presumed lower prestige variety against the standard variety of the same language (De Sifontes & Rojas-Lizana, 2013; Janda & Auger, 1992; Menner, 1973; Metruk, 2018). Labov's (1973) seminal study on hypercorrection was also observed within a monolingual context of English spoken by different social classes against "standard" English.

Research on hypercorrection within multilingual contexts and using different languages is scarce. Hence, the present study aimed to investigate the occurrence of hypercorrection among younger and older native speakers of Bidayuh Biatah when speaking in English.

Bidayuh

Bidayuh is one of the major indigenous groups in Sarawak, a Malaysian state located on the island of Borneo. According to Nais (as cited in Dealwis, 2010), the Bidayuh language has 29 distinct sub-dialects that are usually not mutually intelligible. These dialects can be grouped under four major Bidayuh language varieties, namely, Serian (Bukar-Sadong), Biatah, Bau (Singai-Jagoi), and Salako-Rara (Rensch et al., 2012). Figure 1 shows a map of Kuching, Sarawak, where most Bidayuh people are located. In the map, the distribution of the Bidayuh dialects is illustrated along with their geo-linguistic areas. While originating from the same root language, these four primary language varieties are not mutually intelligible (Rensch et al., 2012).

Figure 1

Map of Kuching, Sarawak, Where the Majority of Bidayuh People are Located



(Note: Inset: Map of Southeast Asia. Showing Sarawak in Malaysia, shown in context with neighbouring countries. Main map: The western end of Sarawak. The coloured areas show the location of the four major language varieties of Bidayuh (from Rensch et al., 2012)

The participants in this study were speakers of the Biatah variety, found mainly in the Kuching district (central) comprising the Siburan-Penrissen-Padawan areas. Penrissen, in the upper central part, has slightly different phonological features than Siburan and Padawan (Kroeger, 1996; Rensch et al., 2012). In the context of the current study, there is an absence of the /tʃ/ and /l/ phonemes in the Bidayuh Biatah language variety, along with the absence of other phonemes not associated with Austronesian languages like /z/, /ʒ/, /f/ and /v/ (Rensch et al., 2012). The /s/ phonemes, specifically in the Penrissen language variety, in varying degrees for different speakers, have a tendency to be aspirated in regular speech, especially in the coda (end) of words, producing a sound close to the /ʃ/ phoneme (Kroeger, 1996).

To accommodate the absence of some phonemes, some Bidayuh Biatah speakers produce the /tʃ/ sound as /ʃ/ or /s/, and the absence of /l/ is usually produced as /r/. As for the syntax of Bidayuh, the word order is subject-verb-object (SVO) and does not include position-specific object/subject words as in English. Similarly, within

the context of this study, there are no in-word morphological past-tense signifiers and in-word plural signifiers in Bidayuh, which other words would usually signify to indicate past tense and reduplication to indicate pluralisation (Rensch et al., 2012).

Generally, the Bidayuh tend to be multilingual as they learn Malay and English in school (Kayad & Ting, 2021; Norahim, 2010). English, taught in schools and recognised as the second official language, is crucial for communication in Malaysia (Azmi, 2013). The status of English as an educational and commercial language would force speakers to attempt speaking as closely as they can to the perceived “correct speech” by modulating their natural speech pattern to conform to it. In a study investigating accent preferences by English learners in America by Scales et al. (2006), it was observed that more than half (62%) of the 37 participants aim to sound more like a native speaker, resulting in more effort to sound “correct”, or in this case, American. Thus, it is assumed that the manifestation of phonological hypercorrection among Bidayuh Biatah when speaking in English will increase as they try to emulate English phonological features.

The specific objectives of this study are to identify, categorise and analyse the occurrences of hypercorrection among younger and older groups of Bidayuh Biatah when speaking English.

Literature Review

Previous studies have established the role of stratification in the production of hypercorrection. Stratification is the process of arranging people into classes or social strata. This role was evident in a seminal study on English speakers in New York City by Labov (1973), where lower-middle-class workers tend to over-produce words as rhotic (in which R is pronounced before a consonant and at the end of words). Words such as “hard” were being pronounced as /ha:rd/ instead of /ha:d/, and words like *far* were pronounced as /fa:r/ instead of /fa:/ when speakers are attempting to sound more formal despite the rhotic R being typically absent in their regular speech. Labov (1973) suggested that the rhotic R was an attempt at emulating the pronunciation of upper-middle-class speakers by the lower-middle-class speakers. This subsequently caused the lower-middle class speakers to apply rhotic pronunciation on erroneous circumstances such as adding /r/ at the end of words without them, rendering words such as “idea” mistakenly pronounced as “*idear*”. Stratification seems to be an underlying factor in SLA as well, where some language (typically English) acts as a prestige language (Eckman et al., 2013), and it is observed that second language (L2) learners tend to hypercorrect when using the L2 (Akbar et al., 2021; Janda & Auger, 1992; Melisova, 2020). However, less attention is given to the age gap or age difference, which could provide varying variables and factors (Bakar, 2016; Melisova, 2020; Metruk, 2018).

Some studies have indicated that age influences the tendency to hypercorrect, in which the higher the age, the higher the tendency to hypercorrect. This is mainly due to older speakers utilising more language learning strategies than younger speakers (Chen, 2014; Sepasdar & Soori, 2014), thus regulating their speech more frequently to sound more “correct”. This is also illustrated in a study by Hubers et al. (2020), where it was recorded that there is a higher tendency for older Dutch

students to hypercorrect in their written production compared to the younger students, where they overutilise a deemed “prestigious” older Dutch word form albeit erroneously. Furthermore, hypercorrection is usually studied in European languages such as English (Menner, 1973), French (Janda & Auger, 1992), Spanish (De Sifontes & Rojas-Lizana, 2013), and Slovak (Metruk, 2018) and observed within the context of a monolingual country. This study explores the phenomenon in Malaysia, a multicultural and multilingual country, where English is considered an important educational and commercial language.

In the Malaysian context, Blust (1983) provided anecdotal evidence of the phoneme /f/ in Malay, which is usually limited to loanwords mainly from the Arabic language and replaced with /p/ in ordinary speech, for example, in *fikir* (standard speech) and *pikir* (colloquial), which means “to think.” Blust (1983) observed that Malay English speakers’ speech was hypercorrected in conformity with the presumed model that /f/ is the more standard and correct form, producing words like “*frostitute*”. Zheng and Wang (2022) observed the hypercorrection production of Malaysian mallgoers when asked by English-speaking foreigners in malls associated with different prestige levels. Three malls were stratified, with Pavillion KL being rated as the most prestigious, NU Sentral rated as moderately prestigious, and Sungei Wang Plaza rated as the lowest. At these locations, mallgoers were asked questions that elicited the /th/ sound response, such as asking on which floor a specific shop is – eliciting a response such as “The third/fourth floor.” It was concluded that the higher a department store is ranked, the more frequently the salespeople hypercorrect. However, the study lacked specificity, targeting Malaysian speakers regardless of their first language and the primary language they use daily. Therefore, the source or influence of their hypercorrection cannot be identified based on the features of their native languages.

Accent also plays a role in the tendency to hypercorrect. An accent is defined as the noticeable underlying sound pattern of a native language beneath a second language (Derwing et al., 2008). Speakers of English as a second language, such as the Bidayuh participants in the current study, may be influenced by their native language accent. They might add or deduct certain sound features to sound as close to their ideal “correct” English as possible. Speakers of a second language often desire to sound as close as a native speaker of their target language (Scales et al., 2006), and this could explain the prevalence of phonological hypercorrection and studies focusing on phonological hypercorrection (Akbar et al., 2012; Melisova, 2020; Metruk, 2018).

Methodology

To investigate the occurrence of hypercorrection among younger and older native speakers of Bidayuh Biatah when speaking English, this study employed a qualitative descriptive research design, incorporating open-ended interviews. An open-ended interview in this study is flexible and does not use predetermined sets of questions with fixed response categories. Instead, the questions are designed to be broad and exploratory, allowing the interviewee to provide unrestricted responses. This approach was necessary in this study to detect and collect naturalistic speech and to

avoid “yes and no” answers that could limit the speech production necessary to collect data on the use of hypercorrection by Bidayuh Biatah speakers when speaking in English. The speech production was then recorded after consent was given from the interviewee/participants. The data collected from this study are presented categorically, providing descriptions and characteristics of the recurring hypercorrection.

Participants

The selection criteria for younger participants were based on Abi-Esber et al. (2018), where “younger participants” are categorised within the age range of 18 – 29. Abi-Esber et al. (2018) suggested that initiating the age range at 18 will ensure that the participants are of the legal age for being interviewed and, thereby, capable of providing informed consent to participate in the research.

The older participants were chosen based on the adapted criteria suggested by Chambers and Trudgill’s (1980) NORM/F participant selection method. NORM/F means non-mobile, older, rural, and male/female. Non-mobile refers to participants who have not moved to another area and do not speak other languages. However, to fit the objectives of this study, since hypercorrection occurs as a second language learning error, the non-mobile aspect was altered so that the participants must be able to speak in a second language – English with conversational fluency.

In addition, the participants were educated in Bidayuh, having completed at least a Form 5 education level, which is the final assessment for Secondary Schools in Malaysia. The participants were four younger speakers (all aged 23) and four older speakers (aged 55-69) who were native speakers of Bidayuh Biatah from the Penrissen area. Table 1 shows the participants’ educational backgrounds and professions, all of whom have acquired formal education and learned English as a subject in school. English, a language the participants use extensively, is further reinforced and maintained through their daily use either professionally, academically, and/or socially.

Table 1

Educational Background and Profession of Participants

No	Older participants			Younger participants		
	Age	Highest education level	Profession	Age	Highest education level	Profession
1	69	Form 5 - Secondary school	Retired police officer	23	Bachelor’s degree	Unemployed/ student
2	64	Bachelor’s degree	Retired secondary	23	Bachelor’s degree	Unemployed/ student

			school teacher			
3	58	Form 5 - Secondary school	Housewife	23	Form 6 - Secondary school	Health Inspector
4	55	Bachelor's degree	Primary school teacher	23	Form 5 - Secondary school	Sales assistant

Instruments

A semi-structured interview with open-ended questions was used to elicit speech production from each participant who was interviewed individually. After the interview, the participant was asked to read a list of phrases below:

1. Fluency session.
2. Frequent shipment.
3. Cruel decision.
4. Fearful shepherd.
5. Precious career.
6. Shady sewer.
7. Scrap loaf.
8. Crown jewel.
9. Thread pack.
10. We plan.
11. Trapped duck.
12. Flare gun.

The list of 12 phrases was adapted from Melisova (2020) on the features and phonological characteristics of the French language. The phrases used for this study were selected to correspond with the existing phonological features of Bidayuh Biatah. There are four main phonological characteristics of Bidayuh Biatah (Penrissen variant): The aspirated sibilant [ʃ] when pronouncing /s/, the diphthongisation of /o/ and /e/ into /uə/ and /iə/ respectively, the loss of initial vowels and the loss of high vowels in initial syllables (Kroeger, 1996; Rensch et al., 2012). Suppose hypercorrection occurs among Bidayuh speakers when speaking English. In that case, it is hypothesised that they will overcompensate by reducing [ʃ] sounds and diphthongs, especially /uə/ and /iə/, and inadvertently adding vowels in front of words and initial syllables. The words chosen in the word list featured sounds that will gauge if the participants hypercorrect.

Data Collection

The data were extracted based on Labov's (1966) definition of hypercorrection as well as the categorisation of hypercorrection, namely, phonological hypercorrection

(Labov, 1973), syntactical hypercorrection (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005), and morphological hypercorrection (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011). Kroeger's (1996) phonological characteristics of the Bidayuh Biatah were used to prepare for the expected hypercorrection occurrences. Next, fieldwork was arranged before the visit to set up a mutually agreed-upon appointment date.

The participants, selected by relative recommendations and fulfilling the participant selection criteria, were required to provide written and verbal consent when agreeing to be recorded. Melisova's (2020) method for recording spontaneous and casual conversations was employed. These conversations were conducted in English, focussing on comfortable and familiar topics such as personal interests to encourage conversation and engagement. The casual conversations were limited to 30 minutes or less. Additionally, the participants were asked to read a list of phrases that covered other possible instances of hypercorrection in English by Bidayuh Biatah speakers. The session commenced once both the researcher and the participants were ready.

The phonological hypercorrections were identified using Labov's (1973) study, in which a pronunciation deemed more prestigious is attempted to be emulated but is overproduced, exceeding the natural usage. In this study, Kroeger's (1996) phonological characteristics of Bidayuh Biatah speakers were used to make an educational guess on expected and possible hypercorrections Bidayuh Biatah participants will make when speaking in English.

Syntactical hypercorrections were identified using Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) understanding of hypercorrection in English grammar, where a grammatical sequence or a syntactical arrangement that is considered more proper, prestigious, or correct is used exceeding the prescribed usage. Similar syntactical hypercorrections that occur in the discourse of Bidayuh Biatah participants were identified using this understanding.

Linguistic morphology refers to the cognitive word-formation system where words, their internal structure, and how they form are studied (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011). Morphology studies the structure of words and constituents of words, such as root words, prefixes, and suffixes. In this study, morphological hypercorrection will be identified using the understanding of Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) on morphology to identify hypercorrection in using constituents by Bidayuh Biatah speakers when speaking English, such as the incorrect usage of the prefix "un-" in erroneous word combination like "*uncorrect*".

Data collected were categorised into types of hypercorrection, environment, examples of occurrence, and transcriptions based on the participants' pronunciation. Hypercorrections recorded in this study were all sourced from phonological data (uttered speech) but can be categorised into different types. Hypercorrected productions that stem from the over-generalisation of "correct" sounds were grouped under phonological hypercorrection. Those resulting from the over-generalisation of "correct" grammar were categorised under syntactical hypercorrection, and those stemming from the generalisation of "correct" affixes were categorised under morphological hypercorrection. In the present study, "environment" refers to the specific sound contexts in which these hypercorrected forms occur. The frequency of

hypercorrection in the findings was extracted from the transcripts of both the speech in the interview sessions and the reading of the list.

Results and Discussion

The results showed that participants used all three categories of hypercorrections. Table 2 presents the types and frequency of hypercorrections among older participants in this study.

Table 2

Hypercorrection Among Older Bidayuh Biatah Participants When Speaking English

Hypercorrection type	Environment	Example	Transcriptions (Participants' pronunciation)	(%)
Phonological hypercorrection	/j/ or /sh/ reduction	Crochet, session, shipment, she, should, fish, sugar, pensioner, function, pronunciation, traditional, shoot, English	/krəʊseɪ/, /sesən/, /sɪpmənt/, /si:/, /sʊd/, /fɪs/, /sʊgə/, /pensənə/, /fʌŋksən/, /proˈnʌnsɪˈeɪsən/, /trəˈdɪsənəl/, /su:t/, /ɪŋɡlɪs/	40.6
	/uə/ diphthong reduction	Sewer, fluent, fluency, tour	/shu:/, /flu:nt/, /flu:nsi/, /to:/	12.5
	/iə/ diphthong reduction	Vietnam, fearful, nearby	/vetnʌm/, /fəɪfʊl/, /nəɪbʌɪ/	9.4
	Vowel addition	Front of word		
	Initial syllable	Scrap, crown, thread, flare	/səkrap/, /kəraʊn/, /θæred/, /fəle:/	12.5

	/dʒ/ to /ʒ/	Vegetable	/vɛʒɪtəbəl/, /vɛʒtəbəl/	3.1
	/dʒ/ to /ʒh/	Language, age, vegetable	/lɑŋgweʒh/, /eɪʒh/, /vɛʒhtəbəl/	9.4
Syntactical hypercorrection	Swapping of object- positioned pronouns into subject-positioned pronouns.	"They divide it among my siblings and I."		3.1
Morphological hypercorrection	/s/ addition at the end of verbs (verb- agreement)	"I loves", "Which one is looks beautiful", "I takes medication"		9.4
Total (%)				100

The identification and categorisation of data in Table 2 show that all three types of hypercorrections prescribed in this study, namely, phonological hypercorrection (Labov, 1973), syntactical hypercorrection (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005), and morphological hypercorrection (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011) are present in the speech of Bidayuh Biatah participants when speaking English. The most prominent type of hypercorrection that Bidayuh participants made in this study is phonological hypercorrections, which occurred in seven different environments, with over 28 occurrences noted.

For older participants, the most frequently hypercorrected phonological form is the reduction of /ʃ/ or /sh/ with 13 occurrences (40.6%). The least hypercorrected type is syntactical hypercorrection, occurring only once (3.1%) in the form of object-positioned pronouns being swapped into subject-positioned pronouns. This is followed by morphological hypercorrection that occurs three times (9.4%) in the form of /s/ addition at the end of verbs (verb agreement).

Hubers et al. (2020) discussed that hypercorrection is more prevalent among educated speakers. Because of that, it can be plausibly hypothesised that the data show a scarcity of syntactical and morphological hypercorrection due to the participants' sufficiently educated backgrounds in speaking English, thus causing fewer grammatical hypercorrections.

However, the justification for the abundance of phonological hypercorrections is based on the accent of the Bidayuh Biatah speakers when speaking in English. According to Derwing et al. (2008), accent is one of the most notable and intrinsic aspects of speech, ubiquitous to all non-native speakers of English. Scales et al. (2006) also noted that more than half (62%) of English language

learners aim to sound more like a native speaker, resulting in more effort to sound “correct,” which consequently will increase the manifestation of phonological hypercorrection among Bidayuh Biatah English speakers when they try to emulate English phonological features.

In attempting to suppress their naturally occurring phonological system, participants may inadvertently hypercorrect English words, especially in the phonological sense. The bulk of phonological hypercorrection comprised /ʃ/ or /sh/ reduction (40.6%). It can be theorised that this is caused by the frequency of the /sh/ sound in the Bidayuh language (Penrissen variant). It is also expected to occur due to this being the phonological feature that is most notable in the language when observed by non-Bidayuh speakers. A participant mentioned that they are aware of the /sh/ pronunciation that could seep into their English speech, and this consciousness of this negative transfer would plausibly cause the hypercorrected reduction of /sh/ to an /s/ to be more frequently made when they try to speak English as close as their ideal of an English speech standard is.

Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage of hypercorrection occurrences between older and younger participants.

Table 3

Frequency and Percentage of Hypercorrection Occurrences Between Older and Younger Participants

Older participants		Types of hypercorrections	Younger participants	
No. of occurrences	Percentage (%)		No. of occurrences	Percentage (%)
28	87.5	Phonological hypercorrection	6	75
1	3.1	Syntactical hypercorrection	1	12.5
3	9.4	Morphological hypercorrection	1	12.5
32	100	Total	8	100

The diphthong reduction from the data is not as prevalent as the /sh/ reduction, but it is not rare either. The /uə/ diphthong reduction occurred four times (12.5%) in the speech of the older participants. The word “sewer” /su:ə/ was pronounced as /shu:/, presenting both the reduction of /uə/ (hypercorrection) and the aspiration of the /s/ sound into /sh/ (negative transfer). Similarly, words like “fluent” and “fluency” are noticeably reduced to “flunt” /flu:nt/ and “fluncy” /flu:nsi/, with the /u/ sound just slightly dragged into two syllables. In the same manner that the /u/ sound was just slightly dragged into two syllables, the /o/ sound in “tour” was

also slightly dragged into two syllables while abandoning the diphthong /uə/ sound altogether.

The /ɪə/ reduction also occurred three times (9.4%) in words like “Vietnam,” “fearful,” and “nearby” – effectively deducted their /ɪə/ diphthongs into /vɛtnəm/, /fɛɪfəl/, and /nɛəbɪ/. According to Kroeger (1996), the Bidayuh Biatah speakers, specifically the Penrissen variant, tend to diphthongise their /e/ and /o/ into /iə/ and /uə/, respectively. As previously mentioned, to emulate the English sound systems as “correctly” as possible, they have inadvertently reduced their diphthongs almost entirely, even in English words that would require them.

We initially anticipated that some participants would overcompensate/hypercorrect by reducing [ɪ] sounds and diphthongs, especially /uə/ and /iə/, and adding vowels in front of words and initial syllables based on Kroeger’s (1996) phonological features of Bidayuh Biatah. However, the final results showed no vowel addition in front of words was recorded for younger and older participants. In contrast, vowel addition on the initial syllable occurred several times, especially in one-syllable words.

Vowel addition in initial syllables occurred four times (12.5%), and all in one-syllable words with consonant clusters. Those four words include “scrap”, “crown”, “thread”, and “flare” pronounced as /səkrap/, /kəraʊn/, /θæəd/, and /fælɛ:/. Each word has received a vowel addition in its first syllable, [ə]. This corresponds precisely with the features of Bidayuh Biatah phonology discussed by Kroeger (1996) who spoke of the tendency of Bidayuh speakers to lose high vowels in initial syllables compared with their dialectal counterparts. This naturally occurring dialectal phenomenon is suppressed to reduce accent and “non-standard” features and then accidentally used counterintuitively by adding vowels in initial syllables.

However, it is worth noting that, similar to the slight elongation of the /u/ sound into two syllables in the diphthong-reduced word “fluent” (pronounced as /flu:nt/ by the older participants), the addition of a vowel in the initial syllable could also be attributed to the linguistic rhythm of the Bidayuh language. Rensch (2006) stated that Bidayuh stem words are typically disyllabic, which means the “melody” of the language follows a two-syllable pattern, making one-syllable words to be forcibly stretched out into two syllables to match the underlying “rhythm” of the language.

Next, some /dʒ/ sounds in English words are reduced to a /z/ or a /ʒh/ sound. This result was not initially expected since no previous reports were made. However, words like “language” /laŋgwɪdʒ/ and “age” /eɪdʒ/ were repeatedly pronounced as /laŋgwɛʒh/ and /eɪʒh/ by all the participants. The word “language” (and the /dʒ/ being reduced to a /ʒh/) is used by all the participants multiple times during the interview when introducing themselves and talking about the language they spoke. Interestingly, the /z/ sound does not exist naturally in the Bidayuh language. The /dʒ/ sound, however, is common. It is plausible to deduce that to sound “less accented”, the participants tried to utilise more foreign sounds [ʒ] and reduce common, naturally occurring sounds [dʒ] in their speech because of hypercorrection.

The syntactical hypercorrection during the interview is the generalisation of object-positioned pronouns into subject-positioned pronouns, for example, the swapping of “I” and “me”. In the sentence “they divide it among my siblings and I”, the informant generalised “I” as a more “correct” form in opposition to “me.” In the

sentence, “they” is the subject, making the first-person pronoun a sentence object. In another varying sentence, “my siblings and I” would only be correct if “I” is a sentence subject like “My siblings and I went to the market”.

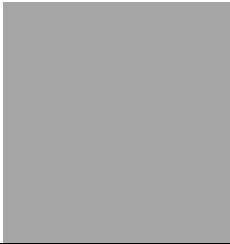
Morphological hypercorrection observed in this study is the generalisation of verb agreement (addition of /s/ at the end of verbs). The data for this is “I loves”, “Which one is looks beautiful”, and “I takes medication”. Adding /s/ after a verb is quite a prominent occurrence, even before the interview recording begins. The absence of a verb agreement system similar to English in the Bidayuh language can cause difficulties using it correctly. De Sifontes and Rojas-Lizana (2013) elicited that hypergeneralisation of grammar rules is a typical intra-lingual strategy students employ to learn a non-native foreign language. This causes non-native speakers to overgeneralise the usage of verb agreement by adding /s/ to the end of verbs, even when they are faulty.

The types and frequency of hypercorrections among younger participants are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Hypercorrection Among Younger Bidayuh Biatah Participants When Speaking English

Hypercorrection type	Environment	Example	Transcriptions (Participants' pronunciation)	(%)
Phonological hypercorrection	/j/ or /sh/ reduction	English	/ɪŋɡlɪs/	12.5
	/zh/ or /z/ reduction	usually	/ju:sʊəli/	12.5
	/uə/ diphthong reduction	cruel	/krʊ:l/	12.5
	Vowel addition: Initial syllable	scrap, crown	/səkrəp/, /kəraʊn/	25.0
	/dʒ/ to /ʒh/	language	/laŋgweʒh/	12.5
Syntactical hypercorrection	using past tense for the perfect present	“I like to play an action-packed video game or a shooting game...because it gave me an adrenaline rush.”		12.5

Morphological hypercorrection	“Bidayuh people usually prepared <u>ed</u> it mixed with fermented durian soup”		12.5
Total			100

The recorded data for younger participants show some discrepancy against the data for older participants, with only eight overall occurrences. However, phonological hypercorrections are still the most hypercorrected form for most of the younger participants, with six occurrences (75%), followed by one occurrence for syntactical hypercorrection (12.5%) and one occurrence for morphological (12.5%) hypercorrection (Table 3).

Similar to their older counterparts, it can be deduced that phonological correctness played an essential role in their speech production. Consequently, this influenced the participants to manipulate their sound production to sound as close to native speakers as possible (Scales et al., 2006), leading to hypercorrection, as evident in most of the data, which consists of phonological hypercorrections. In the instance of /zh/ or /ʒ/ reduction into an /s/ sound, the researcher postulates that very much like the older participants, they are aware of the aspirated sibilant /sh/ sound that is prevalent in their native language, thus, trying to suppress them. As an aspirated sibilant, the /zh/ sound can be seen similarly reduced and hypercorrected. While there are clearly fewer occurrences of hypercorrection by the younger participants, there is still a considerable amount of direct negative transfer in the pronunciation of the /s/ and /c/ or /tʃ/ sounds into their more familiar /sh/ sound. Instances of this can be found in words such as “watch”, “social”, “perception”, “used”, and “session”, which were pronounced as /wɒʃ/, /ʃəʃəl/, /pəʃəpʃən/, /ju:ʃd/, and /ʃɛʃən/.

Only one instance of diphthong reduction was observed in the speech of the younger participants, specifically the /uə/ diphthong reduction for the word “cruel,” which was pronounced as /krʊ:l/ by two of the younger participants. Interestingly, in contrast with the data from the older participants, the /u/ sound was not slightly dragged into two syllables. However, the vowel addition in initial syllables still occurred in words like “scrap” and “crown” (/səkrəp/ and /kəraʊn/).

As mentioned in the discussion for the older participants, the /dʒ/ to /ʒh/ sounds in the pronunciation of the word “language” as /laŋgweʒh/ were used repeatedly, albeit the /ʒh/ was absent in the Bidayuh language. It can again be presumed that to sound “less accented”, the participants tried to integrate the more foreign /ʒ/ sound in their speech even when it was incorrect.

Both syntactical and morphological hypercorrection exhibited similar patterns in which words were used in the past tense when they should have been in the present tense. For syntactical hypercorrection, the past-tense form “gave” was used in the sentence “I like to play an action-packed video game or a shooting game ... because it gave me an adrenaline rush” instead of the present “gives.” The occurrences of morphological hypercorrection similarly employed the past-tense

signifier -ed even when the sentences are in the present, such as in the sentence “Bidayuh people usually prepared it mixed with fermented durian soup”. It is worth noting that in the Bidayuh language, there are no in-word/morphological past-tense signifiers. Therefore, it is plausible for Bidayuh speakers of English to generalise the -ed signifier as an intra-lingual hypergeneralisation of grammar strategy.

To sum up, there is an apparent contrast in the number of hypercorrection occurrences between older and younger participants, in which younger participants generally hypercorrect less. However, phonological hypercorrection is the most frequent type in both groups.

Conclusion

In investigating the occurrence of hypercorrection among younger and older native speakers of Bidayuh Biatah when speaking English, the study has identified, categorised, and analysed three types of hypercorrections: phonological hypercorrection, syntactical hypercorrection, and morphological hypercorrection. It then can be concluded that both younger and older Bidayuh Biatah hypercorrect phonologically the most when speaking English. The findings suggest that they prioritised accent, which caused them to attempt to add or deduct sound features to sound as close as their ideal of the “correct” English. This will subsequently cause them to hypercorrect. Older educated Bidayuh Biatah participants of English tend to hypercorrect more than younger educated Bidayuh participants of English. The hypercorrected features observed in this study do not exist naturally in the participants’ native language and thus cannot be a crosslinguistic influence. On the other hand, over-generalisation and emulating a target language feature due to a perceived prestige are evident in the findings of this study. As the study was done on a limited scale and gathered data only from the Siburan-Penrissen area, future studies could increase the sample to include speakers of other varieties of Bidayuh and gender.

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IMPLEMENTING MIXED AUGMENTED AND VIRTUAL REALITY IN AN ANIMATED FLIPPED CLASSROOM FOR LOW-ACHIEVING WRITERS IN RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Ilyana JALALUDDIN*

Ramiza DARMI

Lilliati ISMAIL

Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

ilyana@upm.edu.my

ramiza@upm.edu.my

lilliati@upm.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the implementation of mixed augmented and virtual reality in an animated flipped classroom for low-achieving writers in rural primary schools. A quasi-experimental study employing a pre-post, non-equivalent control group design was conducted. In a flipped classroom, students use digitised or online lectures as pre-class homework, then engage in active learning process in the classroom such as peer teaching, projects, problem solving and group activities. In other words, the typical classroom of lecturing only during class time is “flipped” now to active activities that involve problem solving and group project work in class. Results show that this flipped learning approach improves rural learners’ proficiency, particularly in vocabulary acquisition. It was found that there was a statistically significant difference in vocabulary level between trials at the midway time point. Apart from that, there is a statistically significant difference in the vocabulary level in the intervention trial at the end (post) of the trials. However, successful implementation of this technology necessitates a comprehensive approach considering cultural and infrastructural factors.

Keywords: mixed reality; augmented reality; virtual reality; rural area learners

Introduction

Results from the earlier research emphasise how crucial instructors' methods of teaching and the learning environment are when using technology, as this might have an impact on teaching (Celik & Ersanlı, 2022). The use of flipped classrooms has currently transformed the learning environment from a lecture-based, direct instruction setting to an electronic technology-based, and more learner-friendly setting. In tandem with the COVID-19 epidemic, a technology learning environment has emerged, where more flexible teaching methods like blended learning or online learning are frequently used. One type of blended learning is the flipped classroom, which combines in-person instruction with independent study, typically done with the use of technology. The primary pedagogical aim does not change with implementing the flipped classroom even though there is a combination of in-person and online instruction; rather, learners' active engagement in the classroom replaced passive learning and listening (Nolan & Washington, 2013).

The flipped classroom has changed the perspectives of educators and learners on learning (Sajana, 2018). Teachers can integrate their own technological experience with the learners to potentially improve learning and performance. There are numerous approaches to flipped classrooms as it can fully or partially flip the classroom, and no approach has been shown to be superior to another (Nouri, 2016). Either fully or partially, utilising technology in the classroom is crucial to flipping the classroom. However, because the sources must be as interactive as possible, the implementation of technology has become problematic. Emerging technology and innovative approaches to teaching and learning have come together to form the concept of flipping the classroom (Simanungkalit & Sembiring, 2019). In a flipped classroom, the teacher cannot establish good communication on their own; instead, technology and media, including video, play a crucial role as messengers that can engage learners (Khalidiyah, 2015). When learners are able to fully utilise all of their senses during learning activities, the flipped classroom approach is successful (Khalidiyah, 2015). For the flipped classroom to be successful, a more interactive medium called mixed reality—that is, augmented and virtual reality—is therefore necessary.

Virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) are essentially computer-generated simulations that let users fully immerse themselves in the virtual environment. According to Brown et al. (1997), incorporating AR and VR into educational activities offers several unique benefits, including: 1) reducing learning limitations; 2) assisting learners in overcoming physical obstacles; 3) presenting a variety of events continuously to provide a unique visual experience for a deeper understanding; 4) allowing learners to create real action or imagine an event or process; and 5) assessing learners' knowledge or analytical skills in the learning activities of a particular subject. These benefits lead to the hypothesis that using mixed reality could enhance English language learners' acquisition and possibly will be more effective if implemented in a flipped classroom.

Nevertheless, before AR and VR can be implemented in a flipped classroom, a more comprehensive model is needed to support the use of AR and VR in flipped classrooms especially in rural areas. Previously, many systematic review studies have

been done on flipped classrooms such as educational sciences (e.g., Lo & Hew, 2017), nursing education (e.g., Tan et al., 2017), mathematics (e.g., Lo et al., 2017) and engineering (e.g., Karabulut-Ilgu et al., 2018). However, most of these studies focus on academic performance, and students' affective factors such as self-efficacy, perception, and attitude.

While there is some research on the use of the flipped classroom and AR or VR separately, there are still several gaps in the literature on their combined use. Lack of facilities will bring more challenges in a rural area context.

Due to the limiting conditions of learning in rural areas, it is hoped that this mixed reality will be able to help low achievers improve their imagination and vision skills when learning English language. The study examined the implementation of mixed augmented and virtual reality in an animated flipped classroom for low-achieving writers in rural primary schools.

This study aims to assess the effectiveness of the mixed reality-supported flipped classroom as a learning tool for vocabulary when compared to normal instructional treatment classes. Mixed reality here refers to the use of Visual Reality and Visual Reality. The research objectives are to:

- 1) compare the changes of vocabulary level for low achiever learners across three different time-frames in the mixed reality assisted flipped classroom and traditional classroom; and
- 2) compare differences in vocabulary level among the low achievers in the mixed reality assisted flipped classroom and traditional classroom.

The two hypotheses tested are:

H_a There is a statistically significant difference in vocabulary level between trials at the midway time point.

H_a There is a statistically significant difference in the vocabulary level in the intervention trial at the end (post-) of the trials.

Literature Review

Rural-urban Gap in English Proficiency

The gap in English language performance between Malaysian rural and urban learners continues to be a critical concern (Ismail et al., 2020). The results of Year 6 and Form 3 in urban and rural areas differ by 2.43%. On average, pupils in urban areas outperformed those in rural areas in English, scoring 78.87%. In Form 3, pupils in urban and rural areas scored 74.48% and 71.68% on average, respectively, with a 3.1%-point difference in the English subject (Faudzi, 2020). This demonstrates that when it comes to English language proficiency at both national and school exams, the majority of learners attending urban schools score better than those attending rural ones. Since rural-area learners rarely get to use English outside of the classroom, rural learners frequently see it as a foreign language. Furthermore, the majority of parents in rural areas lack formal education and do not recognise the value of learning English, therefore they are generally uninformed of the language (Shahnaz & Ghandana, 2021). The stark discrepancy in academic achievement between urban and rural

learners further emphasises the division between the two learner populations and suggests that the learners may speak English at varying levels (Ismail et al., 2020).

As we enter a new era of education, teachers should choose and employ instructional strategies that will promote learners' active engagement. Benzerroug (2021) emphasised that the learner's active participation in their own learning should be an integral part of any teaching strategy to develop the different aspects the learner's personalities mainly cognitive, social and psychological aspects. However, a lot of educators limit themselves to using a one-size-fits-all method or the conventional chalk-and-talk method of instruction. Sadly, adopting traditional lectures online instead of in-person did not change the way that learners learned (Ullah & Iqbal, 2020). This unaltered mode of instruction in the classroom could be a factor in Malaysia's English language standards, which have been steadily declining, particularly in Sabah, where 1191 secondary schools have been identified as having SPM English failure rates exceeding 23%, according to data released by PEMANDU (Ismail et al., 2020). This explains why some learners struggle to acquire and master the English language, despite having studied reading, writing, speaking, and listening for years in school. The reason for this is that rural learners' limited proficiency in the English language is due to English language teachers' lack of professional development, which makes them unable to employ efficient teaching strategies, methods, or approaches when teaching English (Milon, 2016, as cited in Shan & Abdul Aziz, 2022, p. 1958). On the other hand, traditional teaching, which focuses solely on using textbooks and instructional techniques in the classroom, bores learners and lowers their motivation and capacity for learning.

However, low learning capacity has more detrimental effects on the process of discovering new information, particularly for low achiever individuals. Nonetheless, educators must provide these pupils with the attention they need because it is evident that they are unable to learn most subjects—especially language and Mathematics—during regular class periods. Low achievers are typically defined as learners who receive a low grade on a test or course; they are frequently perceived as less competent, less successful, or unsuccessful learners (Samperio, 2019). Adnan Zahid et al. as cited in Samperio (2019), low achievers view English as a challenging subject and view their teacher as an authority figure. They also lack exposure to the target language, have a limited vocabulary, and lack motivation to learn the language, all of which contribute to a negative attitude toward learning English. The teachers indicated that they needed teaching and learning assistance specifically designed and created for low achiever learners' exercises, based on prior research (Ahmad & Abdul Mutalib, 2015; Bokhari et al., 2015; Hoon et al., 2009). They also pointed out that learning concepts in the form of computer-based learning are important to promote enjoyable learning experiences. Yaduvanshi and Sing (2019) corroborate this, stating that educators need to look for new and creative ways to improve the effectiveness of their instruction to provide all learners, regardless of ability level, with access to high-quality education. Presently, the majority of the educational resources are derived from conventional learning materials supplied by the Ministry of Education (Bokhari et al., 2015; Othman et al., 2011). Teachers make full use of the materials but relying just on these educational resources is insufficient since children would quickly become disinterested and lose interest in what they are learning (Hoon et al., 2009).

Implementing AR in Language Classroom

Using multimedia and computer-aided education models to teach scientific concepts has grown popular these days. When computer-aided learning started, Ma (2008) found that 3D animation education enhanced learners' immediate learning effects on the concepts of basic sciences. Ma (2008) discovered that the pupils comprehended the motions of the earth, sun, and moon, among other phenomena, as well as the times and causes of the lunar phases. He concluded that a simulation-based e-learning model is very beneficial for enhancing the learning efficiency of the concepts of fundamental principles in the sciences by offering instructional resources, such as 2D and 3D animation.

In a different science class, studies on the use of AR technologies to create teacher- and student-desired instructional materials have confirmed that AR materials can effectively boost students' academic motivation and help them achieve better learning outcomes (Alizadehsalehi et al., 2021). According to Sirohi et al. (2020), incorporating AR technologies into education can effectively address issues brought about by the following: concepts of certain subjects that may be overly abstract; environments for observation that are difficult to construct or meet the requirements because of financial constraints or technological limitations; or remote locations.

Furthermore, studies on simulation-based learning suggest that instruction supported using interactive 2D or 3D models, such as AR, can greatly improve students' comprehension of spatial ideas and create more immersive learning (Al-Ansi et al., 2023). While most research has concentrated on science subjects, this work aims to apply AR in a new setting—English language learning classrooms, where there is currently a dearth of resources for low-achieving learners in particular. Research in VR and AR were limited due to the huge development of these technologies in different aspects and implementing it in a very specific context such as low achievers will add more to the challenges (Al-Ansi et al., 2023).

Spatial notion can help these learners—who struggle to understand basic concepts—see how what they have learned relates to the real world (Gargish et al., 2020). It is hoped that they will receive this spatial concept using mobile augmented reality (AR plus VR), which will be able to provide them with a visual explanation.

Theoretical Perspective

This research is based on the sociocultural and constructivist theories of education, which hold that learners are responsible for their individual learning. According to Haase et al. (2014), constructivism emphasises that learners can only create their unique knowledge when they are allowed to reflect on their own experiences. This means that real-world or problem-based learning scenarios that are centred on authentic learning should be provided in the learning environment. According to Bruner (1961), learning is actively looking for solutions and answers rather than just absorbing what has been said and read. This means that lessons and activities in the classroom should be thoughtfully planned, very hands-on, and interactive. Instructors should employ games, storytelling, and other attention-grabbing strategies, such as

AR, to spark learners' curiosity and enthusiasm for learning and to help them think, act, and reflect in novel ways. Apart from imparting knowledge, a teacher's job is to support learners' learning. AR is appropriate within the context of active learning. Because mixed reality is interactive, the idea of "learning by doing" is the main emphasis of this study. This lets users create experiences in a secure setting without relying on the actual machine's availability. Here, there is an interactive exploration of the virtual learning environment including the functionality and components of the technical device (Haase et al., 2014).

Apart from constructivist theory, sociocultural theory is also used in this study to provide further context for the interactive inquiry. According to socio-cultural theory, child's development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level or in other words, first between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological) (Vygotsky, 1978). The crucial thing to remember is that language and social contact both play a significant part in a learner's own learning process and help him or her solve problems and comprehend the world around them. "In Vygotsky's research, tasks that were beyond the abilities of the children were presented, and through assistance and artifacts that the learners could potentially use to solve the task, the procedure was followed" (Lantolf & Thorne 2006, p. 50). According to Vygotsky (1978), social interaction causes learners' thoughts and behaviours to gradually shift over time and might differ significantly between cultures. Based on this, learning in the writing classroom needs to go beyond self-initiated discovery and instead focus on assisted discovery, wherein the teacher provides explanations, demonstrations, and verbal prompts to guide the learner's learning while carefully adjusting their efforts to each child's zone of proximal development (Berk, 1994).

Research Methodology

Research Design

This study used a quasi-experimental methodology with a pre-post, non-equivalent control group design to investigate how well-mixed reality-aided flipped classrooms can help primary school low-achieving learners improve their vocabulary level. This is because it was not logistically feasible to conduct a randomised controlled trial in which specific groups, namely the low achiever learners were targeted to allow the researcher to follow closely the participants' development. Apart from that, the low achievers were also controlled by the school administration in which the selection part was done by the school principals themselves (not by the researcher).

Participants

This study included two different primary schools located in a rural area of Selangor selected based on the permission given by the Education Department Selangor (PPD Selangor). Later, these learners were selected using purposive sampling in which the learners that were categorised as low achievers based on their school examination performance were chosen for the study. These learners also had difficulty in reading,

writing, and reading. For this study, each school had two classes that participated in the study. Every class had between 30 and 40 learners.

Two groups selected by the schools were assigned as experimental and control group. The experimental group received the same content using a mixed reality assisted flipped classroom approach while the control group received traditional instruction.

Instruments

British Picture Vocabulary Scale III (BPVS III)

The GL Education Group developed the one-to-one BPVS III test, which measures a child's level of receptive vocabulary (see Figure 1). For each question on the test, the learners had to choose a picture from four that best reflected the meaning of the term that the researchers had said. The exam has 12 levels that can be used to determine an individual's age-level achievement. GL Education Group (GLE Education Group, 2018) states that as there is no reading requirement for this examination, BPVSIII can be used to assess language progress in learners who cannot read, particularly those who have expressive language difficulties. Since there is no spoken answer needed, the evaluation can be completed by kids who have moderate autism, other communication disorders, or English as an Additional Language (EAL).

Figure 1

Teacher Using British Picture Vocabulary Scale III (BPVS III)



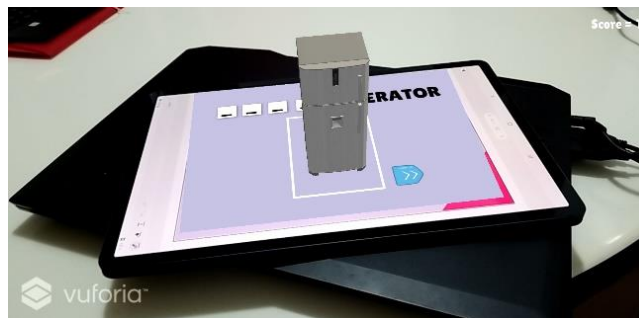
Mobile Apps

Over six months, the researcher used vocabulary materials embedded with AR and VR to teach the learners. Two apps were made specifically for the study: the first allowed users to explore two rooms filled with the objects they had learned, as seen in Figure 2, and the second allowed them to identify appropriate vocabularies that describe the objects (Figure 3).

Figure 2
Example of VR Setting



Figure 3
Example of AR Task



Data Collection Procedures

In this project, mixed reality learning materials for low achievers at primary school were designed and developed using the Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, Evaluation (ADDIE) Instructional Design method as a framework. Figure 4 shows the five stages implemented for the mixed reality-enabled flipped classroom, namely, analysis (A), design (D), development (D), implementation (I), and evaluation (E).

The process of this study is divided into five phases:

A. Phase of Analysis: Review of Literature and Phenomenon

The target audience was the main focus of this phase, and the researcher's goal was to determine the level of competence, intelligence, and challenges that teachers and learners faced throughout the teaching and learning process.

B. Design Phase: Creating the Educational Animation Videos

During this stage, the investigator ascertained the aim and provided the resources necessary to accomplish the learning goals. At this point, the researcher essentially chose which media formats to utilise while creating the instructional materials and strategies. Figure 5 illustrates the process of discovering and designing animated video resources.

Figure 4
Phases of the ADDIE Instructional Design Model

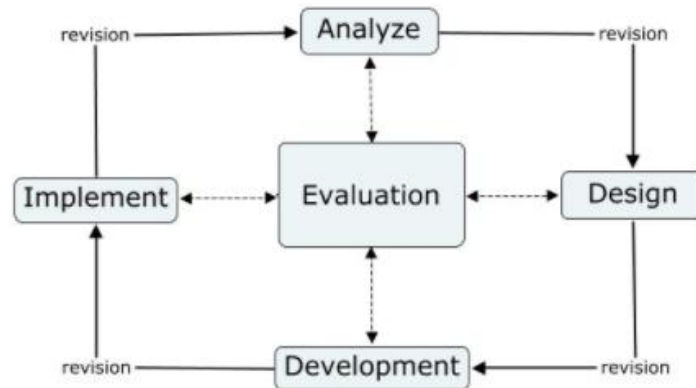
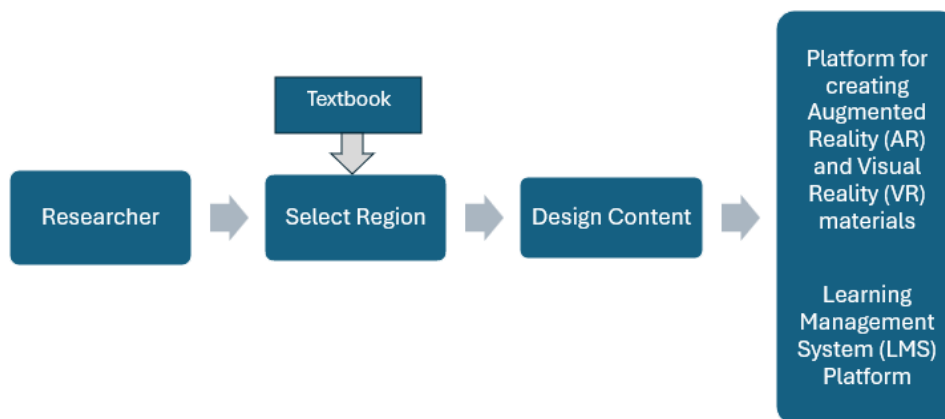


Figure 5
Designing Process



The second phase attempts to fulfil these aspects of the study

1. The content of the textbook was analysed to choose appropriate images and videos.
2. These images and videos were created and used to be uploaded to the Mixed Augmented Visual Reality (MAVR) platform.
3. They were reviewed by specialists in teaching and technology.

C. Development Phase: Pilot study

The creation and testing of the project's mixed reality flipped classroom learning materials began during the development stage.

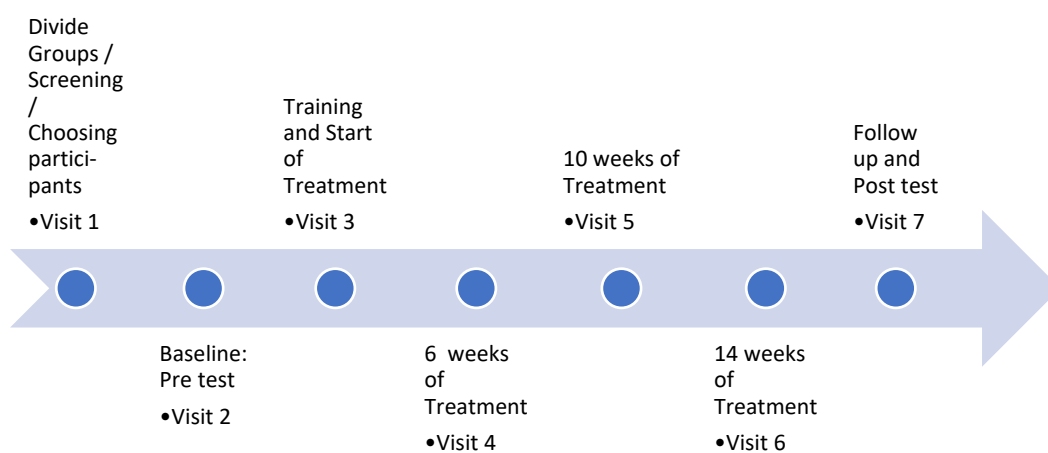
D. Implementation Phase: Actual study

The materials were used in the real classroom. A pre-test, or screening test, was administered before the actual implementation. A mid-year screening test was administered later, and once all topics had been covered, a final screening test was delivered.

E. Evaluation Phase: Assessing the learning materials

The study underwent final testing at this point to determine whether or not the materials' *what, how, why, and when* achieved the desired goals. Determining the materials' efficacy was the primary objective of this phase, and some statistical analyses were done using the results of the study's pre- and post-tests as well as the questionnaire. Figure 6 illustrates the process and the timeline of the research process in conducting the procedure and collecting data.

Figure 6
Study Timeline



In summary, there were seven stages (Visit 1-7) involved in the Implementation and evaluation phase. The researcher took 14 weeks altogether to conduct the mixed reality assisted flipped classroom (Implementation phase) and at the end, follow up and post test were conducted before it was analysed (evaluation phase).

The use of AR and VR in language learning, like any technology, raises important ethical considerations. In this study, the participants' parents were briefed and given a consent form to be signed and they were informed as well that their names would be anonymous, and they could withdraw their children from the study any time. The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Institutional Review Board (or Ethics Committee) of Universiti Putra Malaysia Ministry of Education, Malaysia and approved by the Ministry of Education, Malaysia (Ref KPM.600-3/2/3-eras(2882) Approval date: 18 January 2019)

Data Analysis Procedures

To gauge the learners' progress before treatment, pre-tests in vocabulary were given to both groups. At the end of the intervention, both groups took the same test as a post-test to examine any differences between the study groups. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) were computed to describe the distribution and pattern of the marks. Then mixed between-within-subjects ANOVA was used to examine the

effects of the different approaches on the dependent measures and to see the differences.

Results

A two-way repeated measures ANOVA was run to determine the effect of different treatments overtime on the vocabulary level of low achievers in rural area schools. However, to avoid any potential outlier that may influence the regression model since ANOVA is sensitive to outliers, studentised residuals was referred to identify outliers. Analysis of studentised residuals showed that there was normality, as assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality and no outliers, as assessed by no studentised residuals greater than 3 standard deviations. Thus, this indicates that the data were constant and suitable for the next stage of analysis.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for Vocabulary Level

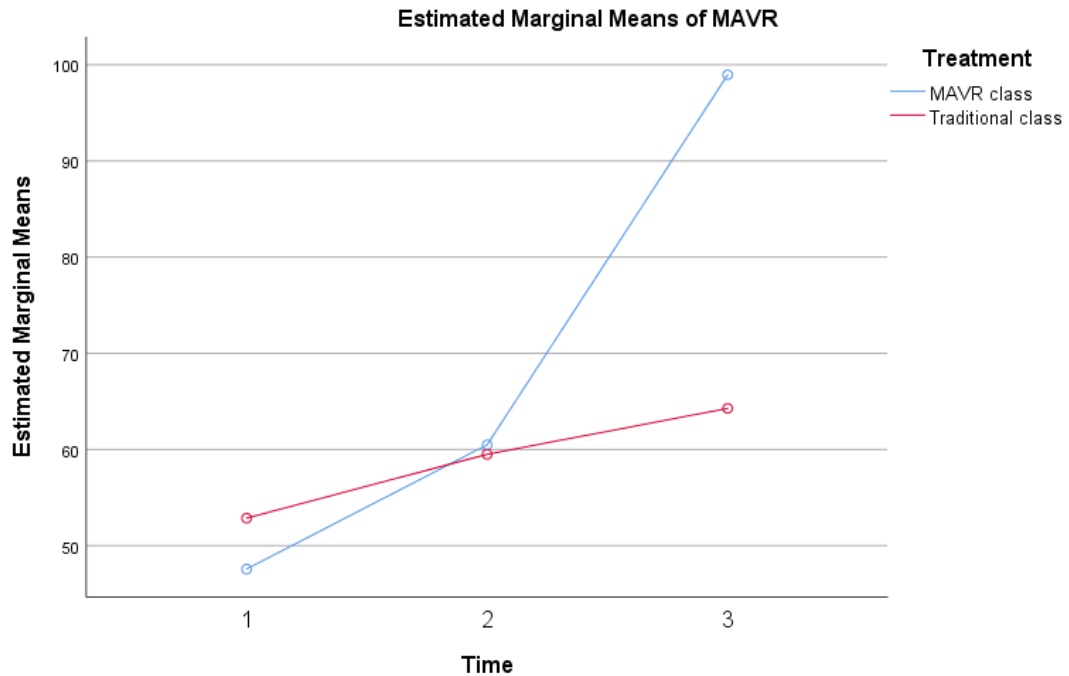
	Treatment	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pre_test	MAVR class	47.57	19.886	23
	Traditional class	52.86	20.587	22
	Total	50.16	20.179	45
Mid_test	MAVR class	60.48	22.246	23
	Traditional class	59.50	18.317	22
	Total	60.00	20.195	45
Post_test	MAVR class	98.96	18.192	23
	Traditional class	64.27	21.297	22
	Total	82.00	26.256	45

In general, the scores for vocabulary level increased over time in both groups. However, the scores for vocabulary increased more than in traditional class at the end, that is, the post-test. To gain the initial impression of whether there is likely an interaction between the between- and within-subjects factors, the profile plot (Figure 7) is produced and inspected visually.

From the plot, it can be seen that the two lines are not parallel to one another. On closer examination, it would appear that participants in the experimental group (the blue line) maintained a similar pattern like the control group but increased sharply over time. This means that vocabulary level increased moderately from pre to mid (a slight increase after three months), but then there was a more significant increase in mean vocabulary level from the mid to post time point. Visually, the most pronounced effect on mean vocabulary level was in the MAVR class group (the blue line) with a large increase in mean vocabulary level at both time points (i.e., midway and post-intervention). The different groups have similar increasing patterns of mean vocabulary level over time but only a slight increase in the control group. As such, from these results, we might expect to find an interaction effect.

Figure 7

Main Effects Plot for Vocabulary Scores among MAVR and Traditional Class Students



Before determining whether the two-way interaction effect is statistically significant or not, the assumption of sphericity was established to ensure that it has not been violated. Here, Mauchly's Test of Sphericity (Table 2) showed that it met the assumption of sphericity for the two-way interaction, $X^2(2)=74.41$, $p=.055$ even though it is borderline.

Table 2

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity^a

Measure: MAVR

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi- Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^b		
					Greenhou se- Geisser	Huynh- Feldt	Lower- bound
Time	.170	74.407	2	.055	.546	.563	.500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. Design: Intercept + class

Within Subjects Design: Time

b. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

Since the data met the assumption of sphericity, tests of the within-subjects effects are thus interpreted as in Table 3:

Table 3
Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MAVR		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Time	Sphericity Assumed	23226.213	2	11613.107	97.136	.000	.693
	Greenhouse-Geisser	23226.213	1.159	20044.663	97.136	.000	.693
	Huynh-Feldt	23226.213	1.198	19381.038	97.136	.000	.693
	Lower-bound	23226.213	1.000	23226.213	97.136	.000	.693
Time * class	Sphericity Assumed	10397.502	2	5198.751	43.484	.000	.503
	Greenhouse-Geisser	10397.502	1.159	8973.242	43.484	.000	.503
	Huynh-Feldt	10397.502	1.198	8676.162	43.484	.000	.503
	Lower-bound	10397.502	1.000	10397.502	43.484	.000	.503
Error(Time)	Sphericity Assumed	10281.772	86	119.555			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	10281.772	49.825	206.357			
	Huynh-Feldt	10281.772	51.531	199.525			
	Lower-bound	10281.772	43.000	239.111			

Table 3 indicates that there is a statistically significant interaction between the intervention and time on the vocabulary level, $F(2, 86) = 43.48$, $p < .0005$, partial $\eta^2 = .503$. This means that there are different effects of different intervention groups on mean vocabulary levels over time. That is, mean vocabulary level changes differently over time depending on the traditional approach (i.e. the control group), or engage in mixed virtual augmented reality class (i.e. the experimental group). Since there are significant differences between the intervention and control groups, testing for the simple main effects of treatment at each level time is then run.

It was found that the mean Vocabulary level is 48.66 (95% CI, 42.623 to 54.711) which is lower at the beginning of the intervention trial as opposed to the control trial, a difference that is significant, $F(1,44) = 412.38$, $p = .000$. However, there was a statistically significant difference in vocabulary level between trials at the midway time point, $F(1,44) = 377.067$, $p = .000$, a mean difference of 58.51 (95% CI, 52.44 to 64.58). Vocabulary level is also statistically significantly different in the intervention trial at the end (post-) of the trials, $F(1,44) = 412.375$, a mean difference of 80.51 (95% CI, 72.52 to 88.50). The slow improvement in this study somehow contradicts some of the previous findings such as Bursali and Yilmaz (2019), Chen

(2020) and, Lai and Chang (2021). Bursali and Yilmaz (2019) found that AR-assisted activities allowed the learners to comprehend and memorise the information better from their reading. Chen (2020) found that it contributed to the development of learners' language skills by presenting a more manageable learning process. Similarly, Lai and Chang (2021) found that AR managed to significantly improve vocabulary skills among the first graders. Even though all these studies show similarity in terms of improvement, the rate of progress somehow differs from the current studies in which this current study depicts slower progress and the learners struggled to adapt to the technology used. Perhaps this is due to the context in which these learners from the current study came from rural area schools.

Challenges and Limitations of the Study

Collecting data for AR and VR research in rural areas posed several challenges. These challenges were related to technological, infrastructural, socio-economic, and cultural factors. Firstly, these rural areas often had limited or unreliable internet connectivity, hindering the download and streaming of AR and VR content. To mitigate the problem, the researcher developed offline solutions or used technologies that require minimal internet bandwidth. Here, Pre-load content onto devices was created to provide physical storage media for distribution. Secondly, rural area schools lacked access to high-quality AR and VR hardware, such as headsets and smartphones. Thus, the researcher had to opt for affordable and accessible hardware options. The researcher used low-cost VR devices, or design experiences that could run on smartphones with basic specifications. All in all, adapting AR and VR research to the specific challenges of rural areas requires a holistic approach that considers technological, cultural, and logistical factors. In addition, engaging with local communities and understanding their unique needs is crucial for successful implementation.

Conclusion

The study shows that the integration of Mixed Augmented and Visual Reality (MAVR) in the context of an animated flipped classroom for rural primary schools holds immense promise for reaching low-achieving young writers. This innovative approach harnesses the power of technology to enhance engagement, motivation, and the overall learning experience. The result of this study indicates that there is a significant increase in terms of vocabulary level across the different timeframes of six months. Here, it shows that by providing immersive and interactive learning environments, MAVR was able to facilitate language acquisition and the learners were able to develop vocabulary slowly. This gives us the impression that as we strive to bridge educational disparities and uplift low-achieving learners, MAVR in the animated flipped classroom represents a dynamic and inclusive solution that can empower these young writers with the essential skills and confidence needed for success. This approach not only addresses the immediate educational needs of low achievers but also paves the way for a more equitable and accessible education system, ensuring

that no child is left behind in their journey to becoming proficient writers and lifelong learners.

However, the successful implementation of this technology requires a comprehensive approach that considers few implications. At the beginning of the study, the progress in vocabulary improvement seems a bit lower as compared to the control group of the traditional approach. The learners in the experimental group were nevertheless able to pick up and improve finally in the mid and final evaluation of vocabulary level. This shows that learners and teachers may need time and training to get used to the technology in their learning. As Kerr and Lawson (2020) have indicated that one of the major difficulties in integrating AR and VR is the lack of knowledge of theories and pedagogical principles. Developing effective methods for monitoring and assessing learner progress in this context is essential to ensure a more effective adaptation in learning. Educators need tools to gauge the impact of MAVR on low achievers' writing skills. Apart from that, there is a need for ongoing research to evaluate the long-term impact of MAVR technology in rural primary schools. Collecting data on learner performance, engagement, and learning outcomes will provide insights into the effectiveness of this approach. Parmaxi and Demetriou (2020) also emphasised that the majority of the AR and VR studies were conducted in tertiary education and there is a need to broaden the use of this technology in different contexts beyond tertiary education.

Overall, the significance of AR and VR in language learning research lies in their potential to revolutionise language education by offering innovative, immersive, and effective approaches to language acquisition. As technology continues to advance, these immersive technologies are likely to play an increasingly prominent role in language education. This is because the integration of AR and VR in language learning research provides opportunities for researchers to explore new methodologies, assess the effectiveness of immersive technologies, and contribute to the broader field of educational technology.

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INFERRING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRATITUDE AND MINDSET IN EFL CONTEXT

Jeffrey Dawala WILANG

Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand
wilang@g.sut.ac.th

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ABSTRACT

Gratitude and mindset have recently gained attention in English as a foreign language (EFL) context due to their considerable benefits. This study examines the relationship between gratitude and mindset in language learning among undergraduate EFL students. Two online questionnaires were used to evaluate students' levels of gratitude, growth or fixed mindset, differences in gratitude and mindset based on gender and year level, and relationships among gratitude, growth, and fixed mindsets. Using convenience sampling, 106 students completed the questionnaires. Descriptive statistics indicated that students demonstrated high levels of gratitude but maintained a fixed mindset. Sophomore students emerged as the most grateful, despite also having a fixed mindset. Female students exhibited higher levels of gratitude compared to male students, who were more inclined to possess a fixed mindset. Correlational statistics showed a significant association between gratitude and a growth mindset. Analysis of open-ended question responses about other instances of gratitude experienced in class emphasised the roles of bilingual instruction and peer activities as contributing factors. The study concluded with a discussion of pedagogical implications, highlighting the importance of fostering thankfulness in the language classroom and raising awareness of the advantages of adopting a growth language mindset.

Keywords: EFL context; gratitude; mindset; relationship

Introduction

Language learning is a complex process that involves not only the acquisition of vocabulary and grammar, but also the development of various cognitive, social, and emotional skills. While many factors contribute to the success of language learners, the role of gratitude and mindset has recently emerged as a significant area of interest among researchers and educators. Gratitude, as a powerful positive emotion, can have a profound impact on a learner's mindset, influencing motivation, resilience, and cognitive functioning.

Gratitude in Language Learning

In the field of positive psychology, gratitude is defined as a response stemming from a moral agent, as proposed by Emmons and McCullough (2003). Generally speaking, a person who experiences gratitude expresses thankfulness towards their benefactor. Therefore, within the context of a language classroom, students may feel a sense of gratitude towards their teacher, which could prompt them to act responsibly during a specific period of time. Oxford (2016) pointed out that learners who express gratitude often exhibit high levels of well-being. In other studies, gratitude is beneficial to learning and well-being (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Emmons & McCullough, 2003; Froh et al., 2008; Howells, 2004; King & Datu, 2018; Wangwang, 2015).

In a preliminary exploratory study conducted by Wilang (2022) among Thai students in an urban university setting, two factors of gratitude were identified which are positive reinforcement and language practice. The first factor encompasses gratitude antecedents such as encouraging students to improve, appreciating their outputs, and providing equal treatment to all students, among other things. The second factor covers situations where language practice is facilitated, ideas are shared, and productive activities are encouraged. Despite these findings, this study is still in its early stages, and further empirical evidence is required to fully understand the nature of gratitude within the context of foreign language learning.

Mindset in Language Learning

There is a substantial body of research on the role of mindset in language learning, particularly focusing on the distinction between a fixed mindset and a growth mindset. Language mindset, according to Lou and Noels (2016; 2017), pertains to the convictions that language learners have about their own capacity for language acquisition. Those with a fixed language mindset consider language learning ability as an inherent trait, and thus, believe it cannot be significantly improved with effort. Conversely, individuals with a growth language mindset, as described by Mercer and Ryan (2009) and Ryan and Mercer (2012), maintain the belief that one's language learning capabilities can indeed be improved through sustained effort and dedication.

In Thai urban context, prior research conducted among university students has revealed that these students predominantly exhibit a growth mindset (Puvacharonkul & Wilang, 2020; Wilang, 2022). Furthermore, a significant correlation was found between a growth mindset and perceived language proficiency. Interestingly, the study also found that a student's year level was not associated with either a fixed or growth mindset (Wilang, 2022).

In rural settings, various studies (Burnette et al., 2018; Shaari et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2023) have indicated that students often exhibit a fixed mindset, which may be attributed to limited opportunities and stagnant development in their communities (Hernandez, 2019).

The results of these studies highlight the impact of mindset on various aspects of the language learning process such as enhanced motivation (students with growth mindset can lead to increased motivation in language learning), increased resilience (students with a growth mindset tend to exhibit greater resilience in the face of setbacks and challenges, greater persistence) (students believe they can improve their skills through continued effort and practice, better learning strategies) (students are more likely to adopt effective learning strategies and be more flexible in their approach), higher achievement (growth mindset is associated with higher achievement in various educational domains), and improved self-regulation (students with growth mindset enable them to set realistic goals, monitor their progress, and adjust their learning strategies accordingly).

Gratitude and Mindset in Language Learning

Gratitude, as a positive emotion, can have a significant impact on various aspects of an individual's life, including language learning and mindset. The conceptual framework of gratitude and mindset in language learning can be visualised as a network of interconnected components that collectively influence the language acquisition process. By cultivating an attitude of gratitude, learners can foster a positive and growth-oriented mindset that enhances their language learning experience, ultimately leading to more effective and meaningful language acquisition. This framework can be used as a foundation for future research and educational practices aiming to promote the integration of gratitude and mindset in language learning.

In various disciplines, there is a positive correlation between gratitude, growth mindset, grit, and well-being (Banono, 2021; Campbell & Cokken, 2022). Some studies have specifically examined the mindset associated with gratitude (Balhip et al., 2022). Additionally, Wilson (2016) highlighted that the proactive engagement in gratitude practices enhanced students' focus and resilience. Therefore, considering the domain of positive emotions, there is a potential significant relationship between gratitude and mindset.

It is indeed plausible that grateful language learners are more likely to adopt a growth mindset and vice versa. Gratitude, as a positive emotion, can foster a more

optimistic and open-minded outlook, which aligns with the characteristics of a growth mindset. When learners appreciate the learning process and the opportunities it provides, they may be more likely to believe in their capacity for growth and improvement. Similarly, individuals with a growth mindset, who embrace challenges and view setbacks as opportunities for growth, may be more prone to recognising and expressing gratitude for their learning experiences. They may appreciate the support and resources they receive from teachers, native speakers, and fellow learners and acknowledge the value of their personal growth throughout the language learning journey. While the relationship between gratitude and growth mindset in language learning seems plausible, further research is needed to empirically establish the connection and understand the potential synergistic effects of these two factors. This understanding could lead to the development of targeted interventions and strategies to cultivate both gratitude and a growth mindset in language learners, ultimately enhancing the overall language learning experience and promoting greater success in language acquisition.

It is also possible that language learners with a fixed mindset may display a less grateful attitude towards certain learning experiences. As previously mentioned, a fixed mindset is characterised by the belief that one's abilities, including language skills, are innate and unchangeable (Dweck, 2006). As a result, learners with a fixed mindset may perceive challenges and setbacks as threats to their self-worth or as evidence of their limitations, rather than as opportunities for growth and development. This mindset could lead to negative emotions, such as frustration, disappointment, or even resentment, which may overshadow any potential feelings of gratitude. Learners with a fixed mindset may be less inclined to appreciate the support and resources available to them, as they may view their lack of progress as a reflection of their inherent inability, rather than as a result of their learning strategies or efforts. Furthermore, learners with a fixed mindset may undervalue the importance of the learning process itself, focusing primarily on performance and outcomes, rather than personal growth and development (Lou & Noels, 2017). This perspective could make it more difficult for them to recognise and express gratitude for the various learning experiences they encounter. However, it is important to acknowledge that the relationship between mindset and gratitude may be complex and influenced by various factors, such as individual personality traits, cultural background, and prior experiences. Further research is needed to better understand the relationship between a fixed mindset and gratitude in language learning and to explore potential strategies for fostering gratitude and a growth mindset in learners with various dispositions.

While the existing body of research highlights the significant benefits of gratitude and mindset in various aspects of learning and personal growth, there is a notable lack of research specifically exploring the relationship between gratitude and mindset in the context of English as a foreign language. This gap in the literature points to a need for more focused studies investigating the potential interplay between gratitude and mindset and how their combined effects may contribute to language learning success. By expanding our understanding of this relationship, researchers and educators can develop

more effective strategies and interventions to harness the power of gratitude and mindset in language learning settings.

Thus, this study examined the relationship between gratitude and mindset in language learning among undergraduate EFL students. The following questions are addressed:

-)1(To what do learners feel grateful in language learning?
-)2(What is their mindset towards language learning?
-)3(Is there a significant relationship between gratitude and mindset?

Methodology

This study followed a quantitative approach, primarily utilising questionnaires for data collection in a premier science and technology university located in northeastern Thailand. The rural town lies about 260 kilometres from Bangkok, Thailand's vibrant capital. In contrast to Bangkok, this area has limited environments where English serves as a lingua franca. Even though international programmes are offered in the university, it hosts a smaller percentage of foreign students compared to the universities in the capital.

The participants of the study were divided by their year level and gender. In terms of year level, there were 45 first-year students, 37 second-year students, 17 third-year students, and 7 fifth-year students. With regard to gender, 40 of the participants were male and 66 were female. The study employed convenience sampling to select participants.

The study employed two survey tools. The first was the Foreign Language Gratitude Scale)Wilang, 2022(, containing 19 gratitude antecedents, chosen for its development from feedback by students in Thailand. Two factors, "Positive Reinforcement" and "Language Practice", emerged from a principal component analysis. "Positive Reinforcement" encompasses antecedents like "encourage to do better" and "foreign language activities are encouraging", while "Language Practice" features items such as "positive impact" and "productive activities".

The second instrument was the 12-item Language Mindset Survey)Puvacharonkul & Wilang, 2020(. Six dimensions are examined: General Viewpoint of Own Ability, Challenges, Obstacles, Effort, Criticisms, and Success of Others. Each category presents items reflecting both fixed and growth mindsets. For example, in the Criticisms dimension, growth mindset learners anticipate constructive feedback, whereas their fixed mindset counterparts struggle with such feedback.

Both questionnaires were rendered in Thai to ensure clarity and ease of understanding for the respondents. The response options ranged from Strongly Disagree)1(to Strongly Agree)4(. Regarding reliability, the Gratitude survey had a Cronbach's alpha of .92, showing excellent internal consistency. The Growth mindset statements achieved a respectable .76, while the Fixed mindset statements had moderate reliability (.56).

The questionnaires was constructed in Google forms and the link was sent to colleagues. They were requested to send the links to their students for participation. The guidelines or codes of relevant ethics employing human subjects follow the Declaration of Helsinki whereby all participants were informed of the nature of the research using a research protocol.

In terms of data analysis, both descriptive and correlational statistical methods were utilised. This involved computing mean scores and standard deviations, as well as determining correlation coefficients to examine the relationships between different variables.

The study employed a scale to gauge gratitude levels. Participants who registered scores from 1.00 to 1.75 were labelled as “Ungrateful”. Scores between 1.76 and 2.50 resulted in a classification of “Somewhat Ungrateful”. Those achieving scores from 2.51 to 3.25 were recognised as “Somewhat Grateful”, and participants with scores ranging from 3.26 to 4.00 were identified as “Very Grateful”.

For mindset evaluation, the average score was calculated, where a higher score in each domain signified an inclination towards either a fixed or growth mindset.

Results

With regard to the first research question on the level of gratitude among the participants (see Table 1) all antecedents of gratitude were interpreted as “Very grateful”. The item, “I would be grateful when my output becomes better in the English language class,” recorded the highest mean score, indicating it was the most agreed-upon sentiment among the participants. The item with the second highest mean score was “...when all are treated equally in the English language class”.

Table 1
Gratitude Survey

Item.... I would be thankful/grateful/appreciative...	M, SD	Interpretation
<i>Positive reinforcement</i>		
... when I am encouraged to do better in the English language class.	3.47, .55	Very grateful
... when my mistakes or errors are corrected in the English language class.	3.57, .51	Very grateful
... when media resources are used in the English language class.	3.46, .55	Very grateful
... of practical knowledge shared in the English language class.	3.50, .52	Very grateful
... of examples provided in the English language class.	3.47, .62	Very grateful
...when all are treated equally in the English language class.	3.62, .54	Very grateful

... when the English language activities are encouraging.	3.37, .51	Very grateful
... of language practice provided in the English language class.	3.50, .57	Very grateful
... when the English language class is managed effectively.	3.53, .51	Very grateful
... when my English language output is appreciated.	3.35, .50	Very grateful
... appreciative of open mindedness in the English language class.	3.30, .55	Very grateful
<i>Language practice</i>		
... when comprehension is one of the goals of the English language lesson.	3.52, .60	Very grateful
... when I experienced a positive impact in my English language class.	3.46, .55	Very grateful
... of having students who can speak fluent English in the English language class.	3.53, .50	Very grateful
... when productive activities are done in the English language class.	3.45, .55	Very grateful
... when my output becomes better in the English language class.	3.64, .51	Very grateful
... when an advice is provided in the English language class.	3.55, .51	Very grateful
... when English language learning opportunities are provided.	3.59, .49	Very grateful
... when ideas are shared in the English language class.	3.45, .51	Very grateful

Table 2 shows that all aspects of the mindset assessment pointed to a prevalent fixed mindset among the participants. The students strongly agreed with the statement, "When other students do better than me in the English language class, it makes me feel inferior" (highest mean score of 2.75),

Table 2
Language Mindset Survey

Item	M, SD	Interpretation
<i>General viewpoint of own ability</i>		
I can do things differently in the English language class, but the important parts of who I am can't really be changed.	2.59, .75	<i>Fixed mindset</i>
I can always change basic things about the kind of person I am when I learn English.	2.18, .90	
<i>Success of others</i>		

When other students do better than me in the English language class, it makes me feel inferior.	2.75, .87	<i>Fixed mindset</i>
When other students succeed in our English language classes, I feel inspired.	2.00, .86	
<i>Challenges</i>		
In the English language class, I avoid to try things that are hard.	2.29, .81	<i>Fixed mindset</i>
Feeling challenged in learning English makes me want to try harder.	2.02, .83	
<i>Obstacles</i>		
I usually quit when something gets difficult in the English language class.	2.71, .95	<i>Fixed mindset</i>
I don't mind making mistakes in the English language class because I can learn.	2.18, .89	
<i>Effort</i>		
If I have to work hard during the English language class, it means I am not smart.	2.64, .92	<i>Fixed mindset</i>
The more difficult the English task is, the more motivated I become to put in effort.	2.40, .88	
<i>Criticisms</i>		
In the English language classroom, I dislike negative feedback on my performance even if it will make me improve.	2.41, .90	<i>Fixed mindset</i>
In studying English, I rarely take criticisms as personal attacks.	2.27, .93	

Table 3 reveals a high level of gratitude among all participants. However, when it comes to mindset, all year levels predominantly exhibited a fixed mindset, with the exception of third-year students who had equal mean scores for both growth and fixed mindsets. It is noteworthy to mention that second-year students, despite having the highest level of gratitude, predominantly held a fixed mindset.

According to the gender-based analysis, female students exhibited a higher level of gratitude compared to males. However, both genders predominantly displayed a fixed mindset, with males demonstrating a higher level of this mindset.

Table 3
Descriptive Results Based on Year Level and Gender

Background variable	Gratitude M, SD	Growth Mindset M, SD	Fixed Mindset M, SD
<i>Year level</i>			
1)n=45(3.51, .34	2.19, .64	2.57, .56

2)n=37(3.54, .37	2.03, .59	2.65, .50
3)n=17(3.41, .32	2.42, .53	2.42, .35
5)n=7(3.33, .36	2.33, .36	2.45, .18
<i>Gender</i>			
M)n=40(3.44, .37	2.15, .63	2.60, .51
F)n=66(3.52, .34	2.20, .59	2.55, .49

Table 4 indicates a significant correlation between gratitude and a growth mindset. Conversely, no correlation was observed between gratitude and a fixed mindset.

Table 4
Relationship between Gratitude and Mindset

	Growth mindset	Fixed mindset
Gratitude	.32**	-.11

***Significance at 0.01 level*

Discussion and Conclusion

The study showed that Thai students, in general, exhibit a strong sense of gratitude in their language learning process, aligning with the findings of Wilang)2022(. Some possible reasons could be cultural and Thais' high regard for teachers. In many Asian cultures, including Thailand, gratitude is a deeply ingrained value. This cultural emphasis on gratitude could potentially influence Thai students' approach to language learning, making them more appreciative of the learning process and resources available to them. Also, teachers are held in high esteem, and there is a strong tradition of showing respect and gratitude to them. This might translate into a generally grateful attitude towards language learning, as students appreciate the knowledge imparted by their teachers.

The findings on mindset among the participants in the study, however, is alarming. Unlike previous studies)Wilang, 2022(, students have indicated fixed mindsets in all aspects of language learning. There could be several possible reasons why students in rural areas might exhibit a fixed mindset in language learning. Rural areas often have fewer educational resources compared to urban areas, including access to qualified language teachers, books, and technology. This lack of resources might lead students to believe that their ability to learn a language is fixed and cannot be improved significantly (Hernandez, 2019). Also, unlike in Bangkok, living in a rural area might mean less exposure to different languages and cultures compared to those living in urban areas. This limited exposure could lead students to believe they cannot become proficient in a foreign language, thus fostering a fixed mindset. If students in rural areas do not see examples of individuals in their community who have successfully learned a new language, they might be more likely to develop a fixed mindset about their own language learning potential. Another reason could be the traditional educational practices that emphasise rote

learning and do not encourage exploration and experimentation. If schools in rural areas are more likely to use such practices, this might contribute to students developing a fixed mindset.

It is possible that the intricate nature of these beliefs, or even the methodologies employed in this study, carry inherent limitations to the current study. Understanding these complex beliefs and the circumstances that foster them is essential. As such, upcoming research could probe more extensively into the wider psychological and societal repercussions of the detected fixed mindset attitudes. Further studies could also focus on students with fixed mindsets, examining the potential reciprocal relationships between gratitude, a fixed mindset, and language acquisition. Exploring other affective components, such as motivation and engagement, could also provide valuable insights.

Being grateful and having growth mindset are highly correlated as the former is reinforce of positivity (Adler & Fagley, 2005; Emmons & McCullough, 2003; Froh et al., 2008; Howells, 2004; King & Datu, 2018; Wangwang, 2015). In this study, the relationship might be explained by several factors. As previously mentioned in the literature, gratitude is associated with positive emotions and resilience, both of which can promote a growth mindset. When individuals are grateful, they are more likely to have a positive outlook, which can help them view challenges as opportunities for growth rather than insurmountable obstacles. Like the findings in the current study, grateful individuals often appreciate not just their accomplishments, but also the process of learning itself. This appreciation can foster a growth mindset by encouraging learners to value effort, embrace challenges, and see mistakes as opportunities for learning and improvement. As gratitude involves recognising the support one has received from others, this recognition can promote a growth mindset by helping learners realise that their abilities and achievements are not solely the result of innate talent, but also the support and guidance they have received along the way. Lastly, gratitude can improve motivation and engagement, which are key components of a growth mindset. When learners are grateful, they are more likely to be motivated to learn and engage deeply with their learning, which can foster a growth mindset.

This study has demonstrated that undergraduate students in rural areas, while exhibiting high levels of gratitude in their language learning, predominantly hold a fixed mindset. Importantly, the findings also reveal a strong correlation between gratitude and a growth mindset. This underscores the complex interplay between students' attitudes towards language learning, their belief in their ability to improve, and their appreciation of the learning process. The patterns observed highlight the potential for interventions that aim to enhance both gratitude and a growth mindset in language learning settings, particularly in rural contexts. Perhaps a longitudinal study might provide a more in-depth understanding of how gratitude and mindset evolve in the realm of language learning as time progresses. And given that gratitude may be perceived as a personality trait among EFL students in Southeast Asia, particularly in Thailand, it seems plausible to design intervention studies addressing the myriad challenges associated with English language learning.

Promoting a growth mindset in language learning, particularly in rural areas, requires a multifaceted approach. Here are a few strategies teachers can employ.

- Emphasise that it is not just innate talent but also effort, strategy, and persistence that lead to learning and improvement. Praise students for their hard work and dedication, not just their outcomes.
- Create a classroom culture where mistakes are viewed as a natural part of the learning process, not something to be feared or avoided. When students make mistakes, guide them towards understanding what went wrong and how they can improve.
- Help students set language learning goals that stretch their abilities but are still within their reach. Achieving these goals can boost their confidence and reinforce the belief that they can improve their skills with effort and practice.
- Provide diverse and engaging learning materials and experiences to spark the interest of students in rural areas who have limited exposure to different languages and cultures in order to expand their horizons.
- Foster an environment where students can learn from and support each other. This can help them see that everyone struggles and improves, reinforcing the idea of growth mindset.
- Model a growth mindset by demonstrating enthusiasm for learning, openness to feedback, and willingness to make and learn from mistakes.
- Teach students about the concept of a growth mindset and its benefits explicitly through discussions, activities, or integrating mindset themes into the language curriculum.

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LANGUAGE LEARNING THROUGH TASK-BASED SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION

Suhaila MUKHTAR¹
Nik Aloesnita NIK MOHD ALWI*²
Fatimah ALI³
Nor Shidrah MAT DAUD⁴
Asiah KASSIM⁵
Ainol Haryati IBRAHIM⁶
Nuraihan MAT DAUD⁷

¹University College of Yayasan Pahang, Malaysia

^{2,3,5,6}Universiti Malaysia Pahang Al-Sultan Abdullah, Malaysia

²Industrial University of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

⁴Universiti Teknologi MARA Selangor branch, Malaysia

⁷International Islamic University Malaysia, Malaysia

suhailla@ucyp.edu.my

aloesnita@umpsa.edu.my

tym@umpsa.edu.my

norshidrah@uitm.edu.my

asiah@umpsa.edu.my

ainol66@gmail.com

nmatdaud@gmail.com

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

A limited number of studies have been conducted on the influence of task features on language production in computer-mediated communication (CMC) environments despite the role of tasks on the language production of L2 students who are mostly non-native speakers (NNSs). Among the prominent hypotheses on the relationship between tasks and language production are the Cognition Hypothesis and the Trade-Off Hypothesis. The current study examined the effect of task structure on student language production in terms of syntactic complexity and fluency in CMC

environments. A one-shot design study involved 46 NNS undergraduates in Malaysia and Japan. The respondents were divided into two groups: (1) respondents who performed the task with task structure (+TS) and (2) respondents who performed the task without task structure (-TS). The data were then analysed using a t-test. The present study supported the hypothesis positing that the utilisation of +TS contributes to an increase in syntactic complexity among NNSs, as well as the hypothesis proposing that the use of +TS results in improved fluency. The results also suggest examining additional variables related to task difficulty when designing tasks for CMC environments to assess their effects on fluency and syntactic complexity.

Keywords: CMC; fluency; syntactic complexity; TBLT; task structure

Introduction

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) has garnered considerable attention and recognition for its efficacy in facilitating language acquisition. This is particularly evident due to the COVID-19 pandemic, when individuals, including teachers and students, increasingly rely on various CMC platforms to maintain social connections and engage in leisure activities (Meier et al., 2021). As a result, prior studies on technologies in language education have been conducted on CMC due to its medium for students to benefit from the interaction.

There is a prevailing belief that tasks impact the process of eliciting particular language elements. According to Yongping (2022), tasks, more than just activities, are the foundation of classroom activities and tools for providing learners with challenging yet understandable language input. They provide opportunities for learners to interact and negotiate meaning, which is essential for effectively learning a new language. The importance of well-designed tasks in language learning and teaching provides a rationale for examining the connection between second language learning and task-based language learning and teaching (TBLT). TBLT is grounded in the notion that engaging students in authentic language use within the classroom can be achieved through task performance. Despite differences in the conceptualisation of TBLT among researchers, most agree that tasks promote the three dimensions of language acquisition: complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). Even though research on technology and tasks has been actively conducted, particularly on the significance of task design and conditions in online settings on specific language features, there has been a demand for more empirical research. Hence, it is useful to discover the influence of tasks on the interlanguage system by investigating the effects of task structure on the dimensions of language acquisition of non-native speakers (NNSs).

Literature Review

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC)

Using CMC for second language learning could benefit NNSs, particularly when the design, use, and evaluation of CMC activities are guided by sound pedagogic rationales (Korvesi & Michel, 2022). This is because CMC supports the Interaction Hypothesis. The Interaction Hypothesis forms a foundational argument for conversational interaction in language teaching and learning, in which students have access to comprehensible input, outcomes, and corrections presented in conversations (Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019).

The use of CMC in educational settings provides NNSs with enhanced opportunities for interaction that extend beyond the confines of the traditional classroom. This encompasses the necessary possibilities for meaningful negotiation crucial for meaningful learning (Choo et al., 2014). For example, Yin and Satar (2020) investigated the impact of assessing the frequency and patterns of Negotiation for Meaning (NfM) in CMC interactions on enhancing foreign language learning. The study revealed that individuals with lower language proficiency levels experienced positive outcomes from engaging with educational agents. However, Yin and Satar also found that individuals with greater proficiency showed discontent. Behney and Gass (2021) also reveal that interaction may not immediately affect language development. These conflicting findings reflect the intricate and dynamic influence of technology on language development.

In a second language (L2) classroom with CMC, NNSs may engage in either synchronous (e.g., text chats, video conferencing) or asynchronous (e.g., email, discussion forums) modes of learning. The distinction between these modes can be categorised by the response time, presence, and resource types. Since the COVID-19 pandemic, synchronous learning has become even more embedded in L2 learning and teaching. Nevertheless, prior studies have identified multifaceted challenges during the switch to synchronous online language learning because of the pandemic. Zhang and Wu (2022) revealed four key difficulties Chinese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students face during synchronous online language learning: a lack of the traditional learning environment, the need for increased learner autonomy, changes in interaction patterns, and adaptation to remote assessment methods. These challenges create obstacles in understanding tasks, the most significant variable that determines the effectiveness of CMC activities (Smith & González-Lloret, 2021). Considering the positive outcomes of student interaction on CMC in the study by Belda-Medina (2021), the challenges could be due to digital material quality, pedagogical technology integration, and peer-to-peer interaction, not due to the nature of CMC.

A task is the key to constructing TBLT (Ellis, 2003). TBLT provides multiple inputs, production, and feedback (Lin et al., 2014) It includes experiential and goal-oriented learning that emphasises student engagement with real-world communicative tasks to produce comprehensible language output (Ortega, 2015). According to Leow (2015), language output is not merely a product but a learning process. While completing a task, multiple language acquisition processes occur (i.e., noticing the gap, hypothesis testing, and automatising), which could be manifested

in the output. The process is also influenced by task repetition, planning time, and task complexity (Korvesi & Michel, 2022). Despite the role of tasks in CMC, a limited number of studies have been conducted on the influence of task structure on language production in CMC.

Task Complexity

Task complexity is a concept that is challenging to define. According to the structuralist point of view, task complexity is determined by the structure of a task as well as the requirements placed on a task, a product, or a creation to resemble human-task interaction (Liu & Li, 2012). Bayuk and Patrick (2021) include three dimensions of complexity to define complexity: component complexity, coordinative complexity, and dynamic complexity, and is structured in a way that requires high cognitive demands on the task performer.

Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency (CAF)

Since the 1980s, complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) have been identified as reliable measurements in language learning. The triad has predominantly become the dependent variable in most Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies related to language production and language proficiency since the 1990s (Pallotti, 2020). Prior studies on task complexity provide significant and insignificant evidence of CAF in language production.

It has been discovered that manipulating variables in task complexity reduces syntactic complexity and increases lexical complexity (Frear & Bitchener, 2015). However, Cho (2018) found that task complexity only results in increased phrasal-level syntactic complexity, decreased accuracy, and unaffected fluency. In addition, studies on resource-dispersing variables, such as those by Khatib and Farahanynia (2020) and Shajeri and Izadpanah (2016), highlighted the nuanced interplay between task complexity, cognitive demands, and language output, with cognitive task complexity proportionate with the nature of task types. Even though Takahashi (2015) demonstrated that certain tasks posed a greater challenge to participants in terms of complexity and accuracy, influencing the overall quality of their performance, its relatively small sample size limited the ability to generalise the findings to a larger population.

Fluency, on the other hand, in studies on the +single task variable, as revealed by Shajeri and Izadpanah (2016), who discovered that complex task groups who were given scrambled order tasks performed significantly better, was significantly higher in groups that were given scrambled order tasks. In addition, fluency is also evident in Khatib and Farahanynia's (2020) study when a combination of strategic planning and task repetition results in a higher speech rate in a task with higher complexity. In addition, Staples et al. (2016) reveal a significant relationship between academic level and the use of phrasal complexity features in writing. However, the use of clausal

complexity features in student writing, particularly finite dependent clauses, decreases as the academic level increases.

Task Complexity and Cognition Hypothesis

Robinson (2001) states that the complexity of a task is determined by the structure of the task, including attentional, memory, reasoning, and information. Task complexity, which is introduced in the Cognition Hypothesis (CH), uses CAF to measure the representation and restructuring of interlanguage development (accuracy and complexity) as well as control and automatising of L2 knowledge (fluency). The hypothesis is generally used to make predictions about the cognitive operations and attentional resources affecting L2 development, though Robinson's CH takes an alternative view that students possess multiple attentional resources. CH distinguishes between resource-directing dimensions of task complexity, in which the cognitive demands of tasks direct attention to aspects of the second language that can be used to perform them, and resource-dispersing dimensions of task complexity, which increase attentional and other cognitive demands without directing attentional or memory resources to any aspects of language that can be used to accomplish the task (Robinson, 2010).

CAF are three common measures in language and linguistic literature. According to Abdi Tabari and Miller (2021), as CAF elements belong to different attentional resources, complexity, and accuracy can be attended to concurrently with possible declines in fluency. Robinson (2010) later augmented CH with the Triadic Componential Framework (TCF), renamed the Stabilise, Simplify, Automate, Reconstruct and Complexify (SSARC) Model. Several variables have been tested in TCF to identify their effects on students' complexity, accuracy, and fluency in language performance. They are task complexity, task condition, and task difficulty.

Task complexity refers to the level of difficulty associated with the completion of a given task. Multiple factors are involved. The resource-direction variables determine the mental effort required. When a task necessitates the management of multiple elements, its complexity increases due to the requirement of simultaneously monitoring numerous variables. Moreover, certain tasks necessitate comprehending or anticipating others' intentions, rendering them more straightforward or complex. Likewise, tasks that entail the process of reasoning about cause-and-effect relationships exhibit a range of complexities. In contrast, the resource-dispersing variables encompass elements such as the structural characteristics of the task, the amount of time allocated for planning, and the individual's existing knowledge. Tasks with a well-defined structure tend to exhibit reduced complexity, as the individual executing the task clearly understands the sequential steps needed. The presence of a sufficient amount of time for planning can lead to a reduction in complexity, whereas a scarcity of time can exacerbate the difficulty of tasks. Additionally, prior knowledge can facilitate the completion of tasks by allowing individuals to leverage their existing knowledge as a foundation for further learning and problem-solving.

The concept of task condition pertains to the specific context in which a task is executed and its impact on the dynamics of interactions. It incorporates two fundamental components. When making interactional demands, assessing whether the task at hand has an open-ended solution, involves a limited number of respondents, or necessitates negotiation is important. Open-ended tasks frequently require participants to engage in more extensive discussions, augmenting complexity. A limited number of participants possess the ability to simplify interactions, whereas the inclusion of negotiation requirements can contribute to the heightened intricacy. The respondent variables making interactional demands; however, pertain to the attributes and traits of the individuals engaged in the interaction. The performance of tasks can be influenced by factors such as the similarity of participants' proficiency levels, their gender composition, and their shared cultural background. For instance, when individuals possess comparable proficiency levels, interactions could be streamlined, and complexity could be diminished.

On the other hand, task difficulty associated with a task is influenced by many factors contributing to its perceived challenge. There exist two principal categories to be taken into consideration. Firstly, the concept of ability variables and task-relevant resource allocation will be discussed. Differential factors encompass various cognitive abilities, including working memory capacity, task-switching skills, and reasoning abilities. Individuals with a high working memory capacity possess an enhanced ability to manage intricate tasks effectively. Conversely, individuals who exhibit proficiency in task-switching demonstrate a streamlined capacity to seamlessly transition between various components of a given task. Secondly, the impact of affective variables and task-relevant states on individuals' performance. Trait differential refers to the examination and analysis of emotional and motivational aspects. The willingness for communication, motivation, and self-efficacy have significant roles. The willingness to communicate can alleviate the challenges associated with interactive situations, while a high level of motivation can enhance engagement and mitigate the perception of tasks as overwhelming. The perception of task difficulty can be influenced by an individual's level of self-efficacy, which is a measure of confidence.

In brief, task complexity, task condition, and task difficulty are intricate constructs subject to diverse factors' influence. These factors encompass the inherent nature of the task, the attributes of the individuals involved, and the unique interplay of individual abilities and emotions. Gaining an understanding of these factors can facilitate individuals and organisations in effectively managing and enhancing the execution of tasks and interactions. Robinson (2001) proposes that complex tasks along the resource-directing dimension push greater development of complexity and accuracy, while fluency has less impact on language production. On the other hand, language accuracy and complexity are expected to decrease when the task is made complex along the resource-dispersing dimension. In accordance with that, a great deal of focus has been devoted to examining the effects of task complexity on the language production of L2 students. However, findings vary.

Task Complexity and Trade-off Hypothesis

The Trade-off Hypothesis by Skehan (2009) predicts a trade-off effect on attentional resources and ongoing processes during task performance (CAF) that results in the prioritisation of one (or two) areas due to the limitation of capacity. Thus, allocating attentional resources may negatively affect the performance of CAF, which requires attention and working memory (Skehan, 2009). According to Skehan, studies have been offering generalisations that support the Trade-Off Hypothesis, such as (1) tasks based on concrete or familiar information advantage accuracy and fluency; (2) tasks containing clear structure advantage accuracy and fluency; (3) interactive tasks advantage accuracy and complexity; (4) tasks requiring information manipulation lead to higher complexity; and (5) post-task conditions such as public performance or transcription of one's own performance raise accuracy.

Task Complexity and CMC

Differences in the medium of language output yield divergent outcomes, implying that outcomes of comparable studies under different task conditions may also differ. Most previous studies on task complexity have been conducted in real-time communication. As the findings of the studies could only be relevant to a similar mode of communication, studies on the influence of task structure on CAF in different modes of communication are on the rise, including those conducted in a CMC environment. Even so, CMC and real-time communications share many of the characteristics of spoken dialogues.

To conclude, the effects of task complexity on student language production have produced mixed results. However, a few variables are studied considerably less specifically in relation to the performance of tasks in CMC. As a result, the present study aimed to investigate the variable that has received less attention from researchers, specifically task structure, which is a resource-distributing variable, to examine its full potential in L2 learning and teaching in an online context.

The main motivation of this study was to investigate the effects of task structure on the language performance of NNS with regard to syntactic complexity and fluency in synchronous CMC environments. Accordingly, the current study examines two research questions as follows:

1. How does the task structure affect the language performance of NNSs in terms of syntactic complexity in synchronous CMC?
2. How does the task structure affect the language performance of NNSs in terms of fluency in synchronous CMC?

This leads to the formation of the following hypotheses:

H_{0a}: There is no relationship between task structure and the performance of syntactic complexity of NNSs in synchronous CMC.

H_{1a}: There is a relationship between task structure and the performance of syntactic complexity of NNSs in synchronous CMC.

H_{0b}: There is no relationship between task structure and the fluency of NNSs in synchronous CMC.

H_{1b}: There is a relationship between task structure and the fluency of NNSs in synchronous CMC.

Methodology

This study used a mixed-method approach to ensure a thorough and well-rounded investigation.

The respondents were 46 non-native speakers (18 males, 28 females) of Japanese and Malaysian nationality, aged 22 to 25. All respondents were undergraduates who had completed at least one year of formal English language study at the postsecondary level and had completed formal English language learning in elementary and secondary schools. The respondents' ability to understand, produce, and participate in English communication was used to determine their proficiency level. The respondents were determined to be at an intermediate level of English proficiency based on their ability to comprehend phrases and sentences written and spoken in English, as well as read and produce complex sentences and verbally exchange information on topics that were already familiar to them. They were grouped as having a proficiency level between B1 and high B2 levels according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

The current study employed a one-shot experimental design with two task implementation factors designed for the respondents, namely: (1) tasks without task structure (-TS) and (2) tasks with task structure (+TS).

The respondents of the current study were divided into two groups: (1) respondents who were provided with +TS and (2) respondents who were provided with -TS. Each group experienced four sessions via Zoom, that is, icebreaker session, discussion session, presentation session, and semi-structured interview. The instructions were sent to the +TS and -TS groups via email 15 minutes before the start of the first session. All information for the sessions was shared through Google Drive. This allowed respondents to interact synchronously with one another to produce slides.

The respondents from both countries met up virtually in the first session, the ice-breaking session. During the session, they took turns introducing themselves to one another. They exchanged information on topics such as movies, actors or singers, cartoon characters, and hobbies. They also shared information about what they had in common. The respondents left this session feeling comfortable with one another, which was the intended outcome. The second session, the discussion session, took place immediately after the ice-breaking session. During the discussion, respondents were required to discuss in groups the benefits and drawbacks of online learning in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. The respondents in the +TS group were given

instructions that guided the discussion points while completing the task. On the other hand, the respondents in the -TS group were given basic instructions to complete the task without guidance to conduct the group discussion. They were expected to freely interact with one another to reach the goal of the task.

Then, the respondents produced presentation slides that lasted between seven and 10 minutes. A presentation rubric was also provided to the students so they would be aware of the expected performance criteria and standards. The analysis of the current study included the interaction and the language output produced by the respondents during the sessions. The final session, the semi-structured interview, was administered for a period of between 15 and 20 minutes for each group. The meeting was held online through Google Meet. Its primary objective was to collect additional data on phenomena that cannot be directly observed, such as the students' self-reported perceptions or attitudes (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The interview questions were also provided to the respondents 30 minutes before the interview started to allow them time to prepare better. During the interview, probing questions were posed when necessary to support the main data.

Results

According to Ellis (2003), the number of words per an analysis of speech unit (AS-unit) is the metric that is used to evaluate syntactic complexity, while the number of words per minute is the metric that is utilised to evaluate fluency. This product-based measure has been employed in many related studies. It was selected in the current study for two reasons. First, it has ecological validity that can be used in curriculum-based assessment, and second, it allows the results of the study to be compared with the findings of previous studies (Abdi Tabari & Miller, 2021).

The results for the impact of +TS, from the t-test, on the respondents' syntactic complexity and fluency of language production are summarised in Table 1. With the availability of task structure (+TS), the respondents managed to produce a minimum of two (2) AS-units (Respondent E and Respondent F) and a maximum of five (5) AS-units (Respondent B and Respondent C). The mean for syntactic complexity of the +TS group was 3.6. In terms of fluency, Respondent D achieved the highest number of words per minute (34 words per minute), while Respondent E and Respondent F scored 0 words per minute.

Table 1
Levels of Syntactic Complexity and Fluency (+TS Group)

Task Structure	Respondent	Syntactic Complexity	Fluency
+TS	A	4	22
+TS	B	5	18
+TS	C	5	28
+TS	D	4	34

+TS	E	2	0
+TS	F	2	0

The results for the impact of -TS, from the t-test, on the respondents' syntactic complexity and fluency of language production are summarised in Table 2. Without the task structure (-TS), the respondents managed to produce a minimum of two AS-unit (Respondent I) and a maximum of four AS-unit (Respondent G, Respondent J, Respondent K, and Respondent L). The mean for syntactic complexity of the -TS group was 3.5. In terms of fluency, Respondent K achieved the highest number of words per minute (31 words per minute), while Respondent I scored two (2) words per minute.

Table 2
Levels of Syntactic Complexity and Fluency (-TS Group)

Task Structure	Respondent	Syntactic Complexity	Fluency
-TS	G	4	19
-TS	H	3	10
-TS	I	2	2
-TS	J	4	29
-TS	K	4	31
-TS	L	4	20

Following analysis of the data presented in Table 1 and Table 2, several observations were made regarding task structure's impact on syntactic complexity and fluency. The mean score for syntactic complexity was 3.6 for the respondents in the +TS group, while the respondents in the -TS group had a mean score of 3.5. Furthermore, it was observed that Respondent B and Respondent C belonging to the +TS group, showed the maximum AS-unit score of 5, while the highest AS-unit score recorded among respondents from the -TS group was 4. The results suggest that the respondents from the +TS group showed a greater number and mean of AS-unit, despite the marginal difference between the two groups. This suggests that task structure has a favourable impact on syntactic complexity. With respect to fluency, Respondent D from the +TS group attained the highest number of words per minute (34 words per minute), while Respondent K from the -TS group achieved the highest number of words per minute (31 words per minute). This implies the positive influence of task structure on fluency.

Table 3 summarises the findings on the influence of task complexity on syntactic complexity and fluency discovered in the current study. The data were analysed using a t-test in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27. The goal was to determine whether or not there was a significant difference between the +TS and -TS groups. In the analysis, a *p*-value of 0.05 was chosen as the threshold.

Table 3

The p-value for Syntactic Complexity and Fluency

Hypothesis	<i>p</i> -value	Significance level
H1 _a	0.46	0.05
H1 _b	0.75	0.05

According to Table 3, the *p*-value for syntactic complexity (H_a) was 0.46. On the other hand, the *p*-value for fluency (H_b) was 0.75. This indicates that task structure had a higher influence on fluency than on the syntactic complexity of NNSs.

Another collection method of the current study was a semi-structured interview. Based on the interview, the respondents from the +TS group perceived task structure as allowing careful consideration of the aspects that should be incorporated.

At first, it looks like an easy topic (task), but when we start reading the questions on what to include in the presentation, we took some time to think of our points. (Respondent A, +TS)

According to Respondent A (+TS), task structure allows access to cognitive processing. Access to cognitive processing allows NNSs to have a better ability to analyse and generate intricate syntactic structures. For example, there was a positive impact of task structure on syntactic complexity. The following depictions are excerpts derived from the respondents. Respondent B and Respondent D belonged to the +TS group.

I think it affects in terms of travelling with my family, or the people near me in terms of economy and financial, I think.' (Respondent B, +TS)

'My brother first, second, third, and fourth were all far from home, so during the COVID-19 pandemic, they had difficulties travelling. (Respondent D, +TS)

The extracted keywords from Respondent B's and Respondent D's written responses demonstrated their attention to the specific aspects of the topic outlined in the task guide (+TS). These keywords included terms related to travel, economics, finance, and ordinal numbers such as first, second, third, and fourth. This indicated that though the respondents were attentive to the given task, they could produce synthetically complex sentences. Despite NNSs having to concentrate on the task's content and structure, they still paid attention to the language mechanics. To illustrate, there was an observable increase in the syntactic complexity of the language produced by NNSs in the +TS group. This finding implies that a greater cognitive load from task structure positively influences syntactic complexity.

In contrast, the samples obtained from Respondent H and Respondent J demonstrated that language production with greater syntactic complexity was observed in less cognitively complex tasks involving resource-dispersing variables (-TS). This enabled NNSs to allocate more attention to the writing systems and/or processes than the translating process. Accordingly, the result of the interview

demonstrated that tasks with lower cognitive complexity along the resource-dispersing variable (-TS) led to more syntactically complex language production.

The bad point is that when we learn and have online learning classes, sometimes we have difficulties understanding, and it's really hard for us to meet the lecturer. (Respondent H, -TS)

So, do you agree to move on to online classes even after the COVID-19 pandemic or just during the pandemic? (Respondent J, -TS)

Hypothesis 1b stated that task structure encouraged NNSs to achieve greater fluency but was not sufficiently supported in terms of fluency. According to the interview, Respondent D, who was in the group with task structure (+TS), scored the highest level of fluency because task structure provided pre-made chunks and useful prompts for interactions.

Discussion

Guided by the Cognition Hypothesis, the Trade-off Hypothesis, task structure, and CAF, this study investigated the influence of task structure on fluency and syntactic complexity in a CMC environment. NNSs of English attempted the developed tasks set in the environment. The task complexity varied depending on the task structure. The variable was represented by +TS and -TS symbols, with +TS denoting a task with structure and -TS without structure.

Two hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 1a posited a correlation between the task structure and the syntactic complexity of NNSs in synchronous CMC which was studied through the number of words per an analysis of speech unit (AS-unit). Meanwhile, Hypothesis 1b dictated a correlation between task structure and the fluency of NNSs in synchronous CMC, which was studied through the number of words per minute.

A synchronous CMC environment generally allows for interaction between NNSs of different nationalities. Due to the respondents' similar proficiency levels, the data during the icebreaker, discussion, and presentation sessions could be collected. During the interactions, there is evidence of meaningful negotiation through the respondents' use of the two types of conversational modifications (i.e., communication strategies and speech modifications) outlined by Wagner (1996). Therefore, the current study concludes that interactions can occur with or without task structures in a synchronous CMC environment. However, the current study concludes that NNSs receiving task structures can produce more words per AS unit and minute, suggesting a positive relationship between task structure and syntactic complexity and fluency. This conclusion is in accordance with interactionist research findings, which have recognised the influence of tasks in advancing the development of syntactic complexity (Mancilla et al., 2017) and fluency (Cheon, 2003) among NNSs.

The current study provides sufficient evidence to support the relationship between task structure and the performance of syntactic complexity of NNSs in

synchronous CMC. Tasks with structure (+TS) encourage NNSs to produce words with greater syntactic complexity. The findings of the current study, obtained from the online interaction and interview, provide evidence in favour of one theoretical claim of the Cognition Hypothesis, which is that the increased cognitive demands of tasks contribute to increased complexity along certain dimensions, thereby pushing students to greater accuracy and complexity of L2 production to meet the greater functional and conceptual communicative demands they place on the student (Robinson & Gilabert, 2007).

In addition, the current study provides sufficient evidence to support the relationship between task structure and the fluency of NNSs in synchronous CMC. This indicates that tasks with task structure (+TS) prompt NNSs to produce more words to represent their language fluency. This is aligned with the Cognition Hypothesis that the increasing resource-directing variables positively influence fluency (Robinson, 2001). Therefore, the claim that the increased load of task structure results in less fluency among NNSs is rejected. The present findings concur with Jackson and Suethanapornkul (2013), who concluded the negative effect of increasing task demands on fluency, and also with Tavakoli and Foster (2011), who found that simple tasks reduced the cognitive processing load, hence allowing for more attention to be dedicated to fluency.

While Skehan's Trade-off Hypothesis posits that individuals, including NNSs, possess a finite capacity for attention (Choong, 2011), the current study's heightened cognitive demand for pedagogical tasks benefits NNSs. This is because the heightened cognitive demand of pedagogical tasks requires access to familiar solutions to tasks (known as cognitive familiarity) and the division of solutions to new problems (known as cognitive processing), which can potentially improve syntactic complexity and fluency. Combining cognitive familiarity and cognitive processing allows NNSs to leverage their existing knowledge by expanding their sentence structure repertoire and applying it appropriately in different contexts as structured in the task. The findings of the current study are also against the claim made by Johnson (2017) that a reduction in resource-dispersing sources of task complexity can alleviate the components of working memory, enabling allocating more attention to the language outputs. The findings also reject the conclusion by Kellogg (1996) and Kellogg et al. (2013) that task structure promoted attention to the formulation and monitoring systems of the writing but comparatively reduced attention to the language production process. In short, as NNSs focus on the task structure to direct CMC interaction, they are attentive to adhering to the task as well as producing more words and words of complex language forms.

Even so, there were outliers in the data of the current study. Respondent E and Respondent F produced the lowest number of words per AS-unit (2) and per minute (0) despite being given tasks with task structure. This could be before output anxiety. Previous studies have examined the impact of task structure on CAF by utilising the input, processing, and output anxiety scale (IPOAS) that was used to evaluate the extent of respondents' anxiety to produce L2 input (Robinson, 2007) successfully. The omission of the use of IPOAS in the current study raises concerns

about the level of anxiety of the respondents, even though anxiety has been shown to have a detrimental effect on general and specific task performance measures, as well as on the four core language skills (Trebits, 2016). Therefore, the exclusion of IPOAS warrants further consideration in future research.

The unavailability of the use of IPOAS put the level of anxiety of respondents of the current study in the dark, even though anxiety harms both general and specific task performance measures and concerns the four core language skills (Trebits, 2016). The unavailability of IPOAS has left the respondents in a state of uncertainty regarding their anxiety levels.

Conclusion

The fundamental objective of TBLT is centred on the utilisation of language to accomplish practical and authentic tasks. Various academic studies have indicated that task performance in synchronous CMC presents a viable opportunity for a significant interaction. Nevertheless, the identification of appropriate learning tasks for NNSs can prove to be a difficult undertaking. Therefore, it is imperative to prioritise the awareness of NNSs towards their language production.

The utilisation of task structure is a noteworthy mechanism for reducing cognitive complexity in acquiring a language. Compared to face-to-face communication, the reduced presence of paralinguistic cues in CMC allows for observing significant language interactions. The current study examined the claim in the Cognition Hypothesis that task complexity increases syntactic complexity and lowers fluency. It is discovered that increased task complexity via increased task demand (task structure) negatively impacts language output in terms of syntactic complexity and fluency in the context of the current study.

The current research has discovered that tasks, specifically task structure, negatively impact syntactic complexity and fluency. Future research endeavours may explore additional task complexity variables that could impact the fluency of NNSs' language performance, such as their willingness to communicate (WTC). Also, Staples et al. (2016) posit that the academic task genre, specifically argumentative versus comparative writing, may impact the metrics of syntactic complexity utilised in L2 writing. The statement can be associated with intricate elements inherent in scholarly compositions. Henceforth, it is recommended that future research opt for a specific task genre.

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MASTERY OF SPANISH MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX THROUGH E-LEARNING AMONG MALAYSIAN STUDENTS

Mariyati Mohd NOR^{*1}

Radhiah ISMAIL²

Salina HUSAIN³

Harnani Mat ZIN⁴

^{1,4}Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris, Malaysia

²Universiti Malaysia Terengganu, Malaysia

³Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

mariyati@fbk.upsi.edu.my

radhiah@umt.edu.my

linahusain@upm.edu.my

harnani@meta.upsi.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the usage of e-learning via an interactive blog in assisting student's morphology mastery and sentence construction in the Spanish language. Data presented in this study were gathered through 1) interviews with fifteen (15) students between 20 and 23 years old, who were registered in Spanish Communication Level 1 at Sultan Idris Education University, Malaysia, 2) questionnaire involving 45 students about the effectiveness of the blog as an e-learning platform, and 3) analysis of writing activities and evaluations in the blog and the classroom. The data were analysed using the descriptive-qualitative approach and supported by quantitative data. The findings indicated that the blog was viewed positively as a learning platform that provided out-of-classroom opportunities to learn the Spanish language. The usage of the blog helped elevate students' knowledge in mastering vocabulary, understanding the grammar system, and constructing grammatical sentences. The findings can guide Spanish language instructors in preparing suitable and attractive teaching and e-learning activities that contribute towards the understanding and proficiency of students learning Spanish as a foreign language.

Keywords: e-learning; morphology; syntax; Spanish as a Foreign Language

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has changed the university's foreign language teaching and learning medium from face-to-face to hybrid. E-learning among university students has become an effective learning method and contributes to more flexible surroundings. One of the most popular online discourses is blogging. It can be utilised as a learning platform that enhances writing performance and increases vocabulary acquisition. Previous research has shown that blogging has many benefits for teachers' professional development. As a communication tool, blogs encourage teacher cooperation and increase social interaction (Kamhi-Stein, 2000; Kuzu, 2007). Blogs also provide free and accessible avenues for teachers to conduct research and access diverse information and skills (Kuzu, 2007).

A study by Nor et al. (2021) indicated that blogs can also help students understand the topics taught in the classroom and assist in the mastery of the target language grammar system. While there are various studies looking into the role of blogs in foreign language teaching or as a reflective tool for ESL teachers (Bangou, 2011; Bangou & Fleming, 2010; Barbosa & Serrano, 2005; Killeavy & Moloney, 2010; Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Wu, 2006a; Wu, 2006b), in Malaysia, research on blogging have concentrated on the Malay language teaching and learning context (Rahim, 2014; Othman, 2010; Zaki et al., 2015).

The third language context, on the other hand, is less well investigated. Third languages, such as Spanish, also encounter challenges in teaching and learning and may benefit from similar usage of platforms (Husain et al., 2016; Ismail et al., 2022; Mansor et al., 2022).

This study from using a blog as an assisting tool for students' learning of Spanish as a third language. This action research investigates utilising blogs as an intervention to support students' learning of Spanish as a third language. The following research questions are addressed:

- i) What difficulties do students face in learning Spanish, and how can blogs assist students in overcoming these challenges?
- ii) How do blogs facilitate the mastery of Spanish morphology and the production of grammatically correct sentences (syntax) among beginner Spanish students?

Literature Review

Blogs can be defined as a meeting point for texts and visuals. Blogs utilise websites as interaction platforms, consisting of frequent posts on teaching and learning activities organised by reverse chronological date. The posts feature a hierarchy of texts, images, media objects and data (Blood, 2002; Herring et al., 2005; Winer, 2003). Blogs have been used as an intervention learning method for improving students' writing skills and comprehension of topics covered in class. They help facilitate personalised Spanish language learning opportunities. Thus, students can independently enhance their knowledge of the language (Kavaliauskiene et al., 2006).

Blogs can also be used to supplement traditional teaching and learning. A study by Hall and Davidson (2007) showed that blogs increase students' writing skills,

facilitated by the flexibility and multimodality of the platform. Bakar (2007) found that even lower-proficiency students can write constructively using blogs. This finding was further supported by Bakar and Ismail (2009), who studied Social Science students enrolled in a general English proficiency course. Their findings showed that blogs reduced obstacles in learning English by providing opportunities to write freely without penalty for grammatical mistakes. In another study, Hussin et al. (2010) conducted a classroom-based study involving 35 postgraduate students. Students were required to develop blogs using WordPress tools over 14 weeks. The blogs consisted of learning tutorials with texts and multimedia components and interactive exercises for teaching and learning purposes. Due to the potential of blogs as an effective tool in teaching and learning, Hussin et al. (2010) recommended that teacher education programmes should expose pre-service and in-service teachers to contemporary educational technologies and tools. Additionally, these programmes should maximise the application of pedagogical principles in delivering content using blogs and forums for effective teaching.

According to Godwin-Jones (2006), the advantages of using a blog as a writing tool include the following: it encourages feedback and represents both writing and reading activities; it promotes critical analysis and stimulates articulation of ideas and opinions; it provides an opportunity for collaborative learning and a suitable environment for students to expand their persuasion and argumentation skills; and it creates a student-centred learning environment and offers informal language reading materials.

Teaching activities used by language instructors to teach the Spanish language in Malaysia are closely related to the traditional teaching activities known as the Performance-Practice-Production (PPP) model. According to Cook (2008), the PPP model has become a trend among foreign language instructors for 30 years. As its name suggests, PPP is divided into three phases, moving from tight teacher control towards greater learner freedom. However, Criado (2013) cautioned that it is essential to understand that the PPP model is not the only method or approach that teachers can use to teach language components to adult language learners. Today's language learning classes benefit from the emergence of new pedagogical strategies that can assist learners and teachers in blended learning. A blog or weblog is one of these. This strategy combines face-to-face teaching and learning with suitable technology at the centre (Sharma & Barret, 2007).

Methodology

Participants and Instruments

This study utilises a mixed methods research design, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative approaches. This study employs triangulation, comparing datasets from both quantitative and qualitative sources. These include interviews with participants and questionnaires distributed to gather data on students' perceptions of blog usage to assist learning. Table 1 outlines the details of the instrument and participants.

Table 1*Details of Instrument and Participants*

Research Design	Instrument	Participant	Purpose
Quantitative	Questionnaire	45 participants enrolled in the Spanish Communication language course Level 1 at UPSI.	To gain data about the effectiveness of blog usage as an e-learning platform.
Qualitative	Interview	15 students aged between 20 to 23 years old who enrolled in Basic (level one) Spanish Language at UPSI.	To identify the challenges students face in learning Spanish in terms of grammar system. To identify how a blog can assist in overcoming issues in learning.
	Writing activities and evaluations in blog and classroom	30 sentences and 180 words were analysed.	To analyse writing activities and evaluations for vocabulary mastery and grammatical sentence construction.

Research Procedure

The Spanish teaching and learning blog was developed to supplement the limited resources of Spanish teaching and learning as well as increase the time for students to learn Spanish in UPSI (Figure 1). The blog includes a quick response (QR) scanning code for each topic in the students' reference book. The QR scanning code in the reference book is shown in Figure 2.

The QR Scanning code is directly connected to the learning blog. Students can access the module using the QR code to read and do the activities related to the taught topics. For example, they can learn about the verb *ser* – the definition and correct usage. The same topic is also included in the students' reference book (Figure 3).

Figure 1
Spanish Language Teaching and Learning Blog



Figure 2
QR Code Link and SER Verb Topic in the Blog



Spanish semudah ABC bersama Doctora Mariyati
Jom belajar bahasa Sepanyol (Vamos a aprender el español)

HOME LA CLASE DE ESPAÑOL PHOTOS VIDEOS PEMBELAJARAN BAHASA SEPANYOL VIDEO PICTONARY PROJECT PELAJAR BP3012

Home » » Kata Kerja SER (adalah, ialah dalam bahasa Melayu) (To be in English).

Kata Kerja SER (adalah, ialah dalam bahasa Melayu) (To be in English).

October 24, 2018 | 109 comments

Semua kata kerja dalam bahasa Sepanyol berakhir dengan akhiran -AR, ER dan -IR

Hari ini kita akan belajar kata kerja SER yang bermaksud "adalah" atau "ialah" dalam bahasa Melayu dan dalam bahasa Inggeris SER bermaksud "to be".

Kata kerja dalam bahasa Sepanyol perlu dikonjugasikan berdasarkan subjek atau orang yang melakukan perbuatan itu. Konjugasi kata kerja SER adalah seperti berikut:

Pronombre Sujeto	SER	Ejemplo
Yo	Soy	Yo soy Qisya
Tú	Eres	¿ Tú eres Adhi?
Él / ella / Usted	Es	Ella es estudiante
Nosotros /as	Somos	Nosotros somos de Malasia
Vosotros /as	Sois	¿ De dónde sois?
Ellos / ellas / ustedes	Son	Ellos son amabiles

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(no title)
K ata Kerja ESTAR Kata kerja Ser dan Estar mempunyai maksud yang sama dalam bahasa Melayu iaitu "ialah dan adalah" dan berma...

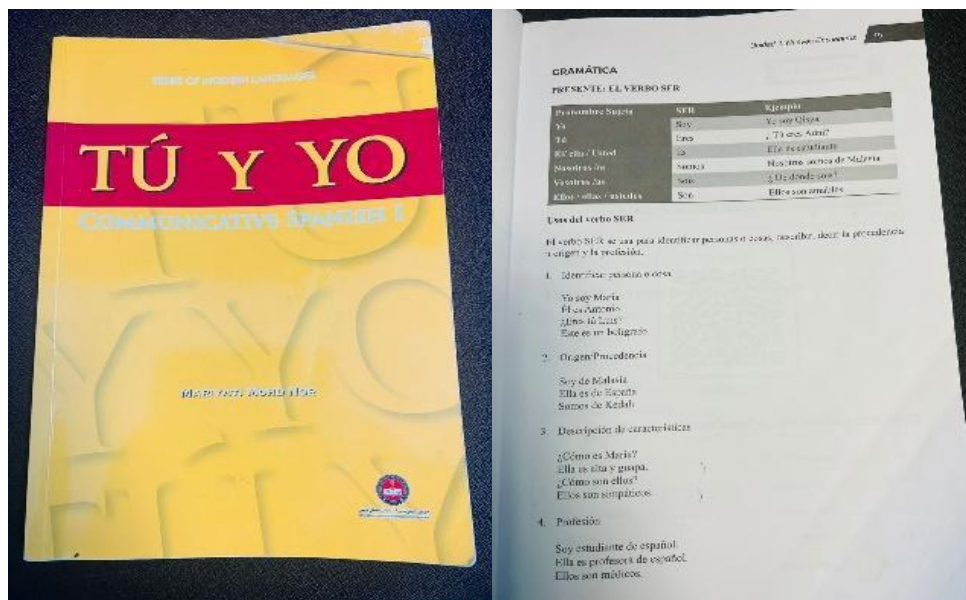
Selamat datang ke kelas bahasa Sepanyol kepada semua. (Bienvenidos a la clase de español)
Kepentingan belajar bahasa Sepanyol Di negara Malaysia, minat menguasai bahasa asing semakin meningkat. Boleh dikatakan semua Uni...

El Verbo Tener
El Verbo Tener Hari ini kita akan belajar kata kerja yang seterusnya iaitu TENER. Kata kerja ini berakhir dengan "ER" dan b...

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Figure 3
Students' Reference Book

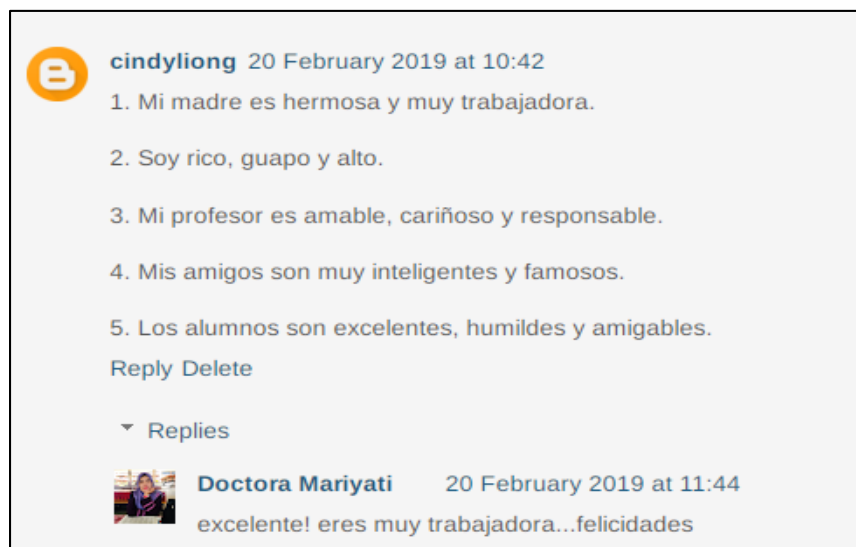


The blog is also utilised for activities. Figures 4 and 5 show samples of activities for beginner-level students. The exercises and activities supplemented classroom lessons. Students can perform these activities outside class at their own leisure to enhance their understanding and language proficiency.

Figure 4
Grammar Activities (Verbs Conjugation: tener)



Figure 5
Vocabulary Activities (Adjectives and Nouns)



All participants took part voluntarily in the study. The data collection process was explained to the participants beforehand to address ethical concerns or apprehension. Data were gathered using structured interviews, questionnaire and writing activities and evaluations. The structured interview utilised open-ended questions. Each participant was identified using an alphanumeric code. For example, [P1] referred to the first participant, [P2] the second, and so on up to [P15], the fifteenth and final participant. Interviews were conducted outside the classroom in a more casual setting to encourage participant to share their thoughts and ideas. As students only have basic Spanish proficiency, interviews were conducted in Malay to ensure responses were conveyed clearly and easily. All interviews were transcribed for analysis purposes.

The researcher conducted a thematic analysis of the interview transcripts to identify common ideas and trends in the participants' answers. Key quotes and excerpts that were indicative of broader themes and concepts were highlighted and coded. These codes were used to group related data chunks into categories. By comparing data within and between coded categories, main overarching themes that captured key elements of the participants' experiences, opinions, and beliefs in relation to using blogs to learn Spanish were developed.

The questionnaire was distributed to students in the classroom. The survey involved 45 students, who answered 10 Yes/No questions about the effectiveness of blog usage as an e-learning platform. Finally, 30 sentences and 180 words were analysed to identify the difficulties faced by the students in learning Spanish, and how the blog can assist students in overcoming these challenges.

Results

The data revealed two main foreign language learning challenges, categorised into two linguistic elements: morphological level and syntactic level. Note that the codes [P2], [P3], [P5] and [P9] refer to participants who took part in the interviews and surveys.

The Morphological Level

Noun

One of the challenges in learning Spanish is the vocabulary, especially the gender-based nouns, masculine or feminine (Nor Shahila et al., 2022). Interviews revealed grammatical gender as a particular issue in learning Spanish. Grammatical gender is an important system that needs to be learned for languages that use the system. Gender exists for all noun groups, including humans and animals, as well as non-living things such as buildings, vehicles, fruits, and equipment. Students struggle to differentiate masculine and feminine nouns as there is no specific rule that can be used as a definitive guide except the suffixes of the noun, which either ends with “o” for masculine and “a” for feminine. However, some nouns that end with vocal and consonant do not follow the same rule. In addition, students need to master singular and plural nouns to match with correct articles, adjectives, and numbers. Table 2 illustrates some responses concerning grammatical gender in Spanish.

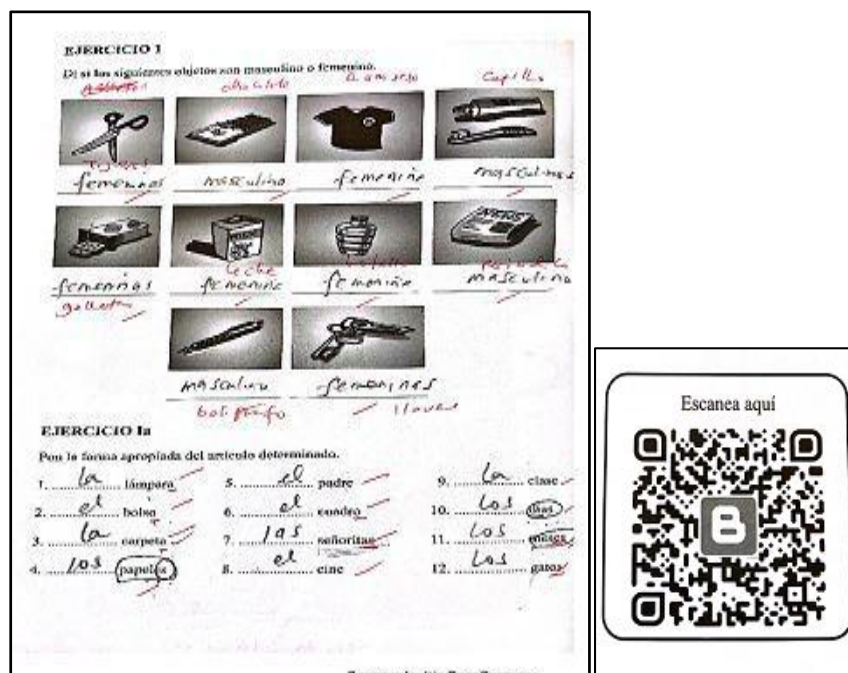
Table 2
Grammatical Gender Issue

Participant	The Issue in Grammatical Gender Application
P1	<i>Didapati agak keliru membezakan perkataan itu bersifat maskulin atau feminine. (It is confusing to differentiate the word either to be masculine or feminine)</i>
P2	<i>Terlampau banyak kata dengan akhiran yang berbeza, selalu kita refer akhiran kata tersebut untuk tentukan gender namun ada pengecualian juga bagi kata-kata tersebut. (Too many words with different suffixes, usually we refer to the suffix of the word to determine the gender but there is exclusion for those words)</i>
P3	<i>Tiada peraturan yang konsisten untuk penentuan gender kata nama. Sebagai contoh, benda yang dikaitkan dengan lelaki adalah maskulin dan sebaliknya. (No consistent rules to determine the noun gender. For example, things related to male are masculine and vice versa)</i>
P4	<i>Semua kata nama kena dipadankan dengan kata adjektif dan artikel yang sama kalau tidak ayat yang dibina akan salah. Agak sukar kerana tidak tahu kata nama yang digunakan maskulin atau feminin. (All nouns need to be matched with same adjective and article if not the sentence is wrong. Quite difficult because do not</i>

- P5 know either the word used is masculine or feminine)
Susah, artikel juga terlampau banyak untuk diingat. (Hard, too many articles to be remembered)
- P6
Tiada strategi yang boleh digunakan untuk membezakan gender kata nama (No strategies that can be used to differentiate noun gender).

The blog is used to supplement classroom lessons on Spanish grammatical gender. The strategies related to grammatical gender were thoroughly explained, increasing students' mastery and comprehension. Examples of explanations of grammatical gender and strategy in identifying feminine and masculine nouns can be accessed by scanning the QR code (see Figure 6). This code is included in the students' reference books, allowing them to scan it and engage with the materials independently.

Figure 6
 Grammatical Gender Activities and QR Code



The exercise on categorising noun gender, such as the one in Figure 6, can help polish and later demonstrate students' ability to classify nouns as masculine or feminine. For instance, students can refer to noun suffixes, with "o" typically indicating masculine and "a" signifying feminine. For nouns ending in vowels or other consonants, students can consult the teacher or scan the QR code, which links to the course blog outlining strategies for identifying grammatical gender.

Adjectives

Adjectives are another challenge in Spanish language learning. Students must use correct adjectives of the gender to match the associated noun. The correspondence or compatibility between nouns and adjectives is important (Nor et al., 2022). If the noun is masculine, the adjective describing it must also be masculine. For example: “Mi padre es guapo” (My father is handsome) uses the masculine adjective *guapo* to match the masculine noun “padre”. Conversely, “Mi madre es guapa” (My mother is beautiful) uses the feminine form *guapa* to align with the feminine noun “madre”.

The exercise shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8 demonstrate students’ ability to appropriately apply nouns and adjectives. In sentence number 5, for example, the article “los” correctly refers to the masculine plural noun. The adjectives used, including *hermosa* (beautiful), *trabajadora* (hardworking), *amable* (good), *cariñoso* (loving), *responsable* (responsible), *inteligentes* (intelligent), *famosos* (famous), *excelentes* (excellent), *humildes* (humble), and *amigables* (friendly) correctly match the gender and the plurality of their corresponding nouns. A QR code link to adjective lists is included in the student reference book for support.

Figure 7

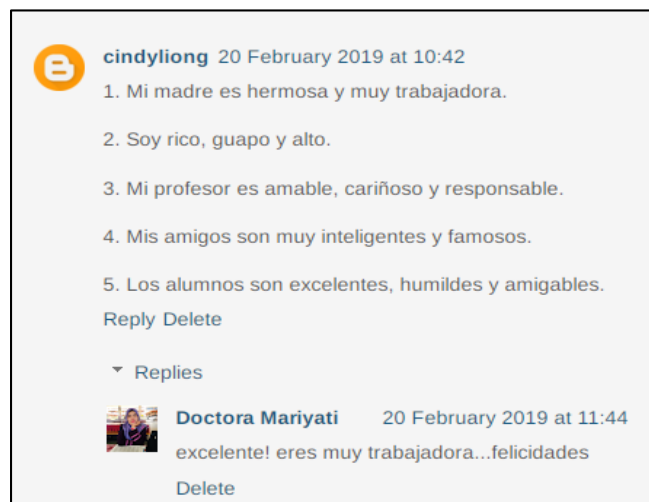
Adjective Exercise in Blog

Soalan : Terjemahkan ayat ini dalam bahasa Sepanyol dengan menggunakan kata adjektif seperti di atas.

Translate this sentences in spanish using the adjectives as above.

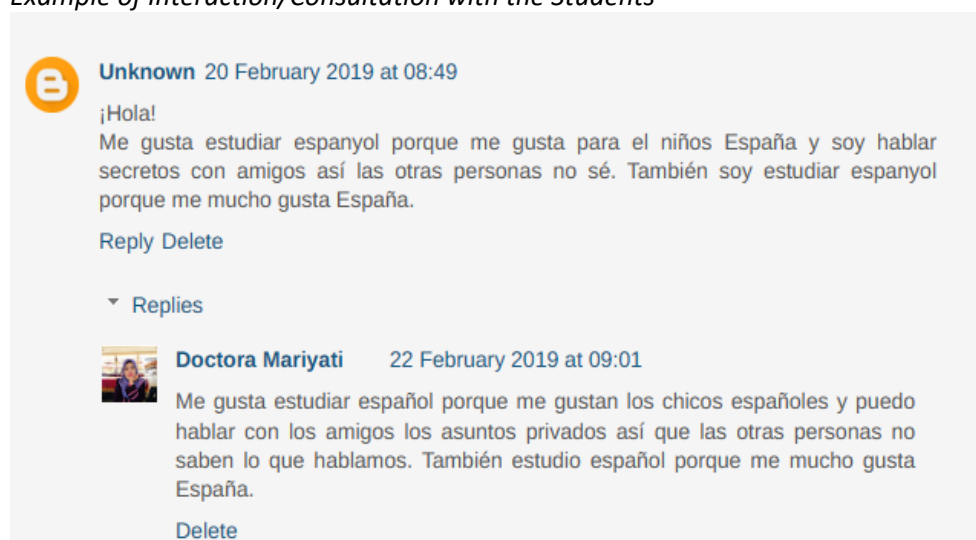
1. My mother is beautiful and very hardworking
2. I am rich, handsome and tall.
3. My lecturer is kind, caring and responsible.
4. My friends are very clever and famous.
5. The students are excellent, humble and friendly.

Figure 8
Student's Answer



However, if students fail to produce grammatically correct sentences or make morphological mistakes such as using incorrect adjectives or verbs, the lecturer can provide feedback explaining the errors and ask the students to correct the errors. For example, in Figure 9, the student incorrectly used “España” (Spain) as a noun instead of the adjective “españoles” (Spanish) to describe the children. Additionally, the verbs “hablar” (to speak) and “estudiar” (to study) were not conjugated to “Yo hablo” (I speak) and “yo estudio” (I study). After receiving comments, the student revised the sentence. This is one example of an interactive exchange using blog.

Figure 9
Example of Interaction/Consultation with the Students



Verbs

Verbs is another considerably complex grammar aspect when learning Spanish. This is because verbs must be conjugated based on the doer of the action. Spanish verbs are categorised into two types: regular and irregular. Irregular verb conjugations differ from regular verbs, frequently causing errors (Husain et al., 2010; Nor & Mansor, 2021). Using the blog, lessons about verbs can be expanded in a fun manner and at the students' leisure.

Figure 10

Student's Answer (Verb)

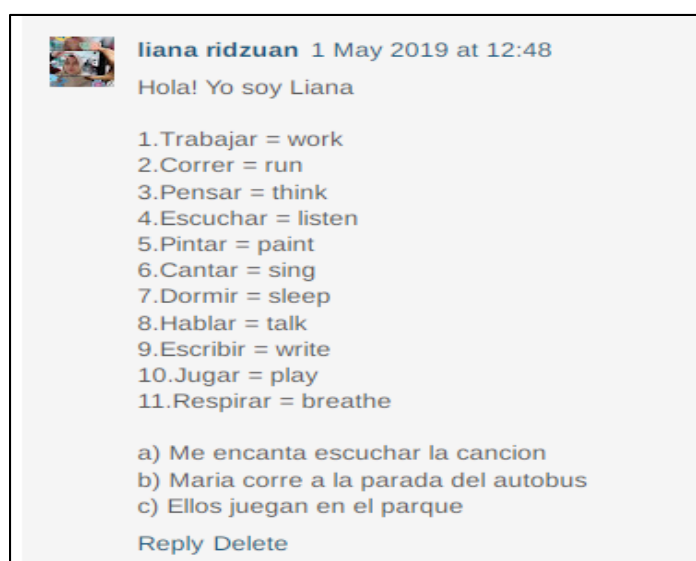


Figure 10 is a blog exercise requiring students to complete a crossword puzzle with eleven verbs and construct three sentences using three of those verbs. Students have successfully identified the verbs and constructed grammatical sentences using correct verb conjugations. The verb in the sentence (a) *Me encanta escuchar la canción* shows that the student knows the existence of the verb *escuchar* ("listening") after the verb *gustar* (like) does not have to be conjugated. The root verb needs to be used. For sentences (b) and (c), the verb *correr* (run) is conjugated into *corre* (she runs), which is also correct, referring to the subject "María" who did the action of the run. Similarly, with the sentence (c), the verb *jugar* (play) is conjugated into *juegan*, referring to the subject *ellos* (they), who did the action. By doing such exercises, students master the conjugation of regular and irregular verbs very well.

Addition of New Vocabularies

Findings from interviews revealed that the participants viewed the blogs as a platform that augmented classroom vocabulary teaching. Selected interview excerpts are included to showcase participant perspectives.

R1: We are able to add new vocabulary through the teaching by Dr in blog. Though we have reference book, information in blog helps us in adding new vocabulary. For example, hmmm... in blog, lecturer lists the adjectives that can be used in sentence. As for in reference book, the examples are limited.

R3: words used in blog... is not the same in the reference book, so, we can learn new vocabulary and words. The QR code in reference book really helps.

R4: The use of vocabularies in blog is wider... and can be applied in classroom as well.

The Syntactic Level

Another concern for most Malaysian students enrolled in Spanish language courses is the complexity of the grammar, primarily related to verb conjugation, concordance or compatibility between noun gender and adjective, and the aspect of numbers, whether singular or plural. The lack of mastery in these aspects often leads to ungrammatical sentences or errors. To overcome this challenge, the Spanish language learning blog was utilised to assist students' understanding when it comes to correct syntax.

Sentence Construction Using the Verb 'Estar'

Figure 11 shows that student can construct the sentences using the verb '*estar*' very well. The verb *estar* 'to be' needs to be conjugated into *estoy* 'iam', *estás* 'you are', *está* 'she/he is' *estamos* 'we are' *estáis* 'you are (p)' and *están* 'they are'. The sentence translation by students is grammatical and precise. However, in Spanish language, the verb *está* in sentence (ii) (vi) and sentence (v) need to be added with *tilde* (*á*) on the alphabet (a). Students usually neglect the issue of tilde, yet its usage is essential as the usage (or non-usage) changes the context or meaning. Sentence (iv) also faces the issue of the lack of in-front question mark (*¿*) for question sentences.

Figure 11

The Construction of Sentences Using the Verb 'Estar'

4. Terjemahkan ayat di bawah ini dengan menggunakan kata kerja ESTAR
- i) Saya adalah sangat sedih (Estoy muy triste)
 - ii) Taiping terletak di Negeri Perak (Taiping esta en Perak)
 - iii) Kami adalah letih (Estamos cansados)
 - iv) Saya berdiri (Estoy de pie)
 - v) Saya sedang makan (Estoy comiendo)
 - vi) Awak apa khabar? (como estas?)
 - v) Buku itu berada di atas meja (El libro esta sobre la mesa)

Figure 12

Sentence Writing Using the Verb 'Tener'

Hola, yo soy Afrina. Tengo 22 años. Soy estudiante de contable. Tengo una familia feliz. Mi padres son muy cariñoso y agradable. Tengo tres hermanos, yo soy el mayor. Tengo uno hermano y una hermana, ellos son sorprendentes. Tengo dos gatos lindos. Mucho gusto!

Figure 12 shows a sample response from a student, extracted from the blog about a short self-description using the verb *tener* “to have”. The student can construct good sentences with correct verb conjugations. However, sentence 4 contains pronoun and adjective agreement errors: “mi padres son cariñoso y agradable” (my parents are affectionate and pleasant). Since “padres” is plural, the possessive pronoun “mi” should be the plural “mis”. The adjectives “cariñoso” and “agradable” should also be in the plural form. The correct statement is “mis padres son cariñosos y agradables”. In sentence 7, “yo soy el mayor” (I am the eldest) is incorrect because the subject is female. It should be “yo soy la mayor”.

Figure 13 shows how the blog was used to correct student’s response. The lecturer engaged the students by commenting on the post, which the students can refer to. Figure 14 shows that the student can construct good sentences with correct verb conjugations. However, the sentence contains errors: *veintiún años* (20 years old), missing a comma, missing a tilde for letter “i” (psicología) and the verb “tienes”. After receiving comments, the student revised the sentence and rewrote the sentence with fewer errors as shown in Figure 14.

Figure 13


Correcting Student’s Response

Unknown 13 March 2019 at 08:41

Hola! Me llamo Shahirah. Tengo veintiuno años ~~tienes~~ Soy de Ipoh,Perak,Pero vivo en Tanjung Malim. Soy estudiante de Psicologia. Mucho gusto! :)

Reply Delete

▼ Replies

 Doctora Mariyati 13 March 2019 at 10:08

Hola shahirah!..mucho gusto
Tengo veintiun años, Soy de Ipoh,Perak, pero vivo en Tanjung Malim. Soy estudiante de Psicologia. Mucho gusto! :)

Delete

Figure 14

Reduction of Errors After Comments

Hola! Me llamo Shahirah, Tengo veintiun años. Soy de Ipoh, Perak **peri** ahora vivo en Tanjung Malim.
Soy estudiante de psicología. Mucho gusto!

Reply [Delete](#)

Figure 14 shows that the sentence has been revised by the student and has only one error, possibly a typo, compared to the previous sentence. The correct word is *pero*. This shows that after getting feedback from the lecturer, students can produce sentences with fewer errors.

Sentence Construction Using an Adjective

The sentences in Figure 16 resulted from the explanations given by the lecturer in the blog on the use of adjectives. It can be seen that the students are able to construct grammatically correct sentences based on the gender. All five sentences (1-5) used adjectives that correctly describe the corresponding nouns by gender and singular or plural form. In sentence (1), the adjectives **hermosa** (beautiful) and **trabajadora** (hardworking) correctly describe the noun **mi madre** (my mother). Sentence (2) uses the masculine adjectives **rico** (rich), **guapo** (handsome), and **alto** (tall) to depict the male subject. Sentences (3-5) also apply correct masculine adjectives matching the masculine singular noun **mi profesor** (my teacher) and masculine plural nouns **mis amigos** (my friends) and **los alumnos** (the students).

Figure 15

Sentence Writing Using an Adjective

Hola! Me llamo Hafeeza

1. Mi madre es hermosa y muy trabajadora.

2. Soy rico, guapo y alto.

3. Mi profesor es amable, cariñoso y responsable.

4. Mis amigos son muy inteligentes y famosos.

5. Los alumnos son excelentes, humildes y amigables.

Findings from interviews with participants also indicated that participants agreed to the usefulness of blog explanations in helping them construct grammatical sentences. Selected excerpts are provided as follows:

R10: this blog has explanation in Malay language which made it easier... we can understand the Spanish language system and it helps us to construct more grammatical sentences.

R6: Information and explanations are simple and understandable... there are lots of examples of sentences using verb, adjective, and noun which are learnable.

R15: the vocabularies in the blog help us in constructing sentences.

R7: Before I do the exercises in book or blog... I will read the entry of the topic first... explanation in the blog really help me.

Quantitative Findings

The questionnaire results showed positive perceptions regarding the usefulness of the blog and its compatibility as a learning tool. All 10 items received more than 80% of agreement, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Perceptions on the Usage and Compatibility of Blog

Aspects	Yes (%)	No (%)
Enhance understanding	97.7	2.3
Adding new vocabulary	97.7	2.3
More interesting learning	97.7	2.3
Understanding grammar system better	95.5	4.5
Helps in constructing more grammatical sentences	93.3	6.7
Sentence writing becomes better	93.3	6.7
Minimise the grammar errors	88.9	11.1
More motivated to study	88.9	11.1
Refers to the info in the blog before doing exercises	84.4	15.5
Preparation for test	84.4	15.5

Participants overwhelmingly agreed on three items concerning the usage of blog in Spanish language learning. A total of 97.7% agreed that the blog enhanced their understanding, added new vocabulary, and made their learning more interesting. The participants also viewed the blog as useful when it comes to improving their grasp of Spanish grammar and writing. Fewer participants referred to the blog before doing exercises or used it to prepare for test, although the percentages of agreement for both items were still high (84.4%).

Discussion

Teaching Spanish as a foreign language in Malaysia poses tremendous challenges for instructors, as the Spanish grammar system differs from Malaysian students' native languages like Malay, Chinese, Tamil, Iban, Bidayuh, or Kadazan Dusun. These differences can lead to confusion and unavoidable errors during the learning process (Nor et al., 2020). The main difficulties relate to two linguistic elements: morphology (the construction of words) and syntax (the formation of sentences). Students' diverse backgrounds, motivations, and interests further complicate instruction and language acquisition (Hassan et al., 2018).

One of the challenges at the morphology level is the gender-based nouns, masculine and feminine. This basic rule in Spanish can be complex for Malaysian students to grasp, assimilate, and memorise in order to distinguish gender and properly apply noun-adjective agreements (Mansor et al., 2022). This struggle happens because the Malay language does not have a gender structure, and no specific rules can help the students differentiate between masculine and feminine words.

Verb conjugation is also challenging and complicated compared to other aspects of Spanish grammar. The Spanish language uses an inflection-shaped verb system that has three distinct suffixes, which changes for each word according to the subject or doer, the number of subjects (singular or plural), and time frame (present, past, future, progressive, subjunctive). It is difficult for students to master the morphological aspect, particularly the derivation and conjugation of varied and deformed verbs. This confusion caused grammatical errors, ungrammatical sentences, the addition of unnecessary verbs, reduced essential elements, incorrect verb selection, and inaccurate order in sentence construction. The interview findings aligned with the written work, revealing that the students agree that Spanish conjugation is the most challenging part (Nor & Mansor, 2020).

Besides the complexity of Spanish grammar, another obstacle that Malaysian students encounter when learning Spanish is the absence of the language's contextual and natural linguistic environment. There is a lack of practice and environmental support for the students to use the language naturally (Mansor et al., 2022). Hence, utilising blogs is an effective intervention to support Spanish language learning and development for students. Jones (2006) stated that as blogging has become a popular communication form, it is viewed by academics as an interactive and effective pedagogical tool to master a foreign language.

In this study, the blog was used to supplement classroom lessons on Spanish grammatical gender. The strategies related to grammatical gender were thoroughly explained, helping to increase students' mastery and comprehension. Examples of explanations of grammatical gender and strategy in identifying feminine and masculine nouns can be accessed by scanning the QR code that is included in the students' reference books. Students can scan the materials as and when they need to. The blog was also used as an intervention learning method for improving students' writing skills and comprehension of topics covered in class. This facilitated personalised Spanish language learning opportunities.

Participants overwhelmingly agreed on three items concerning the usage of

blog in Spanish language learning – they agreed that the blog enhanced their understanding, added new vocabulary, and made their learning more interesting. The participants also viewed the blog as useful in improving their grasp of Spanish grammar and writing. Understanding grammar system better helped the students to construct grammatical sentences, minimise grammar errors, and raise their motivation. According to Aydin (2014), blogging positively affects learners' writing performance, their ability to monitor writing, their attitudes towards and perceptions of writing, and their interactions and participation in writing. More specifically, blogs are effective for developing rhetorical strategies, improving grammar skills, designing paragraphs and essays, revising written works, giving and receiving feedback and participating in peer review activities.

Feedback from the lecturer is also important to minimise the errors that made by the students. Satish and Kaila (2005) found that blogs enable meaningful connections between students, lecturers, and universities, as extensively implemented in institutions like Harvard and Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT). Blogs can also help students understand the topics taught in the classroom and assist in the mastery of the target language grammar system (Nor et al., 2021). In the current study, engagement between the lecturer and the students resulted in reduced errors when students wrote in the target language.

Conclusion

The use of a blog as a learning technology enables learning spaces outside of the classroom, which can be used for independent learning. The findings of this study provided evidence that using a blog as a teaching and learning tool enhances students' vocabulary mastery, improves their understanding of the Spanish language grammar system and construction of grammatical sentences, and minimises students' errors. The blog also offers an environment that facilitates students to participate in learning communities for active engagement. Most importantly, students can practise the language using various skills, especially writing and vocabulary, in an authentic learning environment. Typically, students learn from peers, from their lecturers in the classroom, and from their reference books. Therefore, the use of a blog that is accessible with a quick response code offers another mechanism to enhance students' learning of Spanish.

This study established that blog can offer a platform to help language learning in terms of the morphology of vocabulary mastery and syntax (sentence construction). Peer learning occurs when the students convey their opinions and discuss among themselves, promoting independent learning and critical abilities. The majority of students also agreed that the blog was a positive add-on to their Spanish language learning.

The findings from this study have implications for foreign language educators as it presents a potential approach for effective language learning outside of the classroom. Language educators need to continuously improve their teaching and learning techniques according to students' needs. This includes incorporating technology and digital media as part of their teaching. Using blogs, as shown in this study, is an effective way of doing these. While the present study only examined the

use of blogs in the teaching and learning of Spanish as a third language, it is highly possible that other language teaching and learning can also benefit from the use of blogs.

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METADISCOURSE IN THE DIGITAL ACADEMIC POSTER: EXAMINING THE TEXTUAL AND VISUAL METADISCOURSE IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF PERSUASION

Nor Atifah MOHAMAD¹

Ameiruel Azwan Ab AZIZ²

Nazarul Azali RAZALI*³

Amirah Mohd JUNED⁴

Normah ABDULLAH⁵

^{1,2,3,4}UiTM Cawangan Melaka, Malaysia

⁵UiTM Cawangan Selangor, Malaysia

atifah740@uitm.edu.my

ameirul@uitm.edu.my

nazarul@uitm.edu.my

amirahjuned@uitm.edu.my

norma034@uitm.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

The demand for 21st-century skills has transformed the education landscape, altering how we teach, learn, and assess, integrating digital platforms into these processes. This study analyses the use of metadiscourse devices in digital academic posters, with the primary objective of identifying both textual and visual metadiscourse devices employed in academic posters to construct persuasive messages. A corpus of 10 academic posters was extracted from virtual academic presentations by diploma students and analysed with a mixed-method research approach. Metadiscourse elements were analysed quantitatively to investigate the presence of visual metadiscourse. Drawing from Hyland's (2006) model of metadiscourse and Kumpf's (2000) visual metadiscourse, this study compared the use of these two distinct elements in academic posters and their combined effect on persuasion. The results revealed that interactive resources were more frequently used than interactional resources. Additionally, students frequently employed visual metadiscourse to enhance persuasiveness, albeit at varying levels of frequency and effectiveness. This

study highlights the importance of incorporating both textual and visual metadiscourse knowledge into academic curricula for effective organisation, engagement, and persuasion of readers.

Keywords: textual metadiscourse; visual metadiscourse; digital academic poster; persuasion

Introduction

Twenty-first-century skills are essential for learners to thrive in an increasingly competitive future job market and the challenges of globalisation. These skills encompass learning, literacy, and life skills, which equip learners to succeed in the complex context of the 21st century. Learning skills involve the ability to study, select, and reflect on one's learning process, while life skills prepare learners for future life challenges. Literacy skills are essential for understanding, evaluating, and using information across various digital media platforms. Given the demanding nature of 21st-century skills, traditional teaching and learning methods are no longer adequate. Therefore, assessments should also evolve to meet these demands (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012). Harnessing technology is an approach to enhance the professional development of students today.

Implementing effective assessments through digital platforms is particularly crucial in tertiary education settings. As a result, digital poster presentations have become a common form of assessment, especially for final-year students to showcase their work. Research has shown the practical benefits of posters in complementing students' presentations. Ilic and Rowe (2013) noted that posters follow the structure of research articles, containing essential sections like introduction, method, results, and discussion, which demonstrate student's mastery of specific subjects. Scholars like D'Angelo (2010) and Erren and Bourne (2007) maintain that these multimodal documents, combining textual and visual elements, not only capture the audience's attention but also inform and persuade readers. Despite the significance of posters in the academic setting, posters have received limited attention from researchers (D'Angelo, 2010).

Considering the importance of academic posters towards the audience, authors must tailor these multimodal documents to suit and facilitate the audience's understanding, schemata, and needs. Unfortunately, studies on the use of metadiscourse in academic posters remain scarce (D'Angelo, 2016a). Thus, this study examines the linguistic and visual metadiscourse in undergraduate students' academic posters.

Literature Review

Metadiscourse refers to the use of linguistic cues to organise information in the text and create a connection between the author and the readers. Hyland (2005) defines metadiscourse as "the aspects of a text which explicitly organise a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader" (p. 14). Nevertheless,

metadiscourse does not construe a text's propositional meaning or "communicative content of discourse" (Hyland, 2005, p. 38) of a text; instead, it is the "linguistic material in text, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content but that is intended to help the listener or reader organise, interpret and evaluate the information given" (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 40). Succinctly, metadiscourse focuses on linguistic elements used by the author to organise the text and to induce the reader's involvement with the text.

Table 1
Hyland's Taxonomy of Metadiscourse (2005)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	in addition; but; thus; and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	refer to information on other parts of the text	noted above; see Figure; in Section 2
Evidentials	refer to information from other texts	according to X; Z states
Code Glosses	elaborate propositional meanings	Namely; e.g.; such as; in other words
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	withhold commitments and open dialogue	Might; perhaps, possible about
Boosters	emphasise certainty or close dialogue	in fact; definitely; it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly
Self-mentions	express reference to author(s)	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	explicitly build relationship with reader	consider; note; you can see that

As shown in Table 1, Hyland's metadiscourse model (2005) presents two categories that serve to connect the author, reader, and text: interactive and interactional resources. Interactive resources consist of transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, as well as evidential and code glosses, which use linguistic cues to enhance the reader's understanding of the texts. Accordingly, the interactional resource is used to help engage with the readers using hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, and engagement markers.

Given that academic posters include visual elements, this study utilises Kumpf's (2000) model of visual metadiscourse as shown in Table 2. Echoing the

linguistic metadiscourse, Kumpf (2000) notes the importance of visual metadiscourse as “authors have many necessary design considerations as they attempt to help readers navigate through and understand documents” (p. 401). Ten categories fall under the visual metadiscourse: first impression, heft, convention, chunking, external skeleton, consistency, expense, attraction, interpretation, and style (refer to the findings section for more details). Kumpf (2000) also states that visual metadiscourse can invoke persuasion “to the point where the presence and the intelligent use of the visual category please and entices the reader” (p. 419). Thus, the combination of these two models was selected to understand this study's metadiscoursal elements in the written documents.

Table 2
Kumpf's Visual Metadiscourse (2000)

Category	Function	Examples
First impression	Capture the audience's attention	font, typeface, styles
Heft	Describe the density of document	bulk, length, columns
Convention	Audience's expectation from the appearance of the document	format, spacing, citation
Chunking	Organisation of text on the document	gutters, columns
External Skeleton	Arrangement of the document based on genre	Introduction, Methodology, Results
Consistency	Coherent organisation of textual and visual elements in the document	cohere colour and design
Expense	Choices of materials of the documents	glossy paper, colours
Attraction	Ability to maintain the audience's attention	format, textual and visual elements
Interpretation	Guiding the audience to make sense of graphic	tables, photos, graphs
Style	Visual elements that complement the text	document design, template

Previous research has investigated metadiscourse not only in written communication such as undergraduate essays (Mohamed & Ab Rashid, 2017; Tan & Wong, 2014) and postgraduates' dissertations (Akoto, 2020; Navarro & Álvarez, 2022) but also in spoken communication such as lectures (Kashiha, 2022), campaign talk (Albalat-Mascarell & Carrió-Pastor, 2019) and business presentations (Kuswoyo & Siregar, 2019). The use of metadiscourse in digital communication has also been explored like request emails (Ho, 2018) and institutional responses in social media (Li, Cui, & He, 2020).

Early work on metadiscourse in the construction of persuasion focuses on linguistic realisations. Only a few studies have examined the use of metadiscourse in

multimodal documents such as in corporate annual reports (De Groot, Nickerson, Korzilius, & Gerritsen, 2015), community service announcements (Džanić & Berberović, 2021), and social media advertisements (Al-Subhi, 2022).

Methodology

This mixed-method study examined textual and visual metadiscourse elements in digital academic posters created by undergraduate students enrolled in an English professional communication programme. The content-based analysis was used to aggregate the metadiscourse elements as it allows researchers to test theoretical issues and to heighten the understanding of the data (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of the study.

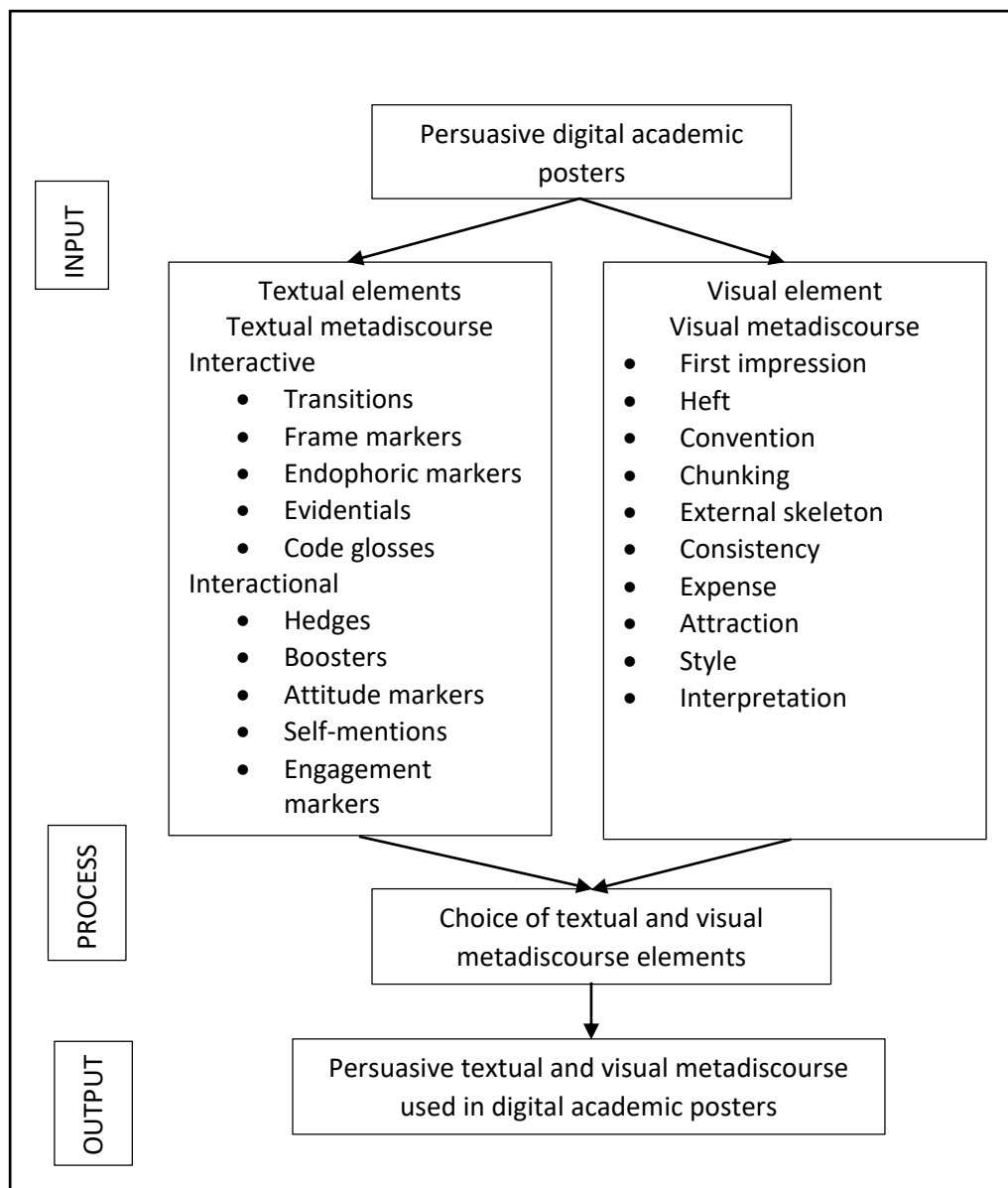
The present study analysed 10 digital academic posters that were selected to compare the use of two distinct elements of metadiscourse in the academic posters and the construction of visual metadiscourse in accompanying the textual element to achieve persuasion. These posters were prepared by students who were required to present final-year projects posters, covering project details, entrepreneurial opportunities, project development, and project outcomes. The assessment guidelines were provided in the first week of the semester, and students had approximately three to four weeks to produce an A0-sized poster with guidance from their supervisors.

All linguistic devices used in the academic posters were initially collected and converted into an electronic corpus. The linguistic metadiscourse markers were stored and generated 1,586 tokens. The textual metadiscourse was analysed quantitatively, where auto word-token calculation using Antconc software (Anthony, 2022) was utilised. The calculated words were compared to quantify the sub-categories and differentiate the pragmatic functions in context.

On the other hand, the visual metadiscourse was analysed qualitatively using ATLAS.ti software. The frequency for each sub-category of visual metadiscourse in the poster was recorded as a means to achieve persuasion. Analysis of the visual metadiscourse was done based on Kumpf's (2000) model of visual metadiscourse. Manual tagging of the visual metadiscourse was executed to identify the subcategories of visual metadiscourse and its frequencies. Once the occurrences of any visual metadiscourse have been identified, they are manually recorded in the software and reported.

The linguistic metadiscourse was identified and categorised according to Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse. At the initial stage, the linguistic markers in the corpus were compared against the 498 metadiscourse markers listed by Hyland (2005) and later expanded to all linguistic devices deemed fit in the context of the textual metadiscourse. Only sentences containing metadiscourse markers were analysed and classified according to the categories. Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse explains the relationship between the author, the reader, and the text through interactive and interactional resources. The occurrence of the specific linguistic markers identified in the corpus was later calculated based on all frequencies reported. Occurrences per 1,000 words were used to find a more accurate representation of the data based on the corpus.

Figure 1
Conceptual Framework of the Study



Results

Metadiscourse

The data reveals that interactive resources were used more frequently than interactional resources in academic posters. Interactive resources (102 instances) occurred twice as often, compared to interactional resources (47 instances). This is due to the academic poster convention requiring the author to present a precise format and content organisation such as introduction, methodology, result and

conclusion (Alley, 2003). Notwithstanding the fact that the language used for an academic poster is very precise and compact language (Swales & Feak, 2000), the academic poster created must fulfil the requirements of the course, which are to display the students' problem-solving together with entrepreneurial skills. Out of the five categories of the interactive metadiscourse, only three sub-categories were used in the academic posters. The frequency of use of interactive resources is presented in Table 3.

Data show a lesser occurrence of interactional resources in the academic poster. However, even though interactional resources appeared less than interactive resources, all five sub-categories of these resources were remarkably used by the students. This indicates that the students were aware of the need to connect with the audience, even in the rigid format of academic posters.

Table 3
Frequencies of Metadiscourse Resources in Students' Academic Posters

Metadiscourse category	Raw occurrences	F per 1,000 words	Percentage
Interactive			
Frame markers			
Transitions	54	34.09	52.94%
Code glosses	43	27.15	42.16%
Endophoric markers	5	4.9	4.9%
Evidentials	0	0	0%
	0	0	0%
Total	102		73.38%
Interactional			
Attitude markers			
Engagement markers	15	9.47	31.91%
Self-mentions	13	8.2	27.66%
Boosters	9	5.68	19.15%
Hedges	7	4.42	14.89%
	3	1.89	6.38%
Total	47		26.62%

Interactive Resources

Frame Markers in Students' Academic Posters

Frame markers have the highest occurrence in academic posters. This result is expected as the students are required to present the content according to a specific convention of Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion or IMRD framework. Besides that, the students were highly encouraged to use the labels for sections like Introduction, Methodology, Purpose, and Results to signal the specific discourse acts or stages in the poster. Apart from that, these labels also help to organise and set the boundary of the information presented in the poster. Since the academic poster was

supposed to enlighten the reader or assessor about the student project, the frame markers were heavily used to describe the processes undertaken by the students while doing the project.

Transitions in Students' Academic Posters

Transitions have the second-highest occurrence in the corpus. Coordinating conjunction “and” has the highest rate of occurrence, followed by subordinating conjunction “while” and “yet” and the conjunctive adverb “still”. It is important to note that the convention of an academic poster is to use concise and non-verbose language which can be achieved using simple and compound sentences. However, the use of transitions in the poster is prevalent as this element is used to connect phrases and clauses that offer additional description and clarification of the student’s projects, as examples (1) and (2) illustrate:

- (1) A great way to show the community that we can learn English **and** culture at the same time. (S1)
- (2) To preserve **and** promote Malay folklore in the form of interactive Audiobook. (S2).

Code Glosses in Students' Academic Posters

Code glosses were the least used among the three sub-categories that appeared in the Interactive Resources. Called, that is, and such as are the examples of code glosses used in the academic poster. Hyland (2007) describes code glosses as “small acts of propositional embellishment” (p. 267) and can be categorised into reformulation and exemplification. Reformulation introduces a new element to the old one with the function of offering a different stance, providing more elaboration or adding emphasis. Exemplification relates to using examples to help the reader better understand the content. Only a small amount of reformulation (“called” and “that is”) was used throughout the corpus. A similar pattern happens to exemplification whereby only “such as:” was evident throughout the whole corpus. This result is expected as any form of a repeated word or clause is not typically inserted in the academic poster due to its limited space and rigid format. Examples (3) and (4) show code glosses used in the academic poster.

- (3) A card game featuring Malaysian's traditional kuih **called** Borong That Kuih (S1).
- (4) To provide a product **that is** informative (S6).

Endophoric Markers and Evidential in Students' Academic Posters

The last two elements were not evident in the students’ academic posters. Since the academic poster is the presentation of the process(es) carried out by the students while completing the project, using endophoric markers or referring to specific information in the other part was not required. A similar pattern happens to

evidential, whereby the need to quote other sources of information or citation was not warranted for the project.

Interactional Resources

Attitude Markers in Students' Academic Posters

Attitude markers demonstrate notable occurrences in the academic posters. Koutsantoni (2004) explains that attitude markers are used to show the significance of a research project, to justify and present the originality of the author's work, as well as to identify the under-researched area. Since the academic posters were used to display the students' project, the posters must professionally communicate the students' evaluation and credibility, which are shown through the project's significance (i.e., important, importance), limitation (i.e., issue, only), emotions (i.e. interesting) and assessment (i.e. easy, new) (Azar & Hashim, 2019). An exclamation mark was used in the sentence to convey the author's strong feeling and stresses the credibility of the author's work. The direct appeal increases the author's persuasive force, which easily persuades the reader to perform the action as required. The examples of attitude markers can be seen in (5) and (6):

- (5) Scan Me!!! (S3)
- (6) Introduce intercultural communication and its *importance* to people. S8)

Engagement Markers in Students' Academic Posters

Engagement markers have the second highest frequency compared to other elements in the interactional resources. The use of reader-inclusive pronouns such as "our", "we", and "your" were commonly used in the academic posters. In addition, directives such as "scan" and "should" were also visible on the academic posters. The imperative sentences used in the academic posters expressed order and command to the readers to perform. These directives connect the author with the readers and implicitly persuade the readers to act in the real world such as in "Most of the people agreed that the designs *should* be made simple" (S6).

Self-mentions in Students' Academic Posters

There was a low frequency of self-mentions in the academic posters. Using a possessive determiner "my" (example (7)) clearly expresses the students' identity and mark their novel contribution and stance on the project. Another element of self-mentions used in the academic posters was the plural pronouns of "we" and "they" (example (8)). These inclusive pronouns were used to include the presence of author and readers together, implying that students seek to persuade the readers to agree with their argument.

- (7) Obtained exposure in translation for **my** future career path. (S2)

- (8) A great way to show the community that **we** can learn English and culture at the same time. (S1)

Boosters in Students' Academic Posters

Boosters imply certainty and commitment in forwarding the argument and signalling the author's "privileged knowers in their disciplinary community" (Hu & Cao, 2015, p. 20). It was not very highly used in the academic posters, but they were used more than hedges. Example (9) show boosters ("clear") used in the academic poster.

- (9) The audio aid helped to **clear** out confusion pronunciation of words. (S3)

Hedges in Students' Academic Posters

Hedges was the least frequently used in academic posters. Lakoff (1972) defines hedges as "words or phrases whose job is to make things fuzzier" (p. 195). This powerless language signals the author's reluctance to commit to the argument and simply offers a vague statement on the issue. Modal auxiliaries like "can" and "should" are used as hedges, as shown in example (10).

- (10) It **can be** concluded that ... (S6).

Visual Metadiscourse

First Impression

The first category of visual metadiscourse is the first impression. This element refers to the reader's reception of the document (Kumpf, 2000). This set as an impetus for the reader to read or not to read the document. This is an important requirement for academic posters as the visual cues must pique the readers' interest and garner their immediate response which will increase the readers' likelihood of being persuaded. Typographical resources such as font, typeface and styles were greatly used to display their own first impression, as can be seen in Figure 2.

The poster by S7 entitled "Untold Malay Folklore" has a simple layout, easy-to-read font, and the use of simple sentences. However, since the posters were created by novice multimodal authors, the poster was not professional. This can be seen by the icons used, such as the use of envelopes, candles, clouds, and branches that do not connote the e-book. Besides that, the mustard colour of the poster did not emphasise the e-book created in black and gold colours. Hence, the first impression was not very persuasive.

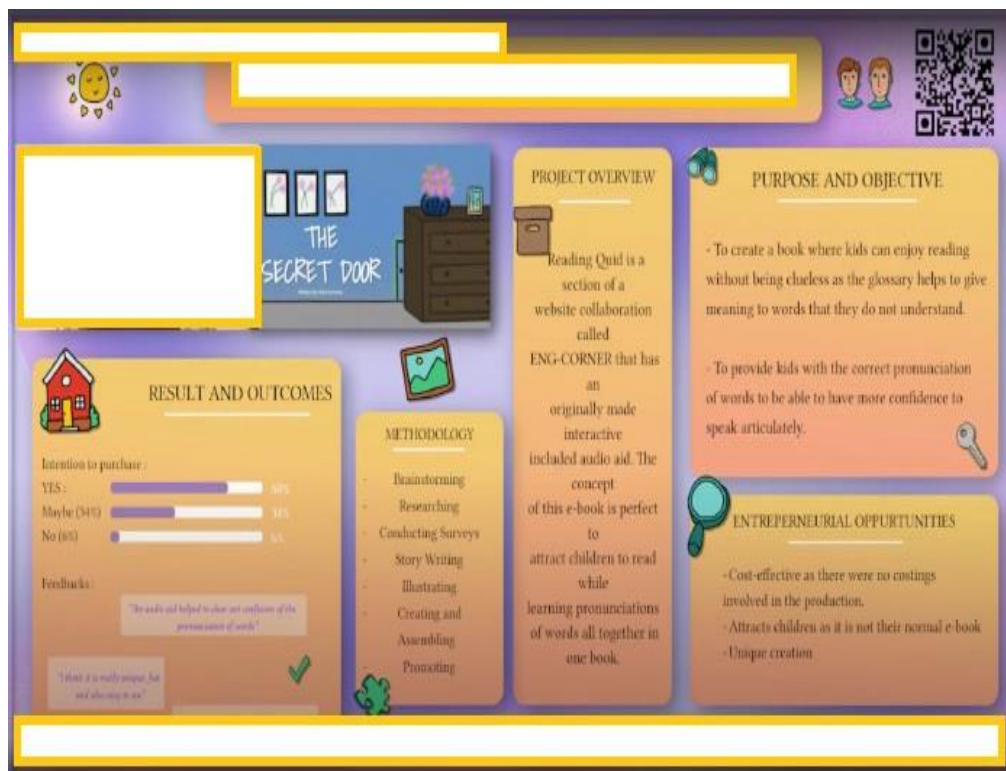
Figure 2
First Impression of Academic Posters by S7



Heft

Heft refers to the bulk or length of the printed or digital document that is closely related to the first impression (Kumpf, 2000). Size, shape, quantity, and weight are the factors involved in heft and typically influence the readers' first impression. The document consists of too much information which might not be well-received by readers. The data revealed that the academic posters created by the students integrated text, graphic images, icons, QR codes and charts. Based on the number of tokens used in the corpus, the average number of words used in each academic poster was around 150. See Figure 3.

Figure 3
Heft in Academic poster by S3



The heft under investigation mainly consists of declarative sentences used to explain and describe the project conducted by the students. Even though the sentences were listed uniformly using only one sentence for each column or bullet point, the sentences used were lengthy. In addition to that, the number of columns used to segregate their information was also inappropriately hefty, as shown in Figure 4. So, it can be said that due to the number of hefts presented in the student's academic posters, the targeted readers may not find the posters appealing to read.

Convention

Another element closely related to the first impression is convention. This represents the readers' expectations from the appearance of the document. The expectation was derived from observing other documents of the same genre (Kumpf, 2000). Mancini (2005) defines convention as "what readers expect from the appearance of a document concerning what they actually have before their eyes, which influences their perception to it" (p. 97). A document must adhere to specific designs and criteria associated with its genre. Kumpf (2000) notes that a research paper, for example, must follow a certain citation format, spacing, and font type to be recognised within its specific genre. Similar principles apply to academic posters, which integrate conventions like affiliation, title, and both textual and visual elements.

The data reveal that all academic posters followed the conventions of research posters, with columns divided into sections such as Overview, Purpose and Objectives, Methodologies, Results and Outcomes. These templates are readily available in poster-making programmes, simplifying the process for students. Students effectively integrate text and non-linear elements, such as university affiliation and logo, were omitted, potentially affecting the authors' credibility and persuasive appeal.

Chunking

The information arrangement on the document into separate visual sections is referred to as chunking. This element is to assist readers to “identify the constituent parts of a document and to show the boundaries of related items” (Kumpf, 2000, p. 409). In addition, chunking also allows the reader to pause and internalise the information presented in the document.

Based on the data presented, it can be said that all academic posters were chunked skilfully. Different columns and gutters were used to signify frame markers, allowing the readers to interact with each of the columns according to their own pace. A bullet list was also used to avoid the information appearing to be dense. Meaningful visuals were also achieved through the use of their own product picture creation as a means to provide closure to the readers, as presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4
Chunking in Academic Poster by S2



External Skeleton

The external skeleton serves as the bones of the document. This element displays how the document is arranged and the function it serves (Kumpf, 2000). The intricacy of this element depends on the genre of the document. For example, an academic essay requires the author to start with a title, an introduction paragraph, several body paragraphs, and a conclusion.

For this study, the major features of the academic poster's external skeleton include the title of the project, Introduction or Project Overview, Objectives, Methodology, Results and Outcomes. Since the readers spend more time on the external skeleton than the first impression, it is crucial for the students to provide cohesive cues and mark the internal elements of their academic posters for the readers' easy reference. Correspondingly, the external skeleton was also achieved through extensive chunking, section title and labels. Given the fact that the template of the academic poster layout was readily available, the external skeleton is not amiss in any of the academic posters.

Consistency

Consistency refers to the organisation of the document that helps the readers to be prepared for the details that ensue (Kumpf, 2000). Consistency offers a coherent and stable view of the document and fulfils the readers' need for order and unity (Kumpf, 2000; Mancini, 2005). Hence, to realise consistency in a document, the text and visuals must be consistent with one another. For example, the sentences used in the document must follow the same sentence type or grammar pattern as the previous one, and the visual element must complement the tone set by the textual element.

In the case of the academic posters, it was found that the students know how to maintain consistency in their academic posters using graphic design tools that are embedded in the programme. The templates available in the design tools only require minimal editing and consistency in the templates is already in existence.

Expense

This element is affected by money through the type of material used, printing and visuals (Kumpf, 2000), and these visual parts influence the readers' reception of the document (Mancini, 2005). In the case of students' academic posters, the poster presentation was done online; thus, the posters were only required to be created digitally. The expense was also not included in the design of the academic posters, as these documents were created using the free design tool available online. Due to that, this element was not considered a part of this study's visual metadiscourse.

Attraction

Another element of visual metadiscourse is attraction, which holds the readers' attention until the end of the document (Kumpf, 2000). To achieve this, consistency, chunking and external skeleton must be played together using different types of

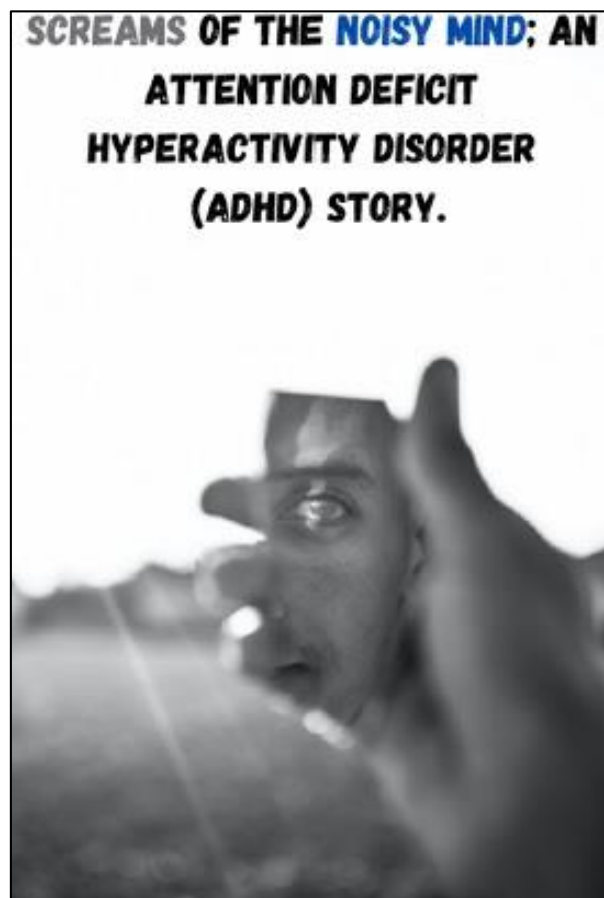
visuals. With the availability of poster templates online, it should be noted that the standard format for the poster template utilised the same convention as any academic research presentation, whereby all stages involved were explained in detail. Thus, the academic posters' standard format begins with the introduction, methodology, and result and ends with a conclusion. In this study, it was found that all the academic posters used the standard template provided by the design program of their choice. The template ensures that detailed information is appropriately positioned on the posters. In addition, attraction can also be seen through striking visuals, fonts, size, and colours, to pull the readers' attention to read the whole document.

Interpretation

Interpretation refers to using textual and visual elements to improve the structure of the document (Kumpf, 2000). Hence, the use of tables, graphs and photos are traditionally used to provide extra features to the textual element to assist and guide the readers' understanding.

Figure 5

Interpretation from S9

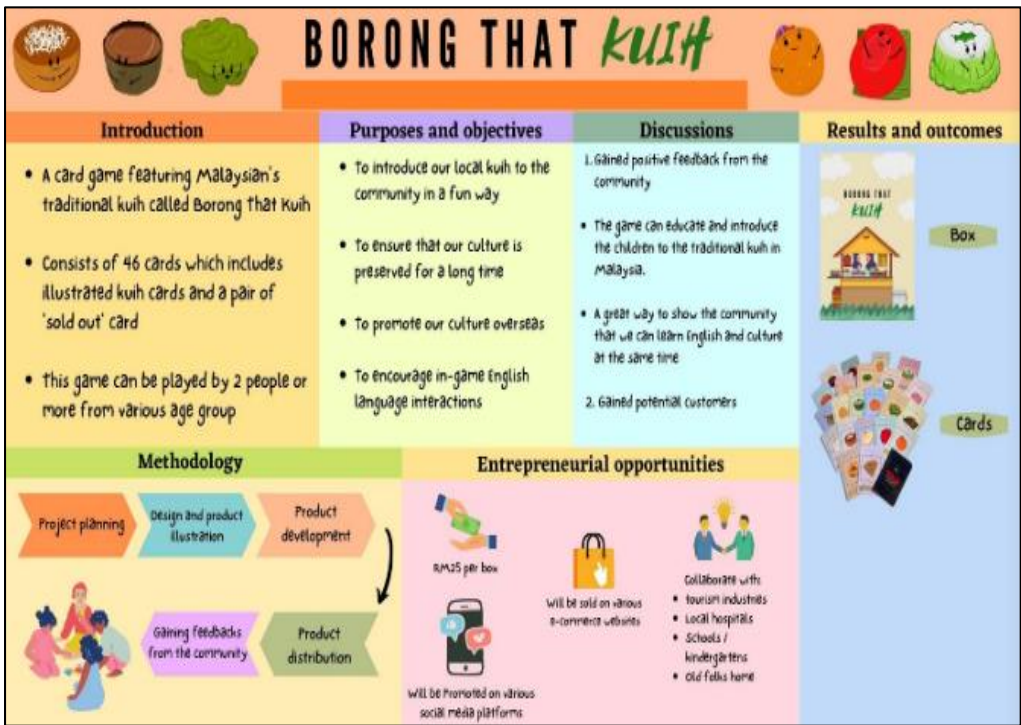


This element was pervasive in all academic posters, including photos or caricatures as presented by S9 (Figure 5). This element stimulates persuasion, requiring the reader to think of the information displayed. Based on the data presented, it can be implied that certain concepts, such as mental health issues, require a visual stimulant to enhance readers’ understanding further. Consequently, this will increase the readers' likelihood of being persuaded by the information presented in the document.

Style

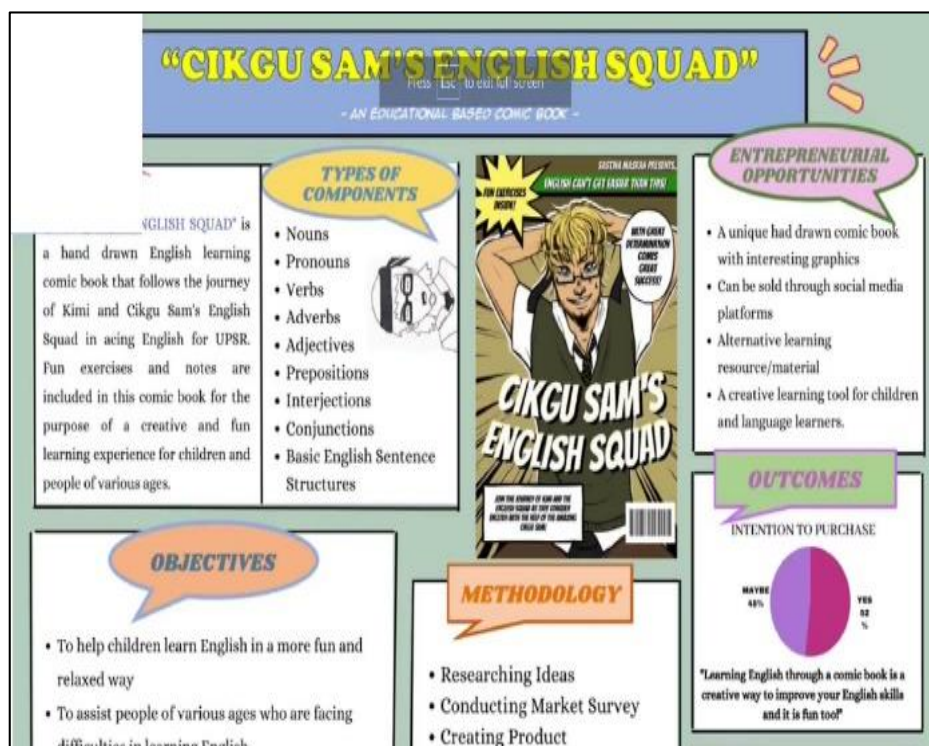
The last element of the visual metadiscourse is the style. This element refers to the “assumptions readers form when seeing documents and judging them according to conventions” (Kumpf, 2000, p. 417). The visual style must complement and not bury the textual element in the academic posters. Hence, visual choices by the students must be made correctly, as the style will project the author’s persona, influencing the readers’ perception of the document. Figure 6 shows S1’s academic poster that has the casual and fun style. The typeface used is not serious.

Figure 6
The Style Used by S1



To cite another instance, the style used by S5 was very similar to a graphic novel using speech balloons, scream dialogue boxes, panels, gutters, and motion lines, as shown in Figure 7. Therefore, the styles used in these academic posters may persuade or dissuade the readers from reading the entire document.

Figure 7
The Style Used by S5



Discussion

This study showed that students favoured using interactive metadiscourse over interactional metadiscourse in creating persuasion in academic posters. This aligns with findings from studies by D'Angelo (2011; 2016b) and Fouad (2021), emphasising the importance of guiding the reader over engaging them, given the IMRD framework genre and the nature of academic posters, which require direct and attention-grabbing textual elements.

While interactive metadiscourse predominated, some categories, such as endophoric markers and evidential, were absent in this study. These metadiscourse elements typically serve to reference other parts of the document and cite information from primary sources. Novice authors tend to use more interactive metadiscourse, a common trait attributed to their inexperience in creating academic posters (Esfandiari & Allaf-Akbary, 2022).

Due to the convention of academic posters, frequent use of frame markers is customary. Academic posters require brevity and precision, and frame markers are a practical means of organising information (Alley, 2003). Moreover, they aid in persuading readers and ensuring a clear flow of information. The second most prominent metadiscourse feature is transitions, widely used in academic posters to logically link arguments between clauses, ensuring text coherent and persuasiveness. This is followed by attitude markers in the form of an adjective, which provides a

certain noun description. Adjectives such as “easy” and “new” are categorised under assessment, whereas “interesting”, which describes the emotional condition of the author, was commonly used. One explanation for these results is the author’s goal of achieving a desired impact by using emotionally charged words (Hunston, 1985). In addition, employing attitude markers can shape the reader's perspective in line with the author's preferences (Hunston & Thompson, 2001). Given the nature of the students’ projects, which required them to develop products or services related to their field of study, the use of these adjectives helps convey the nature of their offerings to the readers. Adjectival forms in all academic posters are powerful tools for enhancing persuasiveness as they elicit positive emotions in readers and create emotional engagement (Liu & Zhang, 2021).

The academic posters were made persuasive by extensively using visual metadiscourse. The findings show that almost all of Kumpf’s (2000) visual metadiscourse elements were utilised, with the exception of expense due to the digital nature of posters. Elements like the first impression, heft, and convention play a significant role in capturing readers’ interests. As Barthes (1994) suggests, humans primarily engage with images, and text serves a secondary role. Therefore, these students heavily relied on visuals to grab readers' attention in their academic posters. Once the reader is drawn by these visual elements, they engage with the content presented in the document, achieving reader engagement.

Conclusion

This research showed that students focused more on text organisation, with less emphasis on reader engagement. The study also revealed that most linguistic and visual metadiscourse elements were effectively used in academic posters, using both text and images to persuade readers. The findings are useful for teaching students about both textual and visual metadiscourse to guide reader interpretation and enhance the persuasiveness of the text. While the use of these metadiscourse elements was evident in academic posters, there were still areas for improvement, particularly in enhancing the professional visual presentation to enhance persuasive appeal. Incorporating metadiscourse knowledge into the curriculum is vital, as it prepares students for their future roles as industry professionals. Failing to impart this knowledge could affect their professionalism.

A limitation of the study is only 10 academic posters were analysed. Future studies could develop a larger multimodal corpus to provide more definitive evidence of persuasion in such documents. In addition, researchers might explore other aspects beyond metadiscourse, such as semiotics, to gain a deeper understanding of persuasive elements in academic posters and other multimodal documents, including brochures, websites, and academic presentations.

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PADLET: POST-PANDEMIC AVENUE FOR A MORE DYNAMIC LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE LEARNING THROUGH ENHANCED TECHNOLOGY INTEGRATION

Joseph A. VILLARAMA*

Karen Jean C. BARCELITA

Ramil V. PILIEN

Winnie Alexa V. CRISANTO

Central Luzon State University, Philippines

villaramajoseph120294@clsu.edu.ph

karenjean.barcelita@clsu.edu.ph

pilien.ramil@clsu2.edu.ph

crisanto.winnie@clsu2.edu.ph

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

Globally unprecedented changes in the education system heightened the functions and contributions of technology. Padlet emerged as an educational tool to address challenges in the continuity of quality education after the implementation of distance learning. This study examined the impact of using Padlet on second language learners' in language and literature classes satisfaction with Padlet use. The study employed a mixed method design, which used a reliable ($\alpha=0.83$) 40-item Likert scale questionnaire and five open-ended interview questions analysed thematically. Results revealed that Padlet significantly impacted ($t(163) = -7.348, p<0.001$) students' proficiency in language and literature. Correspondingly, the students showed a significant improvement in submitting quality outputs, accomplishing assigned exercises on time, and establishing peer learning and encouragement. In addition, the students reported high levels of satisfaction ($M=3.01, SD=0.43$) with Padlet use. Therefore, schools may consider expanding Padlet's use beyond language and literature classes to maximise its full potential in the teaching and learning paradigm.

Keywords: dynamic learning; high school learners; language and literature; Padlet; post-pandemic learning; technology integration

Introduction

The coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) caused profound changes in aspects of life. Specifically, the education sector suffered a great recession. The prolonged closure of schools resulted in fluctuating academic performance (Santos et al., 2022; Villarama et al., 2022). There is also a considerable loss of motivation among students during the school closure period. For example, Mak (2021) found that 81% of students from the United Kingdom felt unmotivated during the COVID-19 pandemic. The lack of a conducive learning environment caused students' active participation to fall. Wu and Teets (2021) revealed that United States students studying in diverse, huge, and urbanised institutions were found to have a significant decline in engagement, while Villarama et al. (2022) found that learning online was more difficult for students and notably affected their mental health.

A sudden drop in students' motivation to learn and active participation challenged teachers to innovate their teaching methods to continue delivering quality education while uplifting academic interest (Suhardi et al., 2023; Villarama et al., 2022). Therefore, the Department of Education (DepEd) in the Philippines planned a whole-nation approach to bringing students back to school to address learning gaps as consequences of the school closure. DepEd developed multiple learning modalities to support remote learning, such as TV and radio programmes, short message service (SMS), paper-based self-learning modules distributed by teachers, and online platforms for schools with stable Internet connections. These online learning tools paved the way for new and creative ways to encourage dynamic learning (Villarama et al., 2023).

Padlet, an online learning application, enables users to express thoughts on concepts easily. Padlet serves as a bulletin board filled with various media, including documents, photos, videos, links, and other files, which enable educators and students to generate a safe space for collaboration (Erito, 2022). It can be publicised and used collectively with multiple groups of people. Therefore, students can add or post-academic materials while teachers are moderators of learning.

Anchored on "Assemblage Theory" and "Constructivist Learning Theory" (CLT), Padlet, as an educational tool, serves in language and literature classes as a new avenue to increase students' dynamic learning (Karaman, 2008). Because technology-integrated practices in education are essential, evaluating Padlet as a teaching and learning tool helps teachers keep up with academic advances. There is a need to find out how Padlet is integrated into the classroom to help second language learners learn and engage in class after almost three years of academic hiatus.

This study examined the impact of using Padlet on second language learners in language and literature classes satisfaction with Padlet use.

Literature Review

Integration of Technology in Language Teaching

Technology lets people immediately access information from sources. As smartphones, computers, laptops, and tablets grow mainstream, they become the

media of information. Teachers who work hard to gradually introduce tech apps into class and take advantage of technology support and availability also integrate technology into education (Rintaningrum, 2023).

Studies showed the benefits of integrating academic tools like Padlet in class. Ahmadi (2017) revealed that the adjustment of students' learning process was highly assisted by technology, giving them more flexible time and space to review lessons they missed or to access a plethora of online information to supplement instruction received from teachers.

Technology integration also significantly contributed to language and learning processes. Ahmadi (2017) stated that the method instructors use in their classes plays a significant role in effectively learning language and comprehending literature. As a result, new opportunities and experiences were given to students through technology integration in language and literature classes (Merzifonluoğlu & Gonulal, 2018). Additionally, technology can become a valuable factor in learning a language, primarily if technology is used to creatively solve obstacles and improve processes (Ahmadi, 2017).

Language and literature learning, with the aid of technology like Padlet, can advance student-centredness and autonomous learning (Ahmadi, 2017; Rintaningrum, 2023). Rintaningrum (2023) showed that integrating technology improves scores in English tests. Additionally, it enables learners to learn another language with opportunities to listen, write, and speak in English. An opportunity for collaborative learning through technology was also evident. Meanwhile, it also enables teachers to use multimedia presentations to demonstrate new methods of teaching language and literature lessons.

Padlet is an interactive application used for collaboration (Mehta et al., 2021) with various backgrounds, including walls, grids, canvases, maps, streams, shelves, and timelines, which help moderators organize students' outputs. Further, students submit documents, links, pictures, drawings, videos, and other files, which their classmates react to, comment on, and receive grades from teachers (Shuker & Burton, 2021). There is an option for anonymity of posting, which allows students to be more engaged without feeling insecure (Cutting et al., 2020). Padlet supports students' creativity by creating and gathering ideas, images, citations, and the like in one room (Saepuloh & Salsabila, 2020).

Aside from these, in a complex teaching environment, Padlet provides ease of use that results in student and teacher engagement (Shuker & Burton, 2021). Padlet is also practical when exchanging ideas (Dianati et al., 2020), creation and innovation (Kaya, 2015), or experiences relating to subjects delivered to assist learners in developing new knowledge through interaction (Mehta et al., 2021). The features of Padlet supports learning through sharing, modelling, receiving immediacy of feedback, and storage of answers (Deni & Zainal, 2018). Deni and Zainal (2018) also stated that Padlet allows students to learn from mistakes, provide a diversity of answers and have a convenient and accessible avenue of practice. It is a demanding task to manage students' engagement, and teacher-centred classrooms are less engaging to students (Musayaroh, 2022). This results in difficulties in involving students. As an intervention, Padlet engages students and teachers through virtual

interaction, where they instantly upload tasks and activities (Baidoo et al., 2022). Padlet also helps develop an understanding of lessons (Zainuddin et al., 2020).

Use of Padlet for a Dynamic Language and Literature Class

Padlet turns up dynamics in language and literature classes. Anwar et al. (2019) found that English language students positively appreciated the integration of Padlet in the classroom, which made them understand lessons more easily. Further, Syahrizal and Rahayu (2020) showed that Padlet enhances ESL class collaborative and independent learning, participation, and motivation. Meanwhile, Kimura (2018) found that blending Padlet in an English classroom provides better learning outcomes and motivates learners to be more responsible and accountable for their learning. The utilisation of Padlet boosts more dynamic engagement of teachers and students (Sætra, 2021) while uplifting critical thinking (Shuker & Burton, 2021) in language and literature classes.

Studies show that technology helps enhance second language learners' outputs as it supports the development of language and literature skills and makes communication, per se, authentic because of the environment it creates (Shadiev & Yang, 2020). Technology-enhanced language learning has enhanced students' flexibility to learn, increased their drive to be interested in learning a language, and their reading efficiency (Zhou & Wei, 2018). It fosters the needs of visual and auditory learners as students are given language and literature learning materials such as video lessons and online pictures. These new breeds of instructional materials develop students' knowledge as they assist them in appreciating and discerning the topic (Ahmadi, 2018).

Technology opened opportunities for digital collaborative writing in language and literature classes. Some of the tools for collaborative writing include Google Docs, Notion, and Etherpad, among others. Language and literature learners log in to these tools to edit their documents, just like Padlet. This can be done by several students either at the same or differently, regardless of whether they are together physically or collaborating remotely. Meanwhile, the tool traces students' writing. It encourages them to collaborate as they accomplish tasks while expanding their writing and speaking skills, giving them time to correct each other's grammar and suggesting better ideas to develop their group work further (Shadiev & Yang, 2020). Collaborative groups also produce more propositional content and better coherence than those groups that do not (Shadiev & Yang, 2020).

Although technology enhances dynamics, there are still some drawbacks. Carstens et al. (2021) also revealed that technology integration in language and literature classes could be hindered by barriers such as a lack of resources and insufficient computer knowledge and skills. Further, some faculty cannot adequately include technology in courses (Yilmaz, 2021). Similarly, Bangladesh schools encountered problems in technology-enhanced language and literature classes, such as insufficient technological facilities, lack of knowledge and awareness on the application of technological tools, financial constraints, lack of computers and training, and problems with internet access (Hashemi et al., 2022). Additionally, access to a

reliable Internet connection can make the benefits of online learning debatable (Villarama et al., 2022).

Methodology

This study employed a mixed method explanatory sequential research design. First, the data were collected through questionnaires to determine the impact of Padlet use on second language learners' dynamics in language and literature classes and their satisfaction with using Padlet. This was followed by the semi-structured interview method to validate the data.

Through a non-probability sampling technique, 164 (82 Grade 8 and 82 Grade 10) second language and literature learners from a provincial laboratory Science High School in Central Luzon, Philippines, were purposefully selected as the participants in this study. They were enrolled in a language and literature class during the Academic Year of 2022-2023. Table 1 shows the respondents' profile.

Table 1
Respondents' Profile

Variables	Category	Count	Per cent
Sex	Male	69	42.07
	Female	95	57.93
Age	13	34	20.73
	14	47	28.66
	15	28	17.07
	16	48	29.27
	17	7	4.27
Grade Level	Grade 8	82	50.00
	Grade 10	82	50.00

The study used a validated self-constructed 45-item questionnaire with a 0.83 Cronbach α value, indicating a high internal consistency value. The questionnaire consists of four parts: (1) Profile of respondents; (2) Student dynamics in using Padlet; (3) Student satisfaction in using Padlet; and (4) Interview questions. The 40-item questions were measured on a four-point Likert scale (1-Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Agree, and 4-Strongly Agree), and the remaining five open-ended questions were validated by five professionals, consisting of language and literature professors, statisticians, and curriculum experts.

The questionnaire data were collected from 164 (82 Grade 8 and 82 Grade 10) students from Central Luzon, Philippines. On the procedures of using Padlet, the researcher-instructors sent the URL of Padlet to the class messenger group chat. The researcher-instructors used Padlet to publicise important information such as announcements, readings, activities, and assignments. A submission bin in the Padlet wall where students submitted their projects, activities, and assignments was also set. Meanwhile, the semi-structured interviews were scheduled after securing approval from the Central Luzon State University Ethics Review Committee (CLSU-ERC Code 2023-327, dated 18 May 2023) and the participants' consent forms.

This study quantitatively utilised descriptive and inferential statistics to describe and analyse the gathered numerical data. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene's tests were utilised to secure the normality and homogeneity of groups. In describing and summarising the impact of Padlet use and satisfaction of second language learners in language and literature classes, descriptive statistics (frequency, mean, and standard deviation) were utilised. A series of paired-sample t-tests determined the impact of Padlet use on students' dynamics in language and literature class. The students' Quarters 3 and 4 grades in English 8 and 10 were treated as pre-intervention and post-intervention data of their language and literature performance. This study used the Thematic Approach (Clarke & Braun, 2013) to analyse students' responses via semi-structured interviews concerning the impact and satisfaction of Padlet's use in language and literature class.

The present study did not cover areas such as the differences among genders, the comparison between public and private institutions, and the state of educators who used Padlet or any other technological apps integrated into their language and literature classes or any other classes for that matter.

Results and Discussion

Table 2 shows the overall results on students' dynamics in learning language and literature and their satisfaction in utilising Padlet. To provide a specific view of the data, Tables 3 and 4 present statements with the highest average ratings on student dynamics in language and literature classes and their satisfaction with using Padlet, respectively.

Table 2

Overall Results on Student Dynamics and Satisfaction in Using Padlet

Parameters	Mean	SD	Description
Student Dynamics in Learning Using Padlet	2.98	0.31	Agree
Student Satisfaction in Using Padlet	3.01	0.43	Agree

Note: 1.00–1.74=Strongly Disagree; 1.75–2.49=Disagree; 2.50–3.24=Agree; 3.25–4.00=Strongly Agree

Table 2 shows that most respondents agreed that Padlet influenced their language and literature class dynamics ($M=2.98$, $SD=0.31$) and satisfaction ($M=3.01$, $SD=0.43$). This implies that, on average, students find themselves proactive and interactive in learning language and literature with the aid of Padlet. Zainuddin et al. (2020) supported this finding, as the results of the present study showed that Padlet increased students' participation, encouraged more interaction among class members and instructors, and improved language accuracy through learning from their peers. Additionally, students reflected and embarked on self-correction because of the immediate availability of comments in their Padlet class and corrections provided by their instructor and classmates (Wang, 2023).

Table 3

Means and Rank for Student Dynamics in Learning Language and Literature Using Padlet

Student Dynamics in Learning Language and Literature Using Padlet	Mean	SD	Description	Rank
<i>Statements with Highest Average Ratings</i>				
Statement 5: The Padlet encourages me to proofread my activities before submitting them because my classmates see my work.	3.42	0.75	Strongly Agree	1
Statement 19: With the use of Padlet, I learn and understand further about language and literature lessons based on the exercises given by the instructors.	3.24	0.63	Agree	2
Statement 10: With the use of Padlet, I am having fun watching our presentations/outputs in class.	3.23	0.83	Agree	3.5
Statement 3: With the use of Padlet, I learned added information from my classmates through reading and viewing their posts and comments on our class Padlet wall.	3.23	0.75	Agree	3.5
<i>Statements with the Lowest Average Ratings</i>				
Statement 17: The Padlet did not help me enhance my collaborative skills in doing our outputs.	1.93	0.70	Disagree	18

Statement 4: The Padlet does not encourage more dynamic language and literature learning.	1.80	0.63	Disagree	19
Statement 15: The Padlet does not excite me to participate in class because I feel bored using Padlet.	1.77	0.68	Disagree	20

Note: 1.00–1.74=Strongly Disagree; 1.75–2.49=Disagree; 2.50–3.24=Agree; 3.25–4.00=Strongly Agree

In Table 3, most students agreed that through Padlet, students found themselves motivated to be aware of the quality of their class outputs, which has led to constructing high-quality class outputs. The students reported that they had fun watching their presentations and outputs in class in Padlet ($M=3.42$, $SD=0.83$). They also reported that with the use of Padlet, they learned added information from their classmates through reading and viewing their posts and comments on their class Padlet wall ($M=3.42$, $SD=0.75$). Zainuddin et al. (2020) also discovered that most respondents agreed that Padlet allowed them to learn from their classmates when posting or commenting, enhancing their understanding of the topic, which led students to create finer outputs.

Furthermore, most students also agreed that the Padlet is effective in serving as a learning platform for teachers to provide learning exercises ($M=3.24$, $SD=0.63$). The mean for this item ranked second. This is possible because it is easy to set up, access, and use Padlet (Deni & Zainal, 2018).

Meanwhile, the students marginally agreed with the positive impact of Padlet on students' emotions and communication while learning language and literature ($M=3.23$, $SD=0.75$). Similarly, Dianati et al. (2022) found that Padlet became a platform for students to let their voices be heard, breaking the monotony of traditional classrooms.

In contrast, Table 3 shows that students strongly disagreed with the negative aspects of using Padlet. Majority of students disagreed that the Padlet did not excite them ($M=1.77$, $SD=0.68$), did not enhance their collaborative skills ($M=1.80$, $SD=0.63$), and did not encourage them to be more dynamic in language and literature learning ($M=1.93$, $SD=0.70$). In point of fact, students were more encouraged by their peers through Padlet's support, which enabled them to work on tasks together and exchange ideas with classmates and instructors (Zainuddin et al., 2020).

Table 4
Student Satisfaction in Using Padlet

Student Satisfaction in Using Padlet	Mean	SD	Description	Rank
<i>Statements with Highest Average Ratings</i>				
Statement 33: I believe that Padlet can also be utilized and integrated into other courses, not just in language and literature.	3.41	0.61	Strongly Agree	1
Statement 21: I am satisfied with the use of Padlet because it is manageable and user-friendly.	3.35	0.69	Strongly Agree	2
Statement 37: I am more responsible and more independent in learning language and literature because Padlet allows me to track my output submissions.	3.07	0.70	Agree	3
<i>Statements with the Lowest Average Ratings</i>				
Statement 36: I could not engage in class Padlet because I feel it is limited to smart and tech-savvy students only.	1.80	0.78	Disagree	18
Statement 28: I struggled to navigate the features of Padlet because it is not user-friendly.	1.78	0.78	Disagree	19
Statement 32: I don't recommend the use of Padlet because it does not help learners to love literature class, and it gives more preparation for language teachers.	1.71	0.72	Strongly Disagree	20
<i>Note: 1.00–1.74=Strongly Disagree; 1.75–2.49=Disagree; 2.50–3.24=Agree; 3.25–4.00=Strongly Agree</i>				

On the topic of students' satisfaction, while using Padlet in language and literature class, the students perceived Padlet as offering user-friendly features, which makes learning language and literature more efficient, integrative, and self-paced. The flexibility of Padlet use in different subjects is because its features were designed to increase students' involvement in their respective classes (Bugawa & Mirzal, 2018). Deni and Zainal (2018) showed that Padlet increased collaboration in entrepreneurship courses. Additionally, Padlet allowed students to be autonomous

with their learning as it improved the submission of their outputs (Deni & Zainal, 2018) and allowed the students to work at their own pace (Zainuddin et al., 2020).

Meanwhile, most of the respondents strongly disagreed that Padlet was not recommendable because it did not help them to love literature class, and it gave more teaching preparations for language teachers ($M=1.71$, $SD=0.72$). This result shows that students who utilised Padlet strongly disproved the belief that Padlet put a burden on learners and teachers. For example, its file compiler utility made it easier for teachers and students to do their respective tasks (Yilmaz, 2021).

Further, students disagree on the idea that Padlet usage is only beneficial for technologically savvy students ($M=1.80$, $SD=0.78$) and cannot be used by everyone ($M=1.78$, $SD=0.78$). Deni and Zainal (2018) stated that various functions of Padlet, such as its sharing functions, helped academically challenged students by providing immediate feedback while serving as a platform for practice, convenience, and accessibility. These reject the idea that Padlet burdens teachers and learners. Instead, they supported students' learning experiences and teachers' teaching practices.

Table 5

t-test Results Comparing Quarters 3 and 4 Grades in Language and Literature

Grades	n	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Quarter 3	164	92.29	2.24	-7.348	163	0.000*
Quarter 4	164	93.52	3.32			

**Significant at 0.001 level (2-tailed)*

A paired-sample t-test was conducted to compare the students' language and literature performance before and after utilizing Padlet. The test used their grades in Quarter 3 (before, without using Padlet) and Quarter 4 (after, with the use of Padlet). Table 5 shows that there was a significant increase in their grades in Quarter 4 ($M=93.52$, $SD=3.32$) compared with Quarter 3 ($M=92.29$, $SD=2.24$); $t(163) = -7.348$, $p<0.001$. There is significant improvement in the student's proficiency in language and literature after employing Padlet as a teaching and learning tool. Similarly, Anwar et al. (2019) showed that using Padlet in learning linguistic courses effectively improved students' understanding of a topic. Additionally, students shared that using Padlet let them pour their ideas freely on its walls (Anwar et al., 2019).

To further confirm the second language learners' responses on the impact and satisfaction of using Padlet in their language and literature class, the data from the semi-structured interviews were thematically analysed, as suggested by Clarke and Braun (2013). The data were coded and combined into five main themes: (1) Sense of Validation, Inspiration, and Encouragement; (2) Sense of Motivation, Responsibility, and Comfortability; (3) Skills Enhanced through Padlet; (4) Difficulties Encountered in Using Padlet; and (5) Perspectives on the Use of Padlet. Table 6 shows the themes from the semi-structured interviews.

Table 6
Themes from the Semi-structured Interviews

Master Themes	Core Ideas from Supporting Quotes
Sense of Validation, Inspiration, and Encouragement	benefited learning caught interest exerted effort polished output
Sense of Motivation, Responsibility, and Comfortability	checked outputs felt comfortable using Padlet motivated to study sustained quality of work
Skills Enhanced through Padlet	allowed to show tech-skills developed presentation skills enhanced creativity
Difficulties Encountered in Using Padlet	contained limited file size exhibited reliance on the Internet showed inhibition
Perspectives on the Use of Padlet	displayed organized interface experienced fun and thrill monitored submissions efficiently

Theme 1. Sense of Validation, Inspiration, and Encouragement

The features of Padlet allowed students to see their classmates' outputs. They gave them a sense of validation, inspiration, and encouragement to finish and enhance the quality of their outputs. It also helped them practise their speaking and creative skills through collaborative effort. Excerpt 1 shows that the student became more interested and put in more effort to look up information.

- (1) It has caught my interest since it has elements that benefited me. I was able to freely perfect my output to my satisfaction before sharing it to [with] the class, which made me exert more effort in researching information.

Additionally, the results showed that assigned tasks in Padlet encouraged more dynamic learning in class. This speaks true to the "Assemblage Theory," which suggests that the functions of technology, teachers, pedagogy, and students should be intertwined to achieve the target educational goals (Karaman, 2008). Thus, students should be the doer of their learning, anchored on the Constructivist Learning Theory (Karaman, 2008). Excerpt 2 shows that the student became more dynamic in language and literature class.

- (2) In my experience, Padlet boosted my dynamics in language and literature learning through the assigned tasks, which acted as a medium in which I, the student, improved my abilities and learning through practice.

Similarly, Anwar et al. (2019) showed that using Padlet heightened student engagement, cultivated active learning, and extended positive assessment experiences. The effectiveness of Padlet was then said to be grounded in its features that significantly promoted students' collaboration (Albarqi, 2023), supported students' agency (AbdAlgane & Ali, 2023), and enhanced positive assessment experiences (Erito, 2022).

Theme 2. Sense of Motivation, Responsibility, and Comfortability

Padlet significantly inspired and motivated students in language and literature classes because they viewed and read classmates' outputs and gave comments and reactions as part of the application's features and process of boosting dynamic learning. This encouraged students to exert more effort into their outputs (Wang, 2023), hence underscoring the drive for excellence while instigating their desire to study and learn more. Excerpt 3 shows that the student became more motivated and responsible in learning.

- (3) I take my time to study the lesson well to make as few mistakes as possible.

Learners were encouraged to pass their assigned tasks on time because each deadline was indicated in the folder designated for output submission. The fact that their classmates could see if they submitted or not added to their motivation to submit punctually. Furthermore, students preferred using Padlet rather than nosing through a pile of textbooks. The ability to open their modules using their gadgets anytime and anywhere gives them ample time to study lessons and review for upcoming quizzes or examinations as long as there is an Internet-enabled device and stable connection (Alastal et al., 2022). Additionally, all the learning materials were uploaded in designated folders that students could access quickly and conveniently.

Theme 3. Skills Enhanced through Padlet

The respondents, being digital natives, were technologically adept. Padlet allowed them to showcase and utilise various technological skills and their creativity, artistry, analysis, and speaking and writing skills. Excerpt 4 shows that the student's skill was boosted through the use of Padlet.

- (4) I can say that my strength is being a technologically smart person, as it was easier for me to utilise the Padlet and its potential while fulfilling my duty as a student.

Padlet developed students' confidence in presenting outputs. They also enhanced their time management skills by tracking the deadline of assignments, which motivated them to finish each on time. Zainuddin et al. (2020) proved that applying Padlet in the education process enhanced learners' macro skills through self, peer, and teacher feedback and rectification via its features. Moreover, learners transformed into active learners with increased interaction and motivation using Padlet (Kara, 2023; Ta et al., 2023). Undeniably, Padlet helped students develop soft skills expected of them as digital native learners, including communication, collaboration, creativity, and critical thinking skills.

Theme 4. Difficulties Encountered in Using Padlet

While Padlet exhibits beneficial features, students also encounter several difficulties using it. Padlet is not accessible without an Internet data connection and has a limited file size for non-subscribers, which hinders creativity and the quality of outputs. Some students were conscious of Padlet's "free wall" feature because they were self-conscious and media-shy. Excerpts 5 and 6 show that the students found it challenging to process large files in Padlet and they expressed being sentient about themselves and how others might perceive them.

- (5) It could not process heavy files, which I found inconvenient. I also have this fear of my output being seen by my classmates, which I thought they may judge harshly.
- (6) I am very camera-shy and introverted. I am not particularly good at any of oral and video performances.

In these cases, it is necessary to stabilise the goals of Padlet use between enhancing learners' participation and securing a safe "open" environment for them to interact and learn (Mobida et al., 2022; Deni & Zainal, 2018).

Theme 5. Perspectives on the Use of Padlet

After implementing Padlet in language and literature classes, students could utilise it regularly in submitting assignments and other activities. Meanwhile, teachers also used Padlet to post announcements and learning materials. Padlet as the tool is fun and easy to use with its refreshing design and convenient features for learning. Its organizational system made it possible for students to quickly view modules posted by teachers. Also, they can easily track outputs as each task is designated to a folder. Excerpt 7 shows that the student positively perceived Padlet as an enjoyable learning platform.

- (7) Padlet gives me fun and thrilling experience because it is a new avenue for us, students, to learn online but with a more organized interface.

Zainuddin et al. (2020) also showed positive feedback on using Padlet, as participants agreed that Padlet made them feel more associated with the topics discussed. Additionally, Padlet obtained a high satisfaction rate because of its usefulness and practicality in accomplishing assigned tasks (Zainuddin et al., 2020). Moreover, Alastal et al. (2022) emphasised that animation and images that can be posted on the wall piqued students' interest and invigorated interaction with the content uploaded. Overall, Padlet is found to be helpful by students, and they also support the use of Padlet even in other courses aside from language and literature.

Conclusion

Technology allows teachers and students to overcome physical limitations in classrooms. The seismic shift in education methodology increases the role of technology; therefore, educators must keep up. This mixed method explanatory sequential research design study revealed that Padlet contributed to students' dynamic learning in terms of motivation to submit quality outputs, learning through exercises given in Padlet, and peer learning and encouragement through classmates' posts and comments on Padlet Wall. Integrating technology tools such as Padlet can boost students' learning experience, especially after a three-year hiatus brought on by the pandemic. Moreover, there were high levels of satisfaction with Padlet use among students as this tool is user-friendly and manageable, significantly revealing its high academic potential for teachers and learners alike. The questionnaire results showed that the students believed that Padlet could serve its educational purposes on other subjects. Thus, other subject teachers may also integrate technology applications into their class activities and lessons to enhance the quality of education. Finally, Padlet allowed the students to track their submissions in language and literature classes, which increased their self-responsibility and learning autonomy. Padlet use enhances students' dynamic learning and induces high and positive usage satisfaction among students. These are relevant grounds to back up the efficiency and effectiveness of Padlet use in the classroom, specifically in language and literature classes.

While the study focused on the laboratory high school students in language and literature classes alone, future research may explore the effectiveness of Padlet use in public and private junior and senior high schools and colleges and with other courses beyond language and literature. Studies on gender spectra and technology integration in educator classes across curricula may also be conducted. Uploading extra videos and discussions like YouTube links and making announcements are ways to use Padlet in classrooms. To explore its purpose and give students new ways to evaluate the app, further research on Padlet use in other disciplines may reveal other ways to maximise this learning tool for students' overall academic development. It is highly recommended that institutions support Padlet account funding to boost subscription rights and maximise its potential since some respondents observed that the subscription had limited the implementation and effectiveness of Padlet. Hence, removing subscription restrictions might improve students' Padlet learning experience.

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PROJECT-BASED LEARNING INTEGRATED WITH HIGHER-ORDER THINKING SKILLS (HOTS) ASSESSMENT TO ENHANCE STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILLS IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Tuti PURWATI*^{1,2}

Sri SETYARINI¹

Muchamad Muchibbuddin WALY³

Eko SUMANTO²

¹Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Indonesia

²Universitas Jenderal Soedirman, Indonesia

³Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Indonesia

tutipurwati@upi.edu; tuti.purwati@unsoed.ac.id

setyarini.english@upi.edu

muchamadmuchibbuddin.2023@student.uny.ac.id

eko.sumanto@unsoed.ac.id

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the implementation of project-based learning (PBL) integrated with HOTS assessment in helping students develop their English-speaking skills. In addition, this study sought to explore the challenges faced by the teacher when implementing PBL with HOTS assessment. Using classroom action research (CAR) involving 32 ninth-grade students of a junior high school, qualitative and quantitative data were gathered in two cycles. The quantitative data were obtained via speaking tests whereas the qualitative data were acquired through interviews and observations. This research indicated that project-based learning through HOTS assessment helped the students hone their speaking skills as they had more chances to practise speaking. The students were more confident to speak in English. They actively participated during the discussion and could think creatively while performing the project. However, the teacher faced challenges as there were still students with a low mastery of vocabulary and a lack of participation in designing mini-drama scripts.

PBL with HOTS assessment can be used as an alternative to facilitate students' speaking practice in the EFL classroom.

Keywords: project-based learning; HOTS assessment; speaking skills; classroom action research

Introduction

Mastering the skill of speaking English has become one of the hallmarks of students' proficiency in the English language (Pervaiz et al., 2022). Speaking skills are the ability to effectively convey information to the speaking partners using varied expressions. As productive skills, there are two critical components of speaking: accuracy and fluency (Nawshin, 2009). Accuracy refers to how students can speak the language accurately without mistakes in grammar and pronunciation (Wahyuningsih & Afandi, 2020). Fluency refers to how appropriate and confident students are in utilising the language. Fluent students will speak without hesitation, awkward pauses, false starts, or word searching (Koizumi, 2005). In addition, the ability to fulfill pragmatic goals is also considered as the yardstick of successful mastery of speaking skills (Brown, 2001). To facilitate the students in mastering the skills, it is necessary to conduct English language classroom instruction that drives them to enhance their speaking potential.

One of the ways to optimise the students' speaking performance is via classroom assessment that involves critical and creative thinking (Terenzini et al., 1995). The HOTS assessment could drive students to speak English more creatively. Endowed with critical thinking and complex problem-solving skills, students can explore their English-speaking potential. HOTS assessment encourages them to speak English by applying their knowledge in various real-world contexts (Purnama & Nurdianingsih, 2019). It can supposedly allow students to improve their speaking mastery to address 21st-century skills including critical thinking, decision-making, problem-solving, communication, cooperation, responsibility, and creativity (Hilt et al., 2019). In this regard, the use of the HOTS assessment is inseparable from the revised Bloom Taxonomy (Mitani, 2021). It involves cognitive processes that include analysing, evaluating, synthesising, and creating new knowledge. As many EFL students struggle to develop these skills, it is necessary to implement the HOTS assessment that allows students to communicate effectively and engage in critical discussions. Therefore, a practical HOTS assessment is needed to promote the students' critical thinking in speaking.

Nowadays, EFL learning should allow students to be creative and critical in completing projects. Traditional methods should no longer dominate classroom instruction. Those methods allow students to be passive listeners and do not give them room to develop their interests. It will hinder learning output, making students less creative and productive. Hence, new, innovative learning and assessment methods are pivotal to helping students achieve a higher level of critical thinking (Rahmah et al., 2019). This aligns with one of the aims of the Indonesian's 2013 curriculum which is to strengthen the quality of education via attitude, skill, and knowledge. To face the globalisation era, the 2013 curriculum endorses students to

nurture their high critical thinking to grasp different concepts, solve problems, discover new things, develop reasoning, and create good decisions. To address those needs, project-based learning (PBL) is a relevant, novel teaching method that allows students to speak English more creatively.

Project-based learning, recognised as a student-centered teaching method (Sari et al., 2023), prioritises active exploration, problem-solving, and collaboration (Padmadewi et al., 2023). This approach involves students in complex projects addressing real-world challenges, emphasising skills in problem-solving and handling (Zen et al., 2022). The core objective of PBL is to cultivate critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills. Successfully implemented in EFL language learning, PBL enhances speaking skills by allowing students to engage in intricate projects that stimulate creative thinking and problem-solving abilities (Santoso et al., 2021). Offering opportunities for authentic tasks, PBL promotes the use of higher-order thinking skills (Walters-Williams, 2022). Working on PBL projects enables students to develop critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills through problem identification, analysis, information evaluation, solution generation, and evidence-based decision-making (Dabbagh, 2019). This approach fosters more creative and productive use of English in speaking. These studies show that PBL can enhance students' English language skills. However, there is still no analysis of how far HOTS assessment can specifically lead the students to develop their speaking skills.

Therefore, this study investigated the implementation of PBL integrated with HOTS assessment to facilitate the students' practice of English speaking skills. In its implementation, HOTS indicators were incorporated into their speaking assignments. The study aimed to address two research questions:

- (1) how can project-based learning with HOTS assessment facilitate students in developing English speaking skills? and
- (2) what are the challenges and benefits of the PBL implementation coupled with HOTS assessment for teaching speaking skills?

Literature Review

The Nature of English Speaking Skills and HOTS Assessment

Acquiring English speaking skills is challenging for students (Halimah, 2018), which necessitates smooth and accurate expression. Key linguistic factors influencing success include vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, fluency, and accuracy (Gani et al., 2015; Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). To enhance proficiency, EFL students should prioritise productive lexical knowledge (Tong et al., 2022), and refine accuracy and fluency through various activities (Derakhshan et al., 2016). Brown (2004) recommended speaking activities to encompass intensive practice for phonological and grammatical mastery, interactive exchanges for greetings and small talk, transactional dialogue for specific information exchange, and interpersonal dialogue for social connections and knowledge dissemination. Interpersonal speaking performances include interviews, role plays, chats, discussions, and games. In the EFL classroom, teachers can incorporate extensive monologues such as oral summaries, reports, stories, and brief speeches (Brown & Lee, 2015). Nurturing speaking involves

engaging in activities such as role-playing, simulations, discussions, prepared talks, questionnaires, and scripted acting (Harmer, 2007).

The Indonesian curriculum emphasises speaking competence, requiring accuracy, fluency, and appropriateness in daily conversations, aligned with the school-based curriculum and English learning standards for junior high school (Prasetyono et al., 2021). To enhance speaking, a novel approach that employs higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) assessments while fostering critical, logical, reflective, metacognitive, and creative thinking among students should be pursued (King et al., 2017). HOTS implementation, based on Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (RBT), comprises cognitive skills including analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, organised hierarchically from basic to advanced levels (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). In speaking instruction, HOTS can be optimised in both methodology and assessment. Teachers can integrate HOTS into English-speaking assessments using RBT's cognitive process dimensions, ranging from cognitive 1 to cognitive 6. For example, narrative texts aligned with RBT can be employed in project-based learning (PBL) activities, prompting students to create dialogue scripts (apply level), analyse conflict causes (analyse level), and modify stories (create level). These HOTS-based questions within PBL enhance students' creative thinking and speaking skills.

Project-Based Learning for Teaching Speaking Skills in EFL Classroom

It is the responsibility of English language teaching practitioners to conduct creative and innovative learning in their EFL classrooms. Innovative learning can be fostered through a flexible learning process that utilises a wide array of possible methodologies. EFL teachers should boost the students' critical thinking via learning activities they design. In the 2013 curriculum, one innovative learning suggested is project-based learning (PBL). Employing PBL in the classroom is expected to encourage the students' learning experience and participation in class. Using PBL aligns with the goal of the 2013 curriculum to increase the quality of education to nurture attitude, skill, and knowledge of students in order to face globalisation. Through PBL, students are expected to develop high critical thinking to interpret different concepts, solve problems, discover new methods, and make good decisions.

Several studies highlight the positive impact of PBL on English speaking skills, enhancing listening and speaking abilities (Ekawati, 2017). PBL not only addresses real-world problems (Al-Busaidi & Al-Seyabi, 2021) but also significantly influences students' productive skills (Putri, Artini, & Nitiasih, 2017). The benefits of PBL in speaking instruction include contextual and meaningful learning, an optimal environment for practice, increased motivation, enjoyment, and social learning (Zhang, 2015). While PBL is widely used for classroom teaching, there is a scarcity of research on integrating HOTS into PBL for English teaching.

Research Methodology

This study employed Classroom Action Research (CAR) to examine the implementation of PBL with HOTS assessment in enhancing students' English speaking skills. The objective was not rapid improvement but rather the honing of speaking

skills through innovative learning. Conducted in two CAR cycles, each involved planning, implementation, observation, and reflection (Kemmis & Taggart, 1988). The research commenced with action planning, followed by classroom implementation. Observations during implementation scrutinised student learning progress, leading to reflective analysis of the obtained data. The three phases of our PBL approach, based on Stoller (2006), consist of planning (selection of project topic, use of pre-communicative activities, formulation of key questions, design of project plan, creation of project timeline), implementation, and reporting (evaluation of the project, its results, and learning activities).

The study was conducted in an Islamic junior high school in Indonesia, and 32 ninth-grade students were selected through purposive sampling.

The instruments included speaking test questions aligned with HOTS levels based on the revised Bloom Taxonomy by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) and a speaking rubric adapted from Brown (2001) shown in Table 1, which assessed students' English speaking performance. In project-based learning, authentic material from a YouTube channel was utilised, with students creating fable stories based on illustrations. The scoring rubrics covered fluency, pronunciation, comprehension, and grammar, each assessed on a scale of 1 to 5. The rubrics were adapted from Harries (1984) and Brown (2004). The speaking assessment aimed to evaluate four aspects of proficiency: comprehension, grammar, fluency, and pronunciation.

Table 1
The Speaking Grade Rubric

Speaking Indicators	Scores	Description
Fluency	1	(No Specific fluency description. Refer to the other four language areas for implied level of fluency)
	2	Can handle with confidence but not with facility most social situations, including introductions and casual conversations about current events, as well as work, family, and autobiographical information.
	3	Can discuss particular interests that interfere with competence with reasonable ease.
	4	Can participate in any conversation within the range of this experience with a high degree of fluency.
	5	Has complete fluency in the language
Pronunciation	1	Errors in pronunciation are frequent but can be understood by a native speaker.
	2	An accent is intelligible, though often faulty.
	3	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker. The accent may be foreign.
	4	Errors in pronunciation are quite rare.
	5	Equivalent to and fully accepted by educated native speakers.
Grammar	1	Errors in grammar are frequent, but it can be understood by a

		native speaker.
	2	Can usually handle elementary constructions quite accurately but may not have thorough or confident control of grammar.
	3	Control of grammar is good. Able to understand and speak the language at a normal rate of structural accuracy.
	4	Grammar errors are quite rare.
	5	Equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.
Compre hension	1	Within his very limited experience, he can understand simple questions and statements if delivered with slowed speech, repetition, or paraphrasing.
	2	Can get the gist of most conversations on non-technical subjects
	3	Comprehension is quite complete at a rarely disturbed level with sufficient speech.
	4	Can understand any conversation within the range of his experience.
	5	Equivalent to that of an educated native speaker.

The PBL stages encompassed planning (selecting topics, titles, and characters), implementing (drafting, seeking teacher assistance, revising, and submitting stories), and reporting/evaluating (presenting mini-dramas from their scripts) (Stoller, 2012). Table 2 shows the Project-Based Learning Timelines within the Classroom for the group project.

Table 2

The Project-Based Learning Timelines within the Classroom [Group Project]

Group Worksheet			
Project	Performing a mini-drama performance of a narrative text story (fable)		
Project Description	Write a script developed from the narrative story (fable) Divide the group members as the project leader, narrator, and actors to present the script into a mini-drama performance Perform the drama show and complete the reflection task		
Illustration	<i>In the forest, several animals were living there. The animals lived side by side such as a deer, monkeys, birds, a lion, and a tiger. Perform a mini-drama based on the illustration!</i>		
Project time line	Cycle 1	Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Dividing the group project Selecting the theme of story Selecting narrative story based on the theme
	January, 9 th 2023	implementing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developing and creating

		Evaluating	the drama script. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revising the story script. • Dividing the characters of drama performance (narrator, players, project leader)
	Cycle 2	Implementing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memorizing the script • Practice acting out • Making and looking for the drama equipment
	January 11 th , 2023	Evaluating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overcoming the challenges of speaking obstacles on drama and project preparation
	Cycle 2	Reporting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performing the drama
	January 16 th , 2023	Evaluating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessing the speaking competence for the performance

A consent letter was provided to research participants (the teacher and his students). An official letter was also issued, proving that permission to conduct the study was granted. To protect the participants' identities, pseudonyms were used for documentation. Data collection methods involved speaking tests, observations, and interviews.

The interviews explored why and how teachers used project-based learning (PBL) in English teaching, including designing critical thinking questions. Student interviews focused on their PBL experiences, covering what they liked, challenges faced, speaking skill improvements, and their views on PBL's effectiveness. A reflection session followed, looking at PBL's impact, challenges, insights from students, and strategies for improvement. Additionally, an observational checklist gauged student collaboration, communication, critical thinking, creativity, problem-solving, effort, engagement, and oral skills during a specific PBL project. The checklist aimed to capture improvements in pronunciation, intonation, and expression, offering a comprehensive assessment of students in the PBL context.

The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the University of Hull and approved by the Institutional Review Board (or Ethics Committee) of Jenderal Soedirman University (Protocol Code: 021/HRE/LoI/XI/2022 (approval date: 15 November 2022)).

Results and Discussion

Project-based Learning with HOTS Assessment and English Speaking Skills

The First Cycle

In the planning stage, the teacher determined the learning outcomes based on the basic competencies of the syllabus. The teacher made a lesson plan consisting of the 90-minute learning steps using PBL (see Appendix 1). The core activities used 70 minutes of the total lesson time. The teacher also prepared a project worksheet (Appendix 2), PowerPoint presentation materials, and learning videos taken from the YouTube channel *English Pedia*. The teacher also compiled assessment sheets, attendance sheets, and documentation tools. The second stage in the first cycle was action. In a group of six persons, students were given illustrative questions in the form of descriptions of animals living in the forest. The questions were used for developing narrative text for the mini-drama project.

Students composed unique and simple narrative text with clues based on the questions. The questions were given to each group. Given enough time, they started discussing how to develop their story. The teacher approached each group to monitor their progress. The students then created a short narrative text draft to be performed in the mini-drama. The final stage in this first cycle was reflection. The teacher helped correct and revise the students' draft of the story. Afterward, they read it aloud and determined the title, the main paragraph, and its structure. The teacher allowed students to discuss again to determine the characters in the story.

The Second Cycle

In this cycle, the students practised the mini-drama based on their narrative text with the theme of an animal story living in the forest. In the planning stage, the teacher prepared media for teaching including PowerPoint slides, speaking assessment sheets, and evaluation and reflection worksheets. This discussion sheet included HOTS questions regarding moral values, personality characters, problems in the story, as well as its problem-solving.

In the action stage, the teacher informed the speaking assessment criteria. The discussion and reflection sheets were distributed to each group. Each group of three boys and three girls would perform approximately within 15 minutes. Each group came forward to present the mini-drama and dialogue according to the story. In the group, some performed as the story characters, and the rest served as the story's narrators. After the performance, they were given reflection and evaluation sheets (see Appendix 3) to discuss and complete. Next, the sheets are submitted to the teacher. In the sheet, there were HOTS questions related to moral values, what the students can learn from the story, the characters, the problems in the story which are relevant to everyday life, and the solutions to the problems. This was the assessment or evaluation stage in the last cycle. Figure 1 shows the results of the overall speaking assessment on the narrative text project using the speaking criteria from Brown (2001) including fluency, pronunciation, grammar, and comprehension.

Figure 1 shows the results of the students' English-speaking performance. The standard minimum set by the teacher was 75. The minimum score for an English lesson was taken from the teaching guidelines of the school-based curriculum education unit. Among 32 participants in this study, 30 could pass the minimum criteria. Unfortunately, two students could not meet the minimum criteria. The mean score of the students' speaking test was 84.8. The results showed that the students

could develop their English-speaking skills through the PBL project that pushed them to think, discuss, practice, and perform. As stated by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), the HOTS assessment can increase the cognitive domain level of students because they undergo cognitive processes such as recognising the theme and plot story, creating and producing the script, executing the script story, and evaluating and criticising the lack of performance. It means through the reflection of the score, the PBL via the HOTS assessment could facilitate the students to develop their English speaking skills. It echoes the research results from Abdul et al. (2021) in that project-based speaking learning, as an innovative learning method, can improve students' speaking skills in school contexts. Based on the speaking skill indicators, the students could surpass the minimum score (see Figure 1).

Figure 1
The Results of the Students' Speaking Assessment

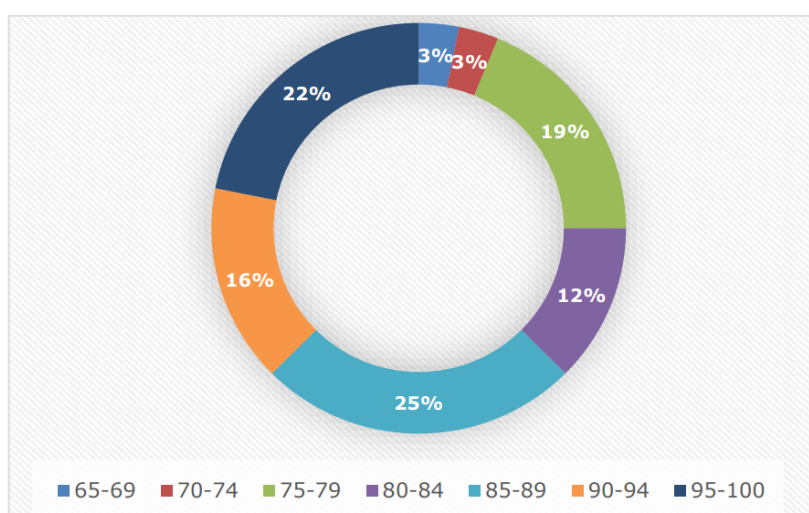


Table 3 illustrates the number of students passing the minimum score for each indicator of speaking skills. For fluency, the minimum score indicated that the students could discuss specific matters in the story with reasonable ease. In terms of pronunciation, they demonstrated that errors never hindered understanding and rarely disrupted comprehension. Grammar errors rarely occurred, and there was a good level of comprehension in delivering the content of the stories. From the graph, 30 to 32 students could speak English proficiently with minimal pronunciation errors. On the grammar aspect, the students still faced challenges in constructing sentences and using correct grammar. For comprehension, they had a sufficient understanding of the plot, characters, and conversations. The results above reflect similarities with research results from Riswandi (2018) that PBL also successfully improved speaking skills elements of fluency, pronunciation, grammar, and comprehension.

Based on the results of observations and document analysis, the teacher had prepared a lesson plan, teaching equipment, and good PPT materials. Lesson plans contained learning methods for project-based learning. Worksheets for student assessments had also been prepared. The project worksheet contained illustrative

descriptions of several animals that lived in the forest together. The students were asked to compose a narrative text involving the animals. Based on observations, after the students received the worksheet, they directly discussed the animal characters to be used as the title and the story's cast. They discussed how to arrange the storyline. They then designed the story draft with the assistance of the teacher and the dictionary they brought. They discussed it enthusiastically while designing the narrative text and preparing for the performance. They asked questions and consulted the teacher about the storylines. The titles of the stories were various: "The Deer and The Bird", "The Clever Monkey", "The King Lion", and "The Poor Tiger". They then assigned each member to have certain roles. Afterward, they again consulted the teacher concerning appropriate pronunciation and intonation. Each group was given one week to practise the mini-drama based on the script.

Table 3
The Number of Students Passing Each Speaking Indicator

Indicator	Number of students
Fluency	32
Pronunciation	30
Grammar	22
Comprehension	25

Challenges and Benefits of PBL Learning with HOTS-based Assessment

There were challenges and benefits of implementing PBL learning with HOTS assessment for teaching English speaking (see Table 4). Even though the students were energetic in designing the script and practising the pronunciation and intonation, there were still problems regarding language use. Some students could not translate their L1 Indonesian text into some English words. They had to check the dictionary and ask the teacher. In addition, there were some students who were rather passive and did not follow the discussion. Fortunately, the discussion could run well since other members were enthusiastic and did not hesitate to ask the teacher. The presence of the teacher was very helpful in scaffolding students on how to construct sentences, translate the script, and practise the intonation and pronunciation of the script.

Table 4
Challenges and Benefits of PBL Learning with HOTS-based Assessment

Group	Challenges	Benefits
Group 1 (6 Students) The Deer and The Bird	Several group members lacked confidence but still successfully memorised the entire script. There was one	The group presented interesting storylines from both main characters. Moral values were very meaningful

	shy and less expressive student in carrying out his role.	and appropriate for their daily lives. The story was very dramatised very well with good use of props.
Group 2 (6 Students) The Clever Monkey	The group was not yet able to combine the sound to make it more interesting. The group did not finish within the given time as the story script presented was rather long.	Moral values were very meaningful and appropriate for their daily lives.
Group 3 (6 Students) The King Lion	There were several sentences spoken with inaccurate grammar.	All players showed amazing fluency, intonation, and expressions.
Group 4 (5 Students) The Poor Tiger	There were few sentences spoken with inaccurate grammar. There was a shy group member.	Overall, a good stage act was also supported by props and tools that supported each scene.

The students enjoyed and enthusiastically participated in the mini-drama performance. They had high confidence in carrying out each role. Their voices were loud and full of facial expressions, varied intonations, or body movements. In addition, they were able to memorise the scripts completely. Many enjoyed each of the characters' roles. They were able to understand the contents of the story. Their performances were well-prepared with supporting sound, unique and varied costumes, and props. However, there were still a few students who still felt embarrassed and nervous before the performance. Several students did not utilise the grammar appropriately when performing the mini-drama.

The advantage of using PBL is that when the students discuss the mini-drama project, each group member should choose one of the characters from the story (Mardiani & Hanifah, 2023). The project preparation activities embrace student-centered learning. The outcome will be better when students work together to complete the project.

To triangulate the results of observations, interviews were done with the teacher. The aim was to address several questions regarding the motivation for using project-based learning, the benefits of using HOTS in work projects, and the challenges of implementing HOTS-based project-based learning.

The following is the teacher's motivation for implementing the PBL:

... the motivation for using project-based is because I see students' interest in practicing speaking. Apart from that, since the theoretical material and reading and writing questions have been implemented, this is the time for me to test my speaking project with worksheets made according to the HOTS standard so that they can think

critically, be creative, and write their own texts.

The teacher employed project-based learning since he had observed the students' interests in speaking exercises. Besides, assessing speaking using HOTS-based worksheets can allow students to think creatively. In the interviews, the teacher also explained the procedure for making HOTS questions:

... I designed the project sheet according to basic competency within the syllabus related to narrative text with the aim of learning to design the text and present it in a role-play. From that point, at the 3rd meeting of narrative text, the project sheet began with stimulating illustrations of living animals in the forest related to the narrative text (fable). With this sheet, they have entered into HOTS by encouraging them to design, create, and discuss.

The teacher created the project sheet appropriate to the basic competency based on the curriculum. The project sheet allowed the students to answer HOTS questions based on the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy. Implementing PBL through HOTS assessment allows the students to develop their English speaking more creatively. There are benefits that the students can obtain from such PBL. However, there are still challenges to the PBL implementation in the EFL classroom. The following are the challenges and benefits of using PBL with HOTS assessment for teaching English speaking skills:

... The advantage of using integrated PJBL with HOTS assessment is that they can explore themselves and be more creative and innovative in making text according to their preferences. During performance, improve speaking skills with confidence and good independence in preparing the drama from memorisation, daily practice, and preparation of equipment.

As for the obstacles, they already have storyline ideas, but for translating, they needed the teacher's help, especially in grammar. Some students were passive and didn't contribute much because there may already be a chairman or persons in charge, so they only accepted decisions about the division of roles. However, they were still professional and did their best in the performance.

In addition, the students were also interviewed with regard to their feelings after performing the project and whether the project helped improve their speaking skills. From the interviews, the students acknowledged that the PBL project was fun and challenging.

I also enjoyed myself! I created an animal-themed project. Sharing what I learned and presenting it to the class was enjoyable. However, as you might imagine, it was a little difficult to finish for drama play.

It was really fun! We were given the chance to select our project topic, and I chose for something that truly fascinated me. It was empowering to be in control, and I gained a wealth of knowledge from the experience.

According to Helle et al. (2006), PBL is a method of instruction based on practical projects that provide students with problems connected to their daily lives that they must solve in groups. They worked hard to produce a simple and easy-to-memorise narrative text so that they could prepare well within two weeks. In the preparation process, their vocabulary mastery improved. Each group competed with each other to get good grades, especially with regards to stage act, voice level, intonation, pronunciation, gesture, and costume preparation. It could help the students to overcome their shyness and laziness in performing the project. In addition, the PBL project could enhance a sense of togetherness and responsibility. Cooperative learning was nurtured via intensive discussion and exchange of opinions with group members. Those are related to the study from Ferianda and Mukartaro (2017) that PBL could improve students' cooperative learning and personal development such as responsibility and collaboration. The results of the test show that the students could develop speaking skills via project-based learning. They could hone their fluency and pronunciation through regular training with their group both in and outside the class. Furthermore, their struggle in memorising the stories helped them to perform the mini-drama successfully.

Despite the HOTS assessment's one-week preparation involved text analysis, students demonstrated confidence in speaking English and presenting expressive portrayal of characters during the project. This aligns with Bell (2010), who postulated that project-based learning enhances attention, motivation, engagement, and enjoyment. Initial passivity in discussions transformed into active roles with loud voices and clear articulations. Through PBL, students exhibit creative and critical thinking, collaboratively decide on the title, storyline, characters, conflicts, ending of the mini-drama, and reflect on their insights into animal fables (Bell, 2010). Additionally, they engaged in peer correction for pronunciation during preparation, culminating in an interactive learning approach (Bell, 2010).

Students demonstrated improved participation and creativity in PBL, enhancing project preparation and understanding through collaborative discussions and peer correction (Shin, 2018). The HOTS assessment encouraged creative idea development, aligning with Riza and Setyarini's (2020) argument that HOTS-based questions significantly enhance students' speaking skills. Wurdinger and Qureshi (2015) support this, asserting that PBL fosters creativity, self-directive learning, problem-solving, and communication. Students engaged in self-reflection through a self-evaluation sheet, addressing HOTS questions for further improvement. However, PBL implementation faced challenges, particularly in guiding students on translating words and constructing sentences in past tense, resulting in low performance in English grammar. Some students were less participative, necessitating additional efforts from the teacher to encourage them to be more active. Overcoming participation issues involves creating a safe and supportive environment where each

student shares ideas equally, receives feedback, and gains motivation to speak (Ur, 1998).

Conclusion

This study showed that the implementation of project-based learning (PBL) combined with Higher-Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) assessment improved students' English speaking skills. The study employed Classroom Action Research (CAR) observation, PBL speaking worksheets and assessments, as well as documentation methods. The students improved their speaking competence, creativity, critical thinking caused by the HOTS assessment, and confidence in performing in English language. These findings suggest that PBL combined with HOTS assessment can be a valuable learning model for improving students' speaking abilities. The study's limitations, however, include its specific educational context and emphasis on speaking skills. Future research should address these limitations by conducting longitudinal studies in a variety of educational settings and investigating the possibility of adapting this learning model to digital or online learning environments. In addition, investigating the integration of PBL with HOTS assessment in multilingual or ESL contexts represents an intriguing future research avenue. Overall, this study sheds light on the potential of PBL with HOTS assessment as a method for improving students' speaking skills and highlights the need for additional research in this area.

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RHETORICAL STRUCTURE OF PRESENTATIONS AT THE ASEAN FEDERATION OF ACCOUNTANTS (AFA) CONFERENCE

Wulan FAUZANNA¹

Ung T'Chiang CHOW*²

Azirah HASHIM³

^{1,2,3}Universiti Malaya, Malaysia

¹Andalas University, Indonesia

wulanfauzanna@hum.unand.ac.id

chowut@um.edu.my

azirahh@um.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

Members of the ASEAN accountant community are required to participate in the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) Programme as part of the lifelong learning program for accountants. One of the activities of the CPD Program is to carry out a conference presentation (CP), whereby presenters discuss issues and offer solutions in accountancy organisations and professional development in the region. This study examined the move structure of the CP presented by professionals who contribute to the development of accounting services, the accountancy profession, and the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). The data consist of 13 conference presentations collected from the ASEAN Federation of Accountants (AFA) conference. The presenters are non-native speakers representing organisations that provide accounting services in the ASEAN region. Data were audio recorded and then transcribed. The findings showed that the presentations contain a structure that discusses the organisation's concerns and solutions for accountancy issues. It includes presenting the background of the study, the need for the proposed solution, describing the solutions, and evaluating the results. This study provides insight into the move structure of a conference presentation in a CPD program. It highlights the professional competence and professional practice of a disciplinary-based CP by accountants in the ASEAN region.

Keywords: rhetorical structure; conference presentation; continuing professional development; ASEAN accountants; accountancy

Introduction

The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) selects professionals such as accountants to work across ASEAN countries through a Mutual Recognition Agreement (MRA). The policy allows accountants to work in host countries within the region. Accountants must enrol in the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programme to meet the requirements. The programme emphasises English language abilities and supports AEC's focus on English communication skills.

According to the International Education Standard (IES) 7, the CPD programme is a learning and professional development programme. It assists accountants in achieving competence in their work. The International Federation of Accountants (IFAC) reported that members need communication and presentation skills to assist the government in its efforts to establish the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) and the ASEAN economic integration (IFAC, 2019).

In line with this, the ASEAN Federation of Accountants (AFA), a professional organisation that controls the progress of the accountant's profession in the ASEAN region, designated the Conference Presentation (CP) as part of the CPD programme. The AFA CPD programme participants must highlight recent organisational concerns, technical competencies, technology utilisation, and fraud prevention in the CP. According to Suprato et al. (2018), accounting students need necessary skills such as proper vocabulary, typical expressions, and correspondence skills essential to accounting. In other words, accountants are expected to acquire English language competence as well as professional competence so that they can carry out professional practices effectively. Thus, a guide or module to fulfil such specific needs is essential.

Empirical studies on CP can serve as a guide to improving the English language and professional competence. While Dubois (1980) compared the oral and written structures of biomedical presentations, Thompson (1994) studied the introduction section that sets up the academic lectures to create the presenter's persona. In later studies, Wulff et al. (2009) focused on the discussion section in Applied Linguistics presentations while Seliman and Dubois (2002) studied the presentation's introduction, body, conclusion, and discussion sections of engineering conferences and the question and answer section of presentation in computer science (Xu, 2022) and the Three-Minute-Thesis presentations in various academic disciplines (Zou & Hyland, 2021). These studies showed the development and focus of research on CP, and their findings highlighted distinctive move structures and moves that were realised by the professional competence of each discipline or domain. Such insights are vital in improving the English language competence and the delivery of the CP. However, there is less focus on the accounting discipline or accountants' competence.

Although some linguistic-based research has been conducted on disciplinary practice related to accountants or accountancy, these mainly focused on the written

genre such as leaders' communication (Ngai & Singh, 2017), review article genre (Azar & Hashim, 2017), and financial reports (Camiciottoli, 2018). Thus, there are deficiencies in the previous research on English language competence and related disciplinary practices, in particular the study of CP that is related to accounting or accountants.

This study examined the move structure of the CP presented by professionals at the AFA conference, and to determine the communicative purpose of the CP. Previous linguistic-based research on disciplinary practices related to accountants or accountancy focused mainly on the written genre. Thus, it is necessary to conduct studies on CPs, especially ones presented by non-native speakers (NNS) in the context of ASEAN.

Professional practice in this study refers to the accountant's conference presentation while professional competence refers to the proficiency and skills required to carry out the professional practice effectively. The focus here is on the professional practice of constructing an effective structure for conference presentations and realising it through the usage of appropriate moves and discourses.

Literature Review

Conference Presentation

The academic genre involves the panel, roundtable, conference section, and conference workshop. In addition, CP also involves the plenary, paper, and poster presentations, which can be continued with or without discussion. A conference presentation (CP) is a monologue presented by the speaker in front of colleagues from the same profession (Seliman, 1996), delivered face-to-face (Hwang, 2013) in real-time, and it involves specific language features (Fernández-Polo, 2018).

Oral presentation studies, in general, have concentrated on academic and professional presentations. One of the earlier studies on academic conference presentations was Dubois' (1980) study on presentation rhetoric by comparing oral presentations to biomedical journal papers. The findings demonstrated the function of each segment: the introduction introduces the audience and the content; the body includes the situation, incident, and comments. The conclusion reverses the introduction, repeats the introduction, and focuses on the results. Seliman and Dubois (2002) updated and improved this framework and proposed a new framework for engineering professional and academic presentations.

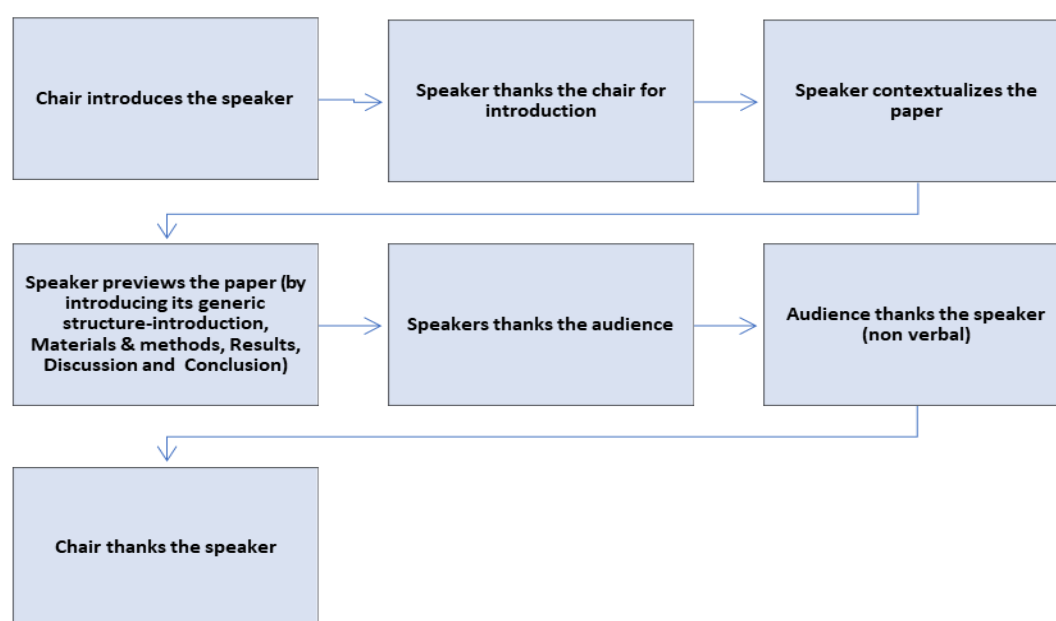
Researchers have intensified the study of move structure and moves of presentations. While other studies focused on different sections of the presentation, such as the introduction and discussion sections (Rowley-Jolivet & Carter-Thomas, 2005; Singh et al., 2019), Seliman and Dubois (2002), identified the structure of the entire oral presentation, which consists of the introduction, body, conclusion, or termination, and the question and answer (Q&A) sections of the conference presentation in Engineering. Singh et al. (2019) found variations in the moves and linguistic features of academic oral presentation introductions in different disciplines. Xu (2022) reported that the turn-taking in the Q&A discussion section serve to build

rapport and justification. These studies showed the structure of academic presentations in terms of moves and strategies in several disciplines but little is known about the accounting discipline.

The theoretical framework of this study is Ventola's (2002) generic structure of the conference section, which is applicable across disciplines. The categorisation of all the sections and main (obligatory) moves in the body section of CPs are presented as academic, social, or organisational genres. Figure 1 presents the generic structure of the conference presentation sections:

Figure 1

The Generic Structure of the Conference Section (Adapted from Ventola, 2002, p. 29)



More specifically, the introduction section starts when the chair calls the speaker's name. The speaker creates a face-to-face interaction with the audience, shows enthusiasm and self-confidence, and attempts to engage the audience by greeting important people, colleagues, and the audience. Fernández-Polo (2012) emphasised the importance of greetings to build rapport and to prepare the audience for the presentation. Moreover, announcing the topics and previewing the presentation structure is a transition before shifting to the body of the presentation. The body section is a complex part of the presentation. It explains the technical concepts, the outline, or the structure of the talks presented in the introduction section, and it also contains the aims.

According to Seliman and Dubois (2002), the termination section or "technical portion of the body" signifies the end of the presentation. This section may include the body's main points and offer gratitude to the audience. Dubois (1980) divided the termination section into two phases: 1) Content orientation, and 2) Listener orientation. The listener orientation includes calling the audience's attention and signal that the presentation will end.

The CP elements, as presented by Ventola (2002), project an organised sequence of activities, which involve a systematic approach for the chair, the speakers, and the audience. The chair is responsible for opening and closing the session. The chair also introduces the speaker to the audience by reading the curriculum vitae of the speaker. Then, the chair opens the session and invites the speakers to present the topic. The speakers then present the paper and, on completion, thank the audience for attending and listening to the talk. Next, the chair handles the Question and Answer (Q&A) session and then closes the session. This structure is typical of CPs in academic and professional conferences.

Apart from the analysis of moves, professional competence requires the use of specific language features as a social activity on a specific topic or discipline. In the conference, some expressions appeared as a signal of topic shift. For example, the function of “you” is to show politeness (Fernández-Polo, 2018), the use of “we” in university lectures refers to a large audience and the speaker, while “the title of my presentation...” is used to introduce the topic of the presentation (Fernández-Polo, 2012).

Method

This study applies a genre analysis approach introduced by the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) school. It uses Swales' (1990) approach, which focuses on the move structure, the communicative purpose, and the discourse community that employs the genre. Furthermore, it adopts Bhatia's (1993, 2004) notions on researching the professional setting, which also emphasises the significance of communicative purpose and moves structure analysis in genres prevalent in many professions.

The corpus in this study comprises 13 presentations from the AFA conference. There were 19 presentations but keynote address, welcoming speech, and closing addresses were excluded. The conference is one of the CPD programmes offered for accountants in the region. The meeting was a collaboration between the Indonesian Chartered Accountants (IAI) and the International Accounting Standard Board (IAESB) and was held for two days in Bali, Indonesia, in 2019. The AFA conference is considered an impactful event for the accounting field in ASEAN countries and beyond.

The presenters at the conference represented professional organisations that provide accounting services, such as ASEAN and international accounting organisations, academia, private corporations, and government agencies. The presenters are experts in their respective fields. Some native speakers came from the United Kingdom and the United States. For standardisation and representational purposes, data were collected primarily from speakers from the ASEAN countries. The speakers comprised two Singaporeans, three Malaysians, and eight Indonesians.

The CP was recorded with a voice recorder and transcribed using Wreally software - a web-based application designed to aid in the transcription of audio recordings into textual format (Wreally LLC, n.d.). Manual edits were made to conform to VOICE's (VOICE, 2009) convention. The recorded presentations were 10-24 minutes each, and the complete recording was 3 hours and 42 minutes. The total word count of the transcript is 28,900 words. PowerPoint presentations and videos

were used to display texts and graphics in the CP, however, multimodality assisting the audience in following the presentation is not the focus of this research.

For data analysis, the first step was manual move structure analysis based on Seliman and Dubois' (2002) move structure (see Table 1). In addition, obligatory moves were identified to establish the move structure of the AFA CPs. The analysis follows Kanoksilapatham's (2005) framework that considers 100% occurrence as an obligatory move. Moves that occur 60-99% are recognised as conventional moves, while the optional moves are moves that occur below 60%. For this study, the moves were recorded based on the occurrence of each move and not based on the frequency of occurrence of each move.

Table 1

Move Structure Framework of Conference Presentation (Seliman and Dubois, 2002)

Moves	Functions
Introduction	
Move 1. Response to the Chairman	Interacting with the chairman
Move 2. Greeting	Greeting the audience
Move 3. Presenting the topics/title	Introducing the title/topic
Move 4. Previewing the structure of the presentation	Presenting the structure of the presentation
Body	
Move 5. Background of the study	Presenting the aim and the objective of the study, the main benefit, historical overview, the logical development, and comparing the old and new situations
Move 6. The need for proposed solutions	Assuming that you will need to propose solutions
Move 7. Proposing solutions	Proposing a solution by stating the purpose and significant characteristics and highlighting its primary importance.
Move 8. Working out proposal	Explaining how the proposal will work.
Move 9. Description of proposed solutions	Describing the concept/model of the work conducted and the level and indicate the work's composition.
Move 10. Try out	After describing the model, provide the trial of solutions.
Move 11. Review the (expected) results of the evaluation.	Discussing the results if it has been successful.
Conclusion	
Move 12. Time check	Checking the time.
Move 13. A hint of the coming end of the presentation	Giving hints.
Move 14. Future Look	Looking at the possible application
Move 15. Tie up the conclusion	Ending the presentation with strategies.
Move 16. Finish	Signaling the end of the presentation and an invitation to ask questions.

The rate of inter-rater agreement among two raters is 92%, which is regarded as reliable. The raters were two lecturers who have experience in teaching the Genre Analysis course as well as conducting genre analysis research.

Results and Discussion

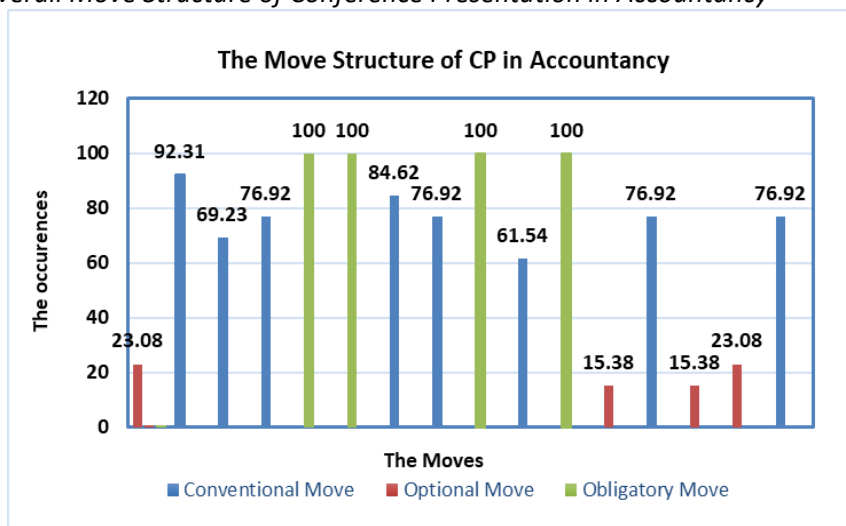
The analysis, as shown in Figure 2, revealed that all the moves in Seliman and Dubois's (2002) move structure are also found in the CP's Introduction, Body, and Conclusion sections. On the other hand, although all the moves were identified in both sets of analyses, 81% of the moves were not obligatory moves.

Firstly, there was no obligatory move in the Introduction section. The obligatory moves were only found in the body section: 42% of obligatory moves were in the Body section, i.e., M5 "Background of the study", M6 "Need for proposed solutions", M9 "Description of the proposed solution", and M11 "(expected) results of the evaluation". Obligatory moves were not found in the conclusion section. The two sections, the introduction and conclusion, were generic and contained conventional and optional moves.

Figure 2 shows that four of the AFA CP moves were obligatory moves (100%) while eight moves were categorised as conventional moves as they recorded an occurrence between 60-99%. The results on the obligatory moves indicate that the CP was mainly constructed according to the discipline of accountancy and accountant's domain. Seliman and Dubois' (2002) study identified similar obligatory moves for presentation at engineering conferences.

Figure 2

The Overall Move Structure of Conference Presentation in Accountancy



There were also four optional moves found in the AFA CP. The occurrences of such moves were less than 60%. The finding on optional moves, i.e., M1 "Response to the chairman", M12 "Time check", showed that the CP move structure was established with fewer moves.

The Introduction Section

The first section of the CP is the introduction. The introduction contained four moves: M1 “Response to the Chairman” was an optional move. M2 “Greetings to the audience”, M3 “Presenting title/subject”; and M4 “Preview structure/scope” were conventional moves.

M2 “Greetings” was the first stage of the presentation. This move focuses on the listeners’ orientation. At this stage, the speakers greet the audience, colleagues, and organizers. Rowley-Jolivet and Carter-Thomas (2005) discovered that the speaker establishes rapport and develops a persona with the listener during the introduction. In addition, the speakers might use jokes and stories and highlight remarks in the opening. The opening section of the CP highlighted the accounting’s communication objective, which engages the audience, who are also colleagues of the presenters. These strategies are used to get the audience’s attention and to prepare them to follow the presentation.

The following analysis identifies the 16 moves found in the three sections of the CPs. Each move is explained, and examples are provided to show the distinctive function of the moves.

Move 1 – Response to the chairman is an optional move. The presenter thanks the chairman for the introduction.

Move 2 – Greeting is a conventional move that appears in all presentations.

(1) Selamat Pagi assalaammualaikumwarahmatullahiwabarakatu excellencies guests and distinguished guests. I think it has to be frankly said that I am pretty nervous speaking in front of all of you.

Greetings are commonly practised in countries influenced by the Malay culture, including Indonesia, Malaysia, Brunei, and Singapore.

Move 3 – Presenting the topic/title is a conventional move. The speakers highlight the issue by restating the title/topic even though the chairperson has mentioned the topic while introducing the presenters. This strategy is also used to contextualise the topic or title and link it to the discussion or body section.

(2) I please to share accountancy profession in Malaysia and **toward embracing** their four-point zero.

(3) I will discuss more and less about the Indonesian perspective so **in the view of the** CPD.

The expressions showed that the presenters intended to extend the topic/title to assist the audience in following the presentations. Rather than just announcing the topic, the presenters also highlighted it by providing the context and linking it to the discussion. This strategy is like Swales’ (1990) announcing the topic move, which is found in the CARS move structure.

Move 4 – Previewing the structure is a conventional move. The speaker indicates the aspects that will be covered. Outlining the presentation structure can assist the audience in keeping track of the presentation.

(4) And then, my presentation **will have some topics. The first [sic] why we need professional skepticism, how to enhance it, then the mini-research result, and the end is the conclusion or lesson learned from the research.**

The Body Section

While the Introduction section of the CP comprised mostly conventional moves, the Body section contained both obligatory and conventional moves. The obligatory moves were M5 “Background of the study”, M6 “Need for a proposed solution”; M9 “Description of proposed solution/model”; and M11 “(expected) results of the evaluation”. The obligatory moves comprise essential topics that the presenters must talk about; for example, the presenters will propose a solution and state the results. In this regard, the moves emphasise the procedures conducted when presenting a model, explaining a project, or presenting some strategies for solving a particular issue.

Conventional moves slightly outnumbered obligatory moves. For the Body section, the conventional moves were M7 “Propose a solution or product”, M8 “Working out the proposal,” and M10 “Tryout”.

It is noticeable that there was a complementary effect between the conventional and obligatory moves. While the conventional moves are more focused on the description, proposal, and suggestion, the obligatory moves are more inclined toward the decision, solution, and results. This combination or sequence existed in the moves of the Body section.

Move 5 – Background of the study is an obligatory move. This move introduces the rationale and aim of the study or causes. To support the background of the study, the presenter also includes his or her educational background and work experience.

(5) **[The topic of the presentation is about Malaysian Institute of Accountants]. So at the Institute of er at the Malaysian Institute of Accountants, we have done a lot of research and analysis, and I myself I completed my Ph.D in two thousand eight looking into [sic] model of successful implementation of data analytics for auditors and at that time the data was very much based on the practice in the UK.**

The present study showed that accounting presentations established understanding by stating the rationale and objective at the onset. The audience can understand what and why the study is carried out and what the intention of the study is. The importance of providing the background of the study is further elaborated by Joseph and Lim (2018), who emphasised that the purpose of adding

context and theories into the background section is to increase the audience's comprehension, present the objective, and promote important topics.

Move 6 – The need for proposed solutions is an obligatory and significant move. In example 6, the speaker begins by explaining the problems and subsequently emphasising the need for solutions. In the following example, the move discusses the technology that has disrupted the work of accountants and simultaneously provides solutions. In this case, the speaker proposed the need to change the mindset and attitude to solve an issue. As such, the move highlighted the significance of the proposal or research.

(6) So, this is where I think there is **still a lot of convincing and the change of mindset that need to happen and probably that's the liquidation attitude whereby**, I will wait and see but **when the technology came**, you know, you probably have no time to learn anymore. **It will be disrupting you. It will take over**, and you've seen how you know er services like. **It just took away the whole or destroyed and change the whole tax system.**

This result is in line with Räisänen's (2002) observation that in academic and professional conferences, problem-solving is discussed alongside research to provide solutions. This move highlights not only the importance of understanding the problem but also the need to find a solution. This obligatory move is in line with the aims of the AFA conference and CPD Programme which require presenters to discuss issues and propose solutions.

Move 7 – Proposing a solution is a conventional move. It proposes solutions to the highlighted problems. The speaker describes the purpose of the study and then offers potential solutions.

(7) and [sic] **really using that and understanding of technology** on the other hand, you know, would make you much better. Better than AI. But **you have to know what are those Technologies in store out there** the latest and **you have to know how to use them.**

In M7, the presenter proposed a solution by describing the importance of understanding technology.

Move 8 – Working out the proposal is a conventional move in which the presenter suggests the methods to solve the problem. The presenter explains how the proposal will be conducted by stating the specific methods. For example, he or she discusses the accounting jobs that are impacted by technology, proposes specialised skills needed for the accountants' work, and then recommends accountant education to solve the problem. In example 8, the presenter suggested methods to equip future accountants with specialised skills.

(8) and the ADB report further talked about, you know, **the three areas where new skills are required the specialized skills transversal and foundation**, and this is important that we have to identify whether a future trained accountants would have those kinds and what will be **the job that matches them**. And [sic] further **the ADB report talks about four quadrants of work** and how this work will be impacted.

Move 9 – Description of proposed solution is an obligatory move. This move is realised by describing the methods/procedures presented in the previous move. As a conference involves stakeholders, members, colleagues, and novice accountants, the sharing of proposed solutions is the main focus (Räsänen, 2002). In example 9, the presenter shared the blueprint with the members. It comprises five principles on the way forward.

(9) next slide please (.) and as a result of a lot of roundtable and engagement with our members in two thousand eighteen **implemented or released our digital blueprint and this digital blueprint is to actually advise our members how to move forward**. Well, sort of...What we are saying is that we can just **share with you the five principles** but what the members need to do is to you know, **self-evaluate themselves whether they have actually met or they have probably addressed the five principles**.

The presenters' statements about the working principle of the solutions are important. Thus, the presenters delivered the concept of the work clearly in several steps to support the methods/procedures proposed in the previous move.

Move 10 – Try out. M10 is a conventional move. After describing the proposed solution, the speaker explains how to put the solution into action. In example 10, the presenter discussed how the electronic bank confirmation system works.

(10) **to look into the implementation of those five principles**. And we have actually er implemented many of those and **initiatives that we had [sic] a conference in two thousand nineteen and we also have one initiative called [sic] electronic Bank confirmation platform**.

In this move, the solutions to the technical problems in the accountants' work were offered, such as organising a conference and offering an electronic bank confirmation system that creates a more effective system for the bank to solve the problems.

Move 11 – Review the (expected) results of the evaluation is an obligatory move and it focuses on the results or expected results of the projects that have been conducted. In the previous moves of the body section, the presenter presented the background, proposed solution, and procedures to achieve the target outcomes. Following this, the presenter reviews the expected results. This evaluation or move appears as the last move of the body section.

- (11) So, we are coming up with the data intelligence and latest conference combining analytics and AI together and we [sic] having the new Currency going cashless conference in a week's time.**

The function of M11 is to report expected results. Stating possible significant results is obligatory because presenters want to highlight the importance of the project/research. The presenters also project the expected results to convince the audience at this stage. In example 11, the expected solution to the problem was to have a "new currency" or to implement cashless transactions.

The body section of the CP is developed mainly through professional accountancy practices. This is in line with Seliman and Dubois (2002) who also identified technical content moves in the body section of their study. In the body section, the speaker described the context and justification for the study and reviewed the solutions. This sequence of moves found in the body section shows that the presenters adhered to the AFA's goals, which were to require accountants to highlight challenges as well as to promote concepts and/or methods to solve them (ASEAN Federation of Accountants, 2020).

The Conclusion Section

In the conclusion section, there were two conventional moves. M13 "A hint of the coming end of the presentation", whereby the speakers gave a signal indicating that the presentation would end. The speakers also marked the end of the presentation by stating gratitude in M16 "Finish", in which the expression "Thank you" signalled to the chairman that the speaker was ready to answer questions.

In addition, optional moves were also found in the conclusion section, that is, M12 "Time check", M14 "Forward look", and M15 "Tie up". For "Time check", the presenter mentioned the remaining time or comments on the time allocated or responded to the chairman's timely reminder, such as "I was reminded that one more minute." M14 and M15 were used to reflect and reinforce the presentation.

Move 13 - A hint of the coming end of the presentation is used to remind the audience that the presentation is almost ending.

- (12)** Okay, **before I end**, I'm also picking up a few points that I've learned this morning ...
- (13)** So, I would like **to close my presentation** with the Statement...
- (14)** I think is the keyword, and I think basically the curiosity to learn a new thing. **I think that is the end of my presentation.**

These examples are similar to Guest's (2018) conclusion that the speaker must make an effective conclusion with phrases such as "I'd like to conclude by saying ..." or "Before ending the presentation, I'd like to ..." that highlight the concluding remarks. **Move 14 – Future look** – The speakers emphasise the future application of the solutions that have been presented.

- (15) I would like to design professional accounting education program very well and also to promote methods for Learning and Development for a professional scepticism

Move 15 – Tie up the conclusion – The speakers emphasise the messages by confirming the main points.

- (16) I have this video as a closing for the sessions that can conclude everything how we can see the role of human in the growth of this kind of Technology, especially in content.

Move 16 – Finish is to express gratitude to the audience who has listened to the presentation. The purpose of the concluding section is to ensure that the audience reflects on the presentation, remembers the main aim of the presentation, and to thank the audience. The conclusion section is typically concise.

- (17) Thank you.

This study also identified two new moves in the AFA CP that did not appear in Seliman and Dubois' (2002) move structure. The moves are "Self-introduction" and "Playing the video". The former move is usually used in the introduction section, while the latter is sometimes used in the conclusion section. Table 2 compares the moves from Seliman and Dubois (2002) and the moves identified from the AFA Conference Presentations.

Table 2

The Framework Moves and the AFA Conference Presentation Moves

Framework Moves (Seliman & Dubois, 2002)	AFA Conference Presentation Moves
Introduction	
Move 1. Response to the Chairman	Move 1. Response to the Chairman
Move 2. Greeting	Move 2. Greeting
Move 3. Presenting the topics/title	Move 3. Introducing self/organisation (New Move)
Move 4. Previewing the structure of the presentation	Move 4. Presenting the topics/title
	Move 5. Previewing the structure of the presentation
Body	
Move 5. Background of the study	Move 6. Background of the study
Move 6. The need for proposed solutions	Move 7. The need for proposed solutions
Move 7. Proposing solutions	Move 8. Proposing solutions
Move 8. Working out proposal	Move 9. Working out proposal
Move 9. Description of proposed solutions	Move 10. Description of proposed solutions
Move 10. Try out	Move 11. Try out
Move 11. Review the (expected) results of the evaluation.	Move 12. Review the (expected) results of the evaluation.
Conclusion	
Move 12. Time check	Move 13. Time check

Move 13. A hint of the coming end of the presentation

Move 14. Future Look

Move 15. Tie up the conclusion

Move 16. Finish

Move 14. A hint of the coming end of the presentation

Move 15. Future Look

Move 16. Tie up the conclusion

Move 17. Finish

Move 18. Playing the video (New Move)

Note: The AFA Conference Presentations have 18 moves. There are 16 moves similar to Seliman and Dubois (2002) and two new moves (Move 3 and Move 18).

Introducing self/organisation is a new move that highlights the presenters' positions while promoting their organisations. The speakers are members of the accountancy organisation and stakeholders, and they usually provide the background of their education or responsibilities in their organisations during this move. Although the chair introduced each speaker by reading their Curriculum Vitae, this action is repeated in the opening part. This move could be a new professional practice in the domain and discipline of accountancy, especially in CPs.

Playing the video is a new move related to the increasing usage of technology in presentations. While most presenters used PowerPoint slides, some opted to use other media to support their presentations. Among the popular media are the company corporate video or a short video which recaps the aims of the presentation.

The Communicative Purpose

The obligatory and conventional moves and the new moves, which are introducing self and playing the video, project the three specific communicative purposes of the AFA CP.

First, to persuade the audience that the problem can be solved by offering context, explaining reasons for the necessity for proposed solutions, and describing the solutions. The presenters also attempted to convince the audience that the problems can be solved using presented solutions by discussing the importance of the solutions and explaining how to implement them.

Second, to offer a "problem-solving package or plan" through detailed description and explanation of the solutions, encouragement to try the solutions out, and assurance of how the solution works. The presenters usually offered the use of state-of-the-art technology and up-to-date best practices as solutions to specific accounting difficulties.

Third, to establish effective communication among the practitioners, the members, and the stakeholders. The presenters attempted to establish good audience reception by applying professional practices specific to the accounting community and practicing cultural and professional courtesies.

To summarise, the moves found in the AFA CP are typically similar to the moves of Engineering oral presentations which were investigated by Seliman and Dubois (2002), except for two new move categories. While some previous studies (Dubois, 1980; Wulff et al., 2009) concentrated on a particular linguistic feature in academic presentations to highlight or establish the communicative purposes of the genre, more recent studies focused on the rhetorical structure of sections of

academic presentations (Singh et al., 2019; Xu, 2022). The study of AFA CPs, however, is more extensive as it not only identified several specific moves in the introduction and the conclusion sections within the conference presentation of accounting but also distinguished the AFA CPs from other professional presentations and practices. In the case of AFA CP, the conference presentation is very focused on identifying current accounting issues and proposing solutions to the issues.

Conclusion

The current study determines the move structure of conference presentations in a CPD programme for accountants. The findings of the AFA CP study are comparable to those of Seliman and Dubois' (2002) study on Engineering oral presentations, in that the discipline and mode-medium of presentations have a significant impact on the move structure. However, the two new moves are "Self-introduction" and "Playing the video". It also found that the AFA CP was inclined towards a disciplinary-based approach rather than an academic or social approach. This study provides insights into professional or discipline-based CPs. As CPs are a type of dynamic genre that will evolve, especially with the usage of rhetorical strategies to produce effective presentations, there should be continuous analysis of such genres. For an in-depth understanding of the CPs, a multi-perspective genre analysis could be applied to provide a more detailed description of the genre and a deeper understanding of the professional practice and professional competence.

Acknowledgments

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TAKSONOMI KATA PINJAMAN ARAB-MELAYU DARI ASPEK GRAMATIKAL

Mohammad Fadzeli JAAFAR*¹

Indirawati ZAHID²

Noorazlin ABU BAKAR³

¹Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia

^{2,3}Universiti Malaya, Malaysia

fadzeli@ukm.edu.my

indirawati@um.edu.my

noorazlin@um.edu.my

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRAK

Peminjaman bahasa berlaku kerana faktor sosial atau gramatikal. Faktor sosial merujuk kepada sikap penutur, sementara faktor gramatikal berkaitan dengan aspek tatabahasa. Makalah ini membincangkan kata pinjaman Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu dari aspek gramatikal. Tujuan kajian ini adalah untuk mengkategorikan kata pinjaman Arab berdasarkan kelas kata dan menghuraikan faktor peminjaman bahasa, misalnya peminjaman budaya dan peminjaman teras. Kajian ini menggunakan Kamus Dewan Perdana (2021) yang mempunyai lebih daripada 120 ribu entri. Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah sekunder dan rujuk silang untuk mengenal pasti kata pinjaman Arab yang terdapat dalam kamus. Hasil kajian mendapati kata nama adalah yang terbanyak dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu. Kajian ini telah membahagikan kelas kata pinjaman Arab-Melayu kepada tiga kategori, iaitu (1) kata pinjaman kekal, (2) kata pinjaman berubah, dan (3) kata pinjaman bercampur. Selain itu, terdapat sejumlah kata pinjaman Arab yang telah dikategorikan secara tidak tepat dalam bahasa Melayu, misalnya “hujah”, “muktamad” dan “rela”. Lebih menarik lagi, kajian mendapati kebanyakan perkataan Arab yang dipinjam ialah jenis pinjaman budaya, iaitu objek atau konsep baru, yang tidak wujud dalam budaya Melayu. Kajian ini telah menyumbang kepada taksonomi kata pinjaman Arab-Melayu berdasarkan data korpus.

Kata Kunci: sosial; gramatikal; taksonomi; peminjaman budaya; peminjaman teras

TAXONOMY OF ARAB-MALAY LOANWORDS FROM GRAMMATICAL ASPECTS

ABSTRACT

*Language borrowing occurs due to social or grammatical factors. The social factor refers to the speaker's attitude, while the grammatical factor is related to grammatical aspects of the language. This paper will discuss Arabic loan words in Malay from a grammatical aspect. This study aims to categorise Arabic loanwords based on word class and explain the factors of language borrowing, such as cultural and core borrowing. The data for this study are the Kamus Dewan Perdana (2021) which has more than 120 thousand entries. This study applies secondary and cross-reference methods to identify Arabic loanwords in the Dewan Perdana. The results of show that nouns are the most borrowed into the Malay language. This study has divided the class of Arabic-Malay loanwords into three categories: (1) retained loanwords, (2) unretained loanwords, and (3) mixed loanwords. In addition, several Arabic loanwords have been incorrectly categorised in Malay, such as *hujah*, *muktamad* and *rela*. More interestingly, this study found that most of the borrowed Arabic words are cultural borrowing, that is, new objects or concepts, which do not exist in Malay culture. This study has contributed to the taxonomy of Arabic-Malay loanwords based on corpus data.*

Keywords: *social; grammatical; taxonomy; cultural borrowing; core borrowing*

Pengenalan

Peminjaman bahasa merujuk kepada proses mengambil atau mengimport item daripada sistem linguistik bahasa lain; proses melibatkan dua budaya yang saling berhubung melangkaui period masa (Bates, 2002). Jumlah kata yang dipinjam oleh sesuatu bahasa bergantung kepada hubungan dan pengaruh bahasa yang dipinjam. Misalnya, bahasa Tagalog di Filipina lebih banyak meminjam perkataan bahasa Sepanyol berbanding dengan bahasa Inggeris kerana negara ini pernah dijajah oleh negara tersebut (Haja Mohideen, 2006). Situasi di Malaysia pula berbeza kerana penjajahan Inggeris telah menyebabkan bahasa Inggeris lebih banyak dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu. Bahasa Inggeris juga merupakan bahasa perhubungan luas (*language of wider communication*), maka tidak hairanlah bahasa Inggeris lebih dominan peminjamannya di Malaysia. Kini bahasa Arab semakin banyak dipinjam ke dalam kosa kata bahasa Melayu. Dalam hal ini, Jones (2008) menyatakan bahawa:

Although most of the vocabulary of Sanskrit origin in Malay appears to have been introduced in the context of bureaucratic, religious and cultural practice, trade may also have been a factor from the beginning. After the introduction of Islam, Arabic and Persian displaced Sanskrit as donors of loanwords to Malay. (hlm. xxii)

Pernyataan tersebut menjelaskan bahawa sebelum kedatangan Islam, bahasa Melayu banyak meminjam daripada bahasa Sanskrit dalam pelbagai konteks, misalnya pentadbiran, agama, budaya dan perdagangan. Namun begitu, selepas kedatangan Islam ke Nusantara pada abad ke-14, bahasa Arab dan Parsi telah menggantikan bahasa Sanskrit sebagai penyumbang utama kata pinjaman. Hal yang hampir sama turut disebut oleh Mohd Shariff (1988), iaitu abad ke-13 dan ke-14 merupakan zaman surutnya pengaruh peradaban Hindu dan berkembangnya pengaruh peradaban Islam di Nusantara. Dalam perkataan lain, unsur-unsur Hindu telah digantikan dengan unsur-unsur Islam, khususnya melalui kemasukan perkataan Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu, yang berkaitan dengan agama, politik, falsafah dan moral. Hakikatnya, kata pinjaman Arab merupakan penyumbang kedua selepas bahasa Sanskrit (Abas et al., 2019; Mansor, 2017). Menurut Beg (1979), terdapat hampir 2,000 perkataan Arab yang termaktub dalam kamus Melayu. Beliau telah mengelaskan perkataan Melayu yang dipinjam daripada bahasa Arab berdasarkan beberapa tajuk atau aspek seperti keagamaan, kebudayaan, perundangan, bahasa, ekonomi, kemasyarakatan, politik, alam semula jadi, pentadbiran, dan perubahan.

Secara umum, kemasukan kata pinjaman boleh dijelaskan berdasarkan dua aspek, iaitu aspek sosial dan gramatikal (Haspelmath, 2009). Aspek sosial merujuk kepada faktor sikap penutur terhadap bahasa penyumbang (*donor language*) yang mempunyai prestij, misalnya bahasa Inggeris. Aspek gramatikal pula berkaitan isu tata bahasa, misalnya kelas kata yang banyak dipinjam oleh sesuatu bahasa.

Makalah ini membincangkan aspek gramatikal kata pinjaman Arab-Melayu, yang melibatkan kategori kelas kata. Perbincangan dalam makalah ini tertumpu pada taksonomi, iaitu pengkategorian kata pinjaman bahasa Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu.

Sorotan Literatur

Setakat ini telah banyak kajian tentang kata pinjaman bahasa Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu dilakukan oleh pengkaji tempatan. Kajian lepas tertumpu pada pelbagai aspek, misalnya penguasaan bahasa, fonologi, morfologi dan semantik. Misalnya, Sapar et al. (2013) mengkaji penguasaan pelajar sekolah terhadap kata pinjaman bahasa Arab berdasarkan pengetahuan sedia ada. Subjek kajian terdiri daripada 150 orang pelajar tingkatan empat dan melibatkan tiga sekolah aliran agama. Kajian tersebut menggunakan kaedah ujian pengesanan perkataan bahasa Arab yang telah diserap ke dalam bahasa Melayu. Sebanyak 25 perkataan bahasa Arab dan 25 perkataan bahasa Melayu yang terdapat dalam buku teks bahasa Arab diuji kepada pelajar. Pengkaji telah membahagikan kata pinjaman Arab kepada pinjaman tulen dan pinjaman kacukan atau ubah suai. Kata pinjaman tulen dikategorikan sebagai pinjaman serupa, iaitu bentuk bahasa sumbernya tidak berubah ke dalam bahasa sasaran. Kata pinjaman kacukan atau ubah suai pula diletak dalam kategori pinjaman hampir serupa, iaitu bentuk bahasa sumbernya telah berubah sebahagiannya, sama ada dari segi makna atau bunyi. Hasil kajian menunjukkan sejumlah 87.52% pelajar berjaya mengecah kata pinjaman Arab. Pencapaian yang tinggi ini dibantu oleh latar belakang pelajar, yang telah mempelajari bahasa Arab.

Seterusnya, Mohamad Din dan Baharudin (2016) mengkaji strategi meneka makna kata dalam al-Quran melalui kata pinjaman Arab, dan telah mengklasifikasi

kata pinjaman mengikut jenisnya berdasarkan surah *as-Sajdah* dan *Yaseen*. Keseluruhannya, pengkaji menemui 94 (25.54%) dan 166 (23.18%) kata pinjaman dalam kedua-dua surah tersebut. Berdasarkan makna, didapati wujudnya tiga jenis kata pinjaman Arab, iaitu:

- 1) Kata serapan sepenuh (kaum, azab),
- 2) Penyempitan makna (nafsu/orang, jiwa; rahim atau organ pada perempuan/pengasih), dan
- 3) Perubahan separa (kata/berkata; pesanan terakhir, wasiat/wasiat).

Zakaria et al. (2017) pula mengkaji penggunaan kata pinjaman dalam puisi Melayu. Menurut mereka, penggunaan kata pinjaman Arab yang tidak tepat boleh menimbulkan kekeliruan kepada pembaca. Teks kajian mereka ialah antologi puisi Sumur Mahmudah oleh Ony Latifah Osman yang diterbitkan pada tahun 2006. Hasil kajian mendapati bahawa kata pinjaman Arab dapat dikategorikan kepada dua jenis, iaitu:

- 1) kata pinjaman yang tepat dengan makna asal (hijab, baqa', ukhrawi)
- 2) kata pinjaman yang tersasar daripada makna asal (nawaitu, takrir)

Dalam konteks kata pinjaman bahasa Arab yang dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu, Zakaria et al. (2017) telah mengkategorikan kata pinjaman kepada tiga jenis, iaitu:

- 1) Perkataan Arab yang mengekalkan bunyi dan makna asal seperti "alim", "majlis", "masjid" dan "hakim".
- 2) Perkataan Arab yang mengekalkan bunyi asal, tetapi berlainan maksud seperti perkataan "pondok" bermaksud "hotel" dalam bahasa Arab, tetapi merujuk kepada "pondok" juga dalam bahasa Melayu atau perkataan "pinggan" dalam bahasa Arab bermaksud "cawan", tetapi dalam bahasa Melayu bermaksud "pinggan".
- 3) Perkataan Arab yang mengekalkan bunyi asal, tetapi mengalami perubahan sebahagian daripada maksudnya seperti perkataan "alamat" dalam bahasa Arab bermaksud "tanda", manakala dalam bahasa Melayu bermaksud "alamat". Perkataan "maktab" dalam bahasa Arab bermaksud "pejabat" atau "meja", manakala dalam bahasa Melayu bermaksud "institusi".

Berdasarkan kategori yang dinyatakan, dapat dirumuskan bahawa kata pinjaman Arab yang menyerap masuk dalam bahasa Melayu melibatkan aspek fonologi dan semantik. Aspek fonologi merujuk kepada sistem bunyi perkataan, yang secara umum dikekalkan sebagaimana bunyi asalnya. Aspek semantik pula memperlihatkan beberapa situasi, iaitu pengekalannya makna asal, perubahan makna seluruhnya atau perubahan makna sebahagiannya.

Selanjutnya, Abdullah dan Abdullah (2018) meneliti proses perubahan kelas kata pinjaman Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu berdasarkan data korpus DBP-UKM. Hasil kajian mendapati kelas kata dalam bahasa asal telah berubah ke dalam bahasa

Melayu, misalnya kata “kuat” dalam bahasa Arab ialah kategori kata nama terbitan (*al-Masdar*). Kata akar “kuat” berasal daripada kata kerja lampau (*qawiya*). Dalam bahasa Melayu, penggunaan kata “kuat” ini boleh berubah kelas katanya mengikut ayat, misalnya:

- 1) adjektif: paling *kuat*
- 2) adverb: bekerja *kuat*
- 3) kata kerja: meng(*kuat*)kan

Mat Lazim dan Syed Jaafar (2018) pula mengkaji isu kata pinjaman bahasa Arab dalam dialek Kelantan, dengan tumpuan khusus kepada proses delikuidasi. Kajian tersebut menggunakan kaedah senarai kata, iaitu sebanyak 46 perkataan diuji kepada 15 orang penutur dialek Kelantan. Hasil kajian mendapati bahawa konsonan /l/ dan /r/ pada akhir kata kata pinjaman bahasa Arab akan digugurkan, misalnya “awal” menjadi [a.wa] dan “sabar” menjadi [sa.ba].

Selanjutnya, Nisa (2018) meneliti pergeseran bahasa Arab dalam komuniti Arab Singaraja dan Denpasar. Informan kajian berumur 50 tahun ke atas telah dirakam percakapan mereka secara formal dan informal. Hasil kajian mendapati kata pinjaman Arab dapat dikategorikan kepada tiga jenis, iaitu:

- 1) pemasukan morfem tanpa sibstitusi (*loanwords*), contohnya *abi umi* dan *hadiyah*
- 2) substitusi morfem berserta pemasukan (*loanblends*), contohnya *yasin* menjadi *yasinan*, *qahwah* menjadi *gahwah*
- 3) substitusi morfem tanpa pemasukan (*loanshifts*), contohnya *fudhul*, *syughul*

Mulyani dan Mohd Nor (2018) seterusnya mengkaji pengaruh kata pinjaman Arab terhadap orang Melayu. Kajian mereka tertumpu pada kata pinjaman Arab yang terdapat Kamus Dewan dan Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia. Hasil kajian mendapati bahawa orang Melayu serupa dengan muslim kerana ramai yang menggunakan nama Arab, misalnya Adam, Hawa, Muhammad, Siti Hajar dan Khadijah. Kata pinjaman Arab juga digunakan dalam pelbagai bidang, seperti undang-undang (hukum, hakim) dan pendidikan (kuliah, madrasah). Kajian terkini tentang kata pinjaman Arab dilakukan oleh Al-Jarf (2021). Tujuan kajian tersebut adalah untuk membantu pelajar Arab di Malaysia mempelajari bahasa Melayu melalui pelbagai korpus seperti surat khabar, sari kata filem, nama jalan, kamus dan *internet website*. Al-Jarf membandingkan fonologi dan semantik bahasa Arab dengan bahasa Inggeris. Hasil kajiannya mendapati kebanyakan kata pinjaman Arab mengekalkan makna yang sama dalam bahasa Melayu, kecuali beberapa perkataan, misalnya “menara” yang bermaksud *minaret* atau *beacon* dalam bahasa Arab.

Berdasarkan huraian ini, dapat dirumuskan bahawa kajian lepas lebih tertumpu pada aspek fonologi dan semantik. Proses peminjaman bahasa Arab turut melibatkan aspek sintaksis, iaitu pengekelan atau perubahan kelas kata. Sehubungan dengan itu, kajian ini membincangkan isu peminjaman kata Arab ke dalam bahasa

Melayu dari sudut gramatikal, dan faktor peminjaman bahasa Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu.

Metodologi

Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah sekunder untuk mengekstrak kata pinjaman Arab dalam Kamus Dewan Perdana (KDP). Pengekstrakan data ini dilakukan terhadap entri yang berlabel “Ar” dan tidak berlabel “Ar”. Label “Ar” bermaksud kata pinjaman berasal daripada bahasa Arab. Selanjutnya, kajian ini menggunakan kaedah rujuk silang untuk perkataan yang tidak berlabel “Ar”, dengan tujuan mengesahkan etimologi kata tersebut sebagai kata pinjaman Arab. Kaedah rujuk silang perkataan yang tidak berlabel “Ar” dilakukan terhadap pelbagai kamus lain seperti *A Malay-English Dictionary* oleh Wilkinson (1959), Kamus Bahasa Melayu oleh Winstedt (1960), *Arabic loan-words in Malay* oleh Berg (1979), Ilmu Mengarang Melayu oleh Ahmad (2002), *Loan-words in Indonesian and Malays* oleh Jones (2008) dan Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat (2015).

Berdasarkan kedua-dua kaedah ini, ditemui 1,884 kata pinjaman Arab dalam KDP. Jumlah ini sedikit berbeza dengan dapatan kajian lepas, misalnya Beg (1979) menemui sejumlah 1,000 kata pinjaman Arab. Mansor (2017) pula berjaya mengumpul 1,242 perkataan Arab dalam Kamus Dewan, manakala Zaidan et al. (2015) menemui sejumlah 1,791 perkataan bahasa Arab yang diserap dalam Kamus Dewan. Perbezaan jumlah kata pinjaman Arab ini disebabkan KDP merupakan kamus bahasa Melayu terbesar dan terlengkap pernah diterbitkan oleh Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka. KDP dibina melalui pelbagai jenis data, misalnya data korpus DBP, penggunaan kata dalam internet dan pencungkilan maklumat daripada informan terpilih. Terdapat lebih daripada 120 ribu entri dan subentri dalam kamus ini. Kata pinjaman Arab yang telah dikenal pasti dipaparkan dalam Jadual 1.

Jadual 1

Entri Kata Pinjaman Arab dalam Kamus Dewan Perdana (2021)

Bil.	Kata	Takrif	Kelas kata	Halaman
1.	abad	1 jangka masa seratus tahun yg berurutan, dikira dr perhijrahan Nabi Muhammad SAW bagi tahun Hijrah, atau kelahiran Nabi Isa a.s. bagi tahun Masihi; kurun: Abad ke-20 dikira dr tahun 1901 hingga tahun 2000. • dlm abad kesembilan Hijrah; • pd abad ke-15 Masihi; 2 jangka masa seratus tahun yg dikira dr satu tarikh ke satu tarikh yg lain; kurun: Rumah yg dibina lebih drp satu abad yg lalu masih diduduki. • Umur datuknya separuh abad. 3 zaman berlakunya peristiwa	Kata nama	1

		penting: Abad Asia; • abad pertengahan; • abad humanisme.		
215	azali	1 masa sebelum adanya sst apa pun selain Allah; azal: Sejak azali Allah menetapkan jodoh dan maut setiap makhluk. • Memang sudah suratan azali kita dipertemukan di sini. 2 (bkn Allah) sedia ada tanpa permulaan dan perhinggaan: Sifat zat Tuhan semuanya azali.	1 Kata Nama; 2 Kata Adjektif	163

Jadual 1 menunjukkan terdapat lima ruang, iaitu bilangan, perkataan Arab yang dipinjam, takrif kata tersebut, kelas kata dan halaman untuk kata pinjaman. Bilangan 1, misalnya kata “abad” dikategorikan sebagai kata nama, sementara bilangan 215, dengan kata “azali” terdiri daripada kata nama dan kata adjektif. Pengkategorian kelas kata dalam KDP ditentukan oleh penggunaannya dalam ayat. Kajian ini membincangkan proses peminjaman kata Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu berdasarkan kelas kata. Misalnya, terdapat perkataan Arab yang dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu dan kelas katanya tidak berubah. Sebaliknya, ada kata pinjaman Arab yang berubah kelas kata, malah menghasilkan beberapa kelas kata yang berbeza dalam bahasa Melayu, sebagaimana kata “azali”.

Hasil Kajian dan Perbincangan

Bahagian ini membincangkan hasil kajian berdasarkan sejumlah data yang telah dikenal pasti. Perbincangan menjurus kepada isu kelas kata pinjaman Arab ke dalam bahasa Melayu dan faktor berlakunya peminjaman bahasa.

Pengkategorian Kata Pinjaman Arab

Berdasarkan penelitian, kata pinjaman Arab dalam Kamus Dewan Perdana (KDP) terdiri daripada kelas kata terbuka dan tertutup. Kelas kata terbuka merangkumi kelas kata utama, misalnya kata nama, kata kerja, kata adjektif dan kata adverba (Omar, 1986). Kelas kata tertutup pula terdiri daripada kata fungsi (*function words*), misalnya kata hubung, kata sendi, penanda wacana dan partikel. Kelas kata terbuka, iaitu kata nama dan kata adjektif lebih banyak dipinjam berbanding dengan kata tertutup.

Dalam kes peminjaman bahasa, sesuatu bahasa lebih mudah meminjam kelas kata terbuka, misalnya kata nama berbanding dengan kelas kata tertutup, misalnya kata preposisi dan kata hubung (Omar, 1986; Soto-Corominas et al., 2018). Berkaitan dengan kata pinjaman Arab, Jones (2008) menegaskan, “*The grammatical profile of the loans, which are largely nouns and reflect little of the grammatical systems of Arabic or Persian ...*” (hlm. xxiii-xxiv). Dalam perkataan lain, pernyataan ini menjelaskan bahawa kebanyakan kata pinjaman Arab yang diserap ke dalam bahasa Melayu ialah kata nama, dan hanya sedikit memperlihatkan pengaruh sistem gramatikal bahasa Arab atau Parsi.

Jadual 2

Kelas Kata Pinjaman

Kata nama	Kata adjektif	Kata kerja	Kata adverba
akhlak	alim	hadir	khas
akidah	hadam	maklum	mungkin
akhirat	hakiki	sujud	
darjat	istiqamah	mufaraqah	
ustaz	yakin	wafat	

Contoh dalam Jadual 2 memperlihatkan kata pinjaman Arab diserap ke dalam bahasa Melayu dalam semua kelas utama. Selain itu, ditemui sejumlah perkataan yang tiada kelas kata, misalnya *insya-Allah*, *nauzubillah* dan *minalaidinwalfaizin*. Data statistik ini menyokong pandangan pengkaji lepas bahawa kata nama adalah terbanyak dipinjam dalam sesuatu bahasa. Perkataan yang dipinjam terdiri daripada kata nama abstrak (akhlak, akidah, darjat) dan kata nama konkrit (ustaz).

Proses peminjaman kata Arab turut melibatkan perubahan kelas kata, seperti contoh ayat berikut yang dipetik daripada KDP (2021, p. 2164):

- (1a) Salina *sujud* lebih lama kerana dia sedang memanjatkan doa. (kata kerja)
(1b) Malaikat itu *wujud*, tetapi mustahil dikesan dengan pancaindera. (kata kerja)

Berdasarkan contoh 1a dan 1b, dalam 363ahasa Melayu, kata “sujud” dan “wujud” berfungsi sebagai kata kerja tak transitif. Bagaimanapun, dalam 363ahasa Arab, kedua-dua kata ini berasal daripada kata nama. Fenomena seperti ini banyak berlaku dalam kes kata pinjaman Arab-Melayu kerana 363ahasa Melayu hanya meminjam perkataan Arab dan disesuaikan mengikut 363ahasa nahu 363ahasa Melayu. Contoh kata pinjaman Arab lain yang berubah kelas kata apabila dipinjam dalam 363ahasa Melayu ialah:

- (2) Kerajaan mengambil pelbagai *ikhtiar* bagi membantu belia memajukan perniagaan mereka. (kata nama)
(3) Mereka melakukan *jihad* yg berterusan dan inilah yg sedang berlaku di Gaza dan beberapa kawasan di Palestin. (kata nama)
(4) Aku mengucapkan *salam* saat bertemu dengannya. (kata nama)

Dalam bahasa Arab, kata “ikhtiar” (*ikhtara*), “jihad” (*jahada*) dan “salam” (*salima*) berasal daripada kata perbuatan atau kata kerja. Bagaimanapun, dalam bahasa Melayu, semua perkataan ini berubah menjadi kata nama, iaitu objek kepada kata kerja transitif, misalnya mengambil (pelbagai *ikhtiar*), melakukan (*jihad*) dan mengucapkan (*salam*).

Kelas kata tertutup pula terdiri daripada awalan, kata ganti nama, kata bantu dan kata bilangan, kata sendi nama dan kata hubung. Gejala peminjaman pelbagai kata fungsi (*content words*) dalam bahasa Melayu, misalnya penambah atau morfem

terikat daripada bahasa asing sebenarnya sudah digunakan secara meluas, contohnya melibatkan kata *isme* dan *pra* (bahasa Latin) dan *pro-*, *anti-* dan *sub-* (bahasa Inggeris).

Akhirnya, pelbagai morfem terikat menjadi satuan tersendiri, dan diimbuhkan kepada kata dasar untuk membentuk perkataan baru seperti “subgolongan” dan “proMelayu” (Omar, 1985, hlm. 301). Bagaimanapun, kata hubung (*and*, *but*) atau kata bilangan (*one*, *two*) tidak dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu. Hal ini berbeza dengan kes bahasa Arab kerana awalan (*ahlil-*, *al-*), kata hubung (*ammabakdahu*, *waima*, *walhal*), kata pangkal ayat (*akhirulkalam*, *alakulihal*, *alhasil*, *hatta*), kata bilangan (*nisfu*), kata ganti nama (*ana*, *anta*) dan kata bantu (*baada*, *imkan*) turut dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu.

Yang menariknya, data kajian menunjukkan wujudnya percampuran kelas kata. Percampuran tersebut melibatkan sekurang-kurangnya dua atau tiga kelas kata yang berbeza, misalnya:

- (5a) Seramai tujuh orang calon *makbul* dalam keputusan peperiksaan Sijil Tinggi Agama Malaysia. (kata kerja)
- (5b) Makkah ialah tempat yang sangat *makbul* untuk membuat permintaan. (kata adjektif)

Kata “makbul” ialah kata nama dalam bahasa Arab. Namun demikian, contoh dalam 5a dan 5b memperlihatkan kata “makbul” berfungsi sebagai kata kerja dan kata adjektif dalam bahasa Melayu. Kata “makbul” dalam contoh 5a bermaksud “lulus” ujian Sijil Tinggi Agama Malaysia, manakala dalam contoh 5b, kata “makbul” merujuk kepada makna “sesuai”. Kata “takwa” dalam bahasa Arab ialah kata nama. Contoh 6a dan 6b menunjukkan kata “takwa” boleh berfungsi sebagai kata nama atau kata adjektif dalam sistem nahu bahasa Melayu.

- (6a) Iman dan *takwa* boleh menjadi faktor utama bagi pembangunan masyarakat cemerlang. (kata nama)
- (6b) Sayidina Abu Bakar ialah sahabat Rasulullah SAW yang sangat *takwa* kepada Allah SWT. (kata adjektif)

Huraian setakat ini menunjukkan bahawa sesuatu kata yang dipinjam daripada bahasa Arab mempunyai lebih daripada satu kelas kata dalam bahasa Melayu, iaitu bergantung kepada konteks penggunaannya. Data kajian ini turut memaparkan penggunaan kata pinjaman Arab, dengan tiga kelas kata yang berbeza dalam bahasa Melayu, iaitu Contoh 7a, 7b dan 7c.

- (7a) Saya perturunkan beberapa contoh *tertib* pergaulan yang perlu diberikan perhatian. (kata nama)
- (7b) Adapun akan duli khalifah terlalu *tertib* berdatang sembah. (kata adjektif)
- (7c) Dia berpakaian *tertib*, selaras dengan tuntutan agama. (kata adverba)

Kata pinjaman “tertib” berasal daripada kelas kata nama dalam bahasa Arab, manakala dalam bahasa Melayu, kata “tertib” telah dikategorikan kepada tiga kelas

kata yang berbeza. Misalnya, contoh 7a menggunakan kata “tertib” sebagai kata nama, sementara dalam contoh 7b, kata “tertib” berfungsi sebagai kata adjektif (kata “terlalu” sebagai kata penguat). Dalam contoh 7c pula, kata “tertib” berfungsi sebagai adverba, iaitu keterangan kepada cara berpakaian.

Isu Pengkategorian Kata Pinjaman Arab

Kajian ini menemui kata pinjaman Arab dalam KDP, yang dikategorikan kelas katanya secara tidak tepat dalam bahasa Melayu, misalnya 8a-8b.

- (8a) “Boleh jadi mereka sudah mendapat bekalan dari sumber yang paling hampir dengan mereka,” *hujah* Saad. (kata nama)
 (8b) Tiada lagi *hujah* bagi manusia untuk meninggalkan ketaatan kepada Allah selepas diutuskan rasul-rasul kepada mereka. (kata nama)

Dalam bahasa Arab, kata “hujah” dikategorikan sebagai kata nama. Contoh 8b menunjukkan kata “hujah” turut berfungsi sebagai kata nama dalam bahasa Melayu. Bagaimanapun, berdasarkan konteks ayat, kata “hujah” dalam contoh 8a bukan kata nama, tetapi ialah kata kerja. Kata “hujah” dalam contoh ini digunakan dalam klausa pelapor, iaitu:

“Boleh jadi mereka sudah mendapat bekalan dari sumber yang paling hampir dengan mereka, (UJARAN)” *hujah* Saad (KLAUSA PELAPOR)

Tujuan klausa pelapor adalah untuk melaporkan siapa yang berkata atau berhujah, iaitu dalam konteks ini, Saad. Kata “hujah” dalam konteks ini bermaksud berdebat. Kata “hujah” boleh juga diganti dengan kata kerja lain yang merujuk kepada proses verbal, misalnya “kata”, “jelas” dan “tegas”. Hal ini berbeza dengan contoh 8b yang menggunakan kata “hujah” sebagai kata nama. Sehubungan dengan itu, kata pinjaman “hujah” seharusnya tergolong dalam dua kelas kata dalam bahasa Melayu, iaitu kata kerja dan kata nama. Perhatikan pula contoh 9a-9b.

- (9a) Kerajaan Kedah sudah membuat keputusan *mukhtamad* untuk tidak membenarkan konsert itu diadakan. (kata kerja tak transitif)
 (9b) Apakah kata kamu pada Kitab Zawajir karangan Ibnu Hajar, adakah *mukhtamad* pada kamu atau daif. (kata adjektif)

Kata “mukhtamad” dalam bahasa Arab tergolong sebagai kata nama. Namun begitu, KDP telah mengkategorikan kata “mukhtamad”, seperti dalam 9a sebagai kata kerja tak transitif. Jika diperhatikan contoh ayat tersebut, kata kerjanya yang sebenar ialah “membuat”, bukan “mukhtamad”, iaitu:

Kerajaan Kedah	sudah	membuat	keputusan	mukhtamad
(subjek)	(kata bantu)	(kata kerja transitif)	(objek)	(keterangan)

Frasa nama “Kerajaan Kedah” berfungsi sebagai subjek ayat. Kata “sudah” yang hadir selepasnya berfungsi sebagai kata bantu kepada kata kerja “membuat”. Seterusnya, kata “membuat” berfungsi sebagai kata kerja transitif, dan “keputusan” sebagai objek. Kata “muktamad” pula berfungsi sebagai unsur keterangan, manakala kelas kata “muktamad” dalam contoh 9b, sebagai kata adjektif adalah sesuai kerana maksudnya sinonim dengan “yakini”. Perhatikan pula penggunaan kata “rela” dalam contoh 10a-10d.

- (10a) Hasnah *rela* berkorban apa saja demi kebahagiaan adik-adiknya. (kata adjektif)
- (10b) Saya tidak *rela* melihat mereka dipisah-pisahkan sesama adik-beradik mereka. (kata adjektif)
- (10c) Puisi ini saksi hamba pernah lalu di sini meminta *rela* guru menimba ilmu. (kata nama)
- (10d) Walaupun hatinya sedih, dia *rela* akan pemergian anaknya itu. (kata kerja tak transitif)

Dalam KDP, perkataan “rela” menghasilkan tiga kelas kata yang berbeza dalam nahu bahasa Melayu, iaitu kata adjektif, kata nama dan kata kerja. Kata “rela” dalam contoh 10c dapat diterima sebagai kata nama kerana kata ini berfungsi sebagai objek kepada kata kerja “meminta”. Bagaimanapun, fungsi kata “rela” dalam 10a, 10b dan 10d kelihatan sama, iaitu sebagai kata adjektif, misalnya:

Hasnah	<i>rela</i>	berkorban apa saja demi kebahagiaan adik-adiknya
Saya	tidak <i>rela</i>	melihat dipisah-pisahkan sesama adik-beradik mereka
Dia	<i>rela</i>	akan pemergian anaknya itu
(subjek)	(kata adjektif)	(keterangan)

Dapat diperhatikan, “Hasnah”, “saya” dan “dia” berfungsi sebagai subjek. Kata “rela/tidak rela” pula berfungsi sebagai kata adjektif kerana dari aspek makna, “rela” bermaksud dengan senang hati atau tanpa rasa terpaksa. Perbezaan “rela” dengan “tidak rela” ialah rasa senang hati dan tidak senang hati, manakala unsur yang hadir selepas kata “rela” berfungsi sebagai keterangan ayat. Oleh itu, penggunaan kata “rela” seperti dalam contoh 10a, 10b dan 10d seharusnya dikategorikan sebagai kata adjektif.

Selain itu, kajian ini mendapati bahawa kata pinjaman Arab “muhasabah” telah dikategorikan sebagai kata nama. KDP (2021) telah mengemukakan takrif “muhasabah” sebagai “proses atau perbuatan berfikir secara teliti dan mendalam bagi memperbetul atau memperbaiki diri atau keadaan; introspeksi” (hlm. 1487). Takrif tersebut jelas menyatakan bahawa kata “muhasabah” ialah proses atau perbuatan berfikir. Hal ini bermaksud “muhasabah” bukan merupakan kata nama, tetapi kata kerja yang berlaku pada tahap kognisi atau dalaman. Dalam nahu fungsional, proses atau perbuatan berfikir dinamakan sebagai kata kerja kognisi, misalnya berfikir (*think*), iaitu termasuk dalam kategori proses mental. Dengan ini,

kata “muhasabah” seharusnya dikategorikan sebagai kata kerja, iaitu bersesuaian dengan takrif yang diberikan oleh KDP.

Faktor Peminjaman Bahasa Arab

Faktor peminjaman bahasa boleh dibahagikan kepada dua bahagian, iaitu peminjaman budaya (*cultural borrowing*) dan peminjaman teras (*core borrowing*). Menurut Myers-Scotton (2006), pinjaman budaya ialah perkataan yang mengisi kekurangan dalam bahasa penerima (*recipient language*) kerana perkataan tersebut digunakan untuk objek atau konsep baru dalam budaya sesuatu bahasa. Sebagai contoh, perkataan “komputer” atau sebarang perkataan yang berkaitan dengan komputer dianggap sebagai pinjaman budaya kerana kebanyakan perkataan yang dicipta adalah baru, termasuk dalam bahasa Inggeris kerana komputer ialah objek baru untuk penutur natif Inggeris. Contoh lain ialah perkataan yang berkaitan dengan pakaian dan makanan, misalnya bahasa Jerman meminjam perkataan *blue jeans* daripada bahasa Inggeris, dan perkataan *pizza* atau *espresso* (Haspelmath, 2003) dipinjam daripada bahasa Itali, atau perkataan *al-Qaeda* dan *intifada*, yang berkaitan dengan peperangan telah dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Inggeris (Darwish, 2015). Dalam perkataan lain, sesuatu bahasa akan meminjam perkataan baru, malah mencipta perkataan baru daripada leksikal yang sedia ada untuk objek baru.

Pinjaman teras pula melibatkan peminjaman perkataan baru yang bertindan, iaitu sedia wujud dalam sesuatu bahasa, misalnya *OK* dalam bahasa Jerman mempunyai maksud yang sama dengan *gut* atau *einverstanden*. Persoalannya, jika perkataan untuk sesuatu objek atau konsep yang sudah sedia ada dalam sesuatu bahasa, mengapa masih ada peminjaman? Myers-Scotton (2006) menjelaskan bahawa salah satu sebab peminjaman berlaku ialah tekanan budaya, iaitu apabila dua bahasa digunakan dalam komuniti yang sama, maka salah satu bahasa akan meningkat statusnya, sementara bahasa yang lagi satu akan hilang daya ketahanannya (*vitality*). Secara sederhana, hal ini bermaksud perkataan yang dipinjam daripada bahasa penyumbang akan menggantikan bahasa penerima kerana dominannya status bahasa tersebut. Misalnya, di Zimbabwe, bahasa Inggeris dan bahasa Shona berfungsi sebagai bahasa rasmi, tetapi penutur natif kadangkala lebih gemar menggunakan perkataan *problem* berbanding *dambudziko*. Hal ini menunjukkan perkataan *problem* digunakan sebagai variasi yang saling menggantikan perkataan *dambudziko* dalam bahasa Shona kerana status bahasa Inggeris yang lebih tinggi. Kes yang hampir sama turut berlaku dalam kalangan penutur di Malaysia, sebagaimana dilaporkan oleh kajian Jaafar dan Mat Awal (2020). Dapat diperhatikan bahawa penutur menggunakan perkataan seperti *sometimes* (kadangkala), *environment* (persekitaran), *jammed* (sesak), *free* (bebas) dan *always* (selalu) dalam contoh 11.

- (11) Sebab saya sudah menetap di Kuala Lumpur lebih 10 tahun so saya selesa dengan keadaan Kuala Lumpur tetapi selalunya bukan tak selesa *sometimes* kita nak *environment* yang berbeza macam ... kereta yang kurang, takde *jammed* atau lebih *freelah* kalau nak *always* nak ... berpindah ke atau nak jalan-jalan *and then* kalau nak bekerja ...

Semua perkataan tersebut dipinjam daripada bahasa Inggeris, dan mempunyai padanannya dalam bahasa Melayu. Hal seperti ini lazim berlaku dalam pertuturan bilingual sebagaimana pernyataan Haspelmath (2003), *“Core borrowings usually begin life in the recipient language when bilinguals introduce them as singly occurring codeswitching forms in the mixed constituents of their codeswitching”* (p. 4). Petikan ini menjelaskan bahawa pinjaman teras lazimnya masuk ke dalam bahasa penerima apabila penutur dwibahasa menggunakan perkataan tersebut sebagai kata tunggal yang bercampur dengan konstituen lain dalam peralihan kod mereka.

Dalam kes bahasa Arab, kajian ini mendapati bahawa kata pinjaman Arab yang diserap ke dalam bahasa Melayu boleh terdiri daripada pinjaman budaya dan pinjaman teras. Namun begitu, kebanyakan perkataan Arab yang dipinjam ialah jenis pinjaman budaya. Kata pinjaman budaya ini terdiri daripada objek atau konsep baru yang tidak wujud dalam budaya Melayu. Contoh pinjaman itu dapat diperhatikan dalam Jadual 3.

Jadual 3

Objek (Benda)

Perkataan	Maksud
<i>rehal</i>	papan bersilang, bangku kecil dsb yang boleh dilipat, tempat meletakkan al-Quran ketika membacanya
<i>alkohol</i>	cecair tanpa warna dan boleh terbakar yang dihasilkan daripada penapaian karbohidrat atau daripada petroleum. Cecair ini digunakan dalam minuman, sebagai pelarut dalam minyak wangi dsb; etanol; etil alkohol
<i>syarab</i>	sejenis minuman keras
<i>sumbuk</i>	sejenis perahu
<i>akhbar</i>	surat khabar
<i>sijil</i>	surat, dokumen atau perakuan rasmi yang dikeluarkan oleh sekolah, pihak berkuasa dsb yg memperakui sesuatu perkara.
<i>kertas</i>	bahan berupa helaian nipis yang dibuat daripada pulpa kayu dsb, yang padanya boleh ditulis, dicetak atau dilukis, dan juga digunakan untuk membungkus, membuat kotak dsb

Berdasarkan Jadual 3, perkataan “rehal” merujuk kepada papan bersilang yang digunakan untuk meletakkan al-Quran. “Alkohol” pula ialah cecair yang digunakan dalam minuman atau pelarut minyak wangi. Hal ini bermaksud alkohol tidak sama dengan “arak”, yang hanya merujuk kepada minuman beralkohol. Begitu juga dengan perkataan “syarab” dan “sumbuk”, yang merujuk kepada sejenis minuman keras dan sejenis perahu. Perkataan ini agak baru dalam masyarakat Melayu. Seterusnya, kata “akhbar”, “sijil” dan “kertas” merujuk surat bertulis atau bercetak.

Sebagaimana yang telah dijelaskan sebelum ini, kebanyakan perkataan Arab yang dipinjam ke dalam bahasa Melayu berkaitan dengan agama Islam. Contohnya, perkataan “iftar” (berbuka puasa), “sahur”, “tarawih” dan “umrah” secara langsung

berkaitan dengan aktiviti ibadah. Perkataan “akidah” dan “syirik” pula berhubungan dengan kepercayaan kepada Allah. Seterusnya, kata “ratib” dan “takbir” ialah zikir atau kalimah yang dilafazkan untuk mengagungkan Allah. Semua perkataan ini ialah konsep baru yang masuk ke dalam bahasa Melayu bersama-sama Islam.

Selain meminjam perkataan yang berkaitan dengan objek dan konsep tertentu, yang paling banyak ditemui ialah kata pinjaman Arab yang merujuk kepada aktiviti keagamaan. Contoh dalam Jadual 4 memperlihatkan kata pinjaman Arab digunakan dalam pelbagai konteks atau domain. Misalnya, kata “riba” dan “saham” lazim digunakan dalam bidang ekonomi. Kata “syarat” digunakan dalam konteks perundangan, kata “tamadun” merujuk kepada tema budaya dan sejarah, manakala kata “algebra” berkaitan dengan subjek matematik atau pendidikan. Kata “riadah” pula termasuk dalam domain sukan atau permainan.

Jadual 4

Konsep (Aktiviti Bukan Keagamaan)

Perkataan	Maksud
<i>riba</i>	bayaran tambahan atau lebihan dlm bentuk wang, barang dsb tanpa mengikut hukum syarak dlm urusan peminjaman, jual beli dsb yang dikenakan atau diambil oleh pemiutang, dan hukumnya haram dalam Islam
<i>saham</i>	bahagian modal berserta jumlah keuntungan yg terkumpul yang dimiliki oleh seseorang dalam syarikat, dan pemegangnya berhak mendapat dividen daripada keuntungan syarikat; syer
<i>syarat</i>	undang-undang, rukun, peraturan dsb yang mesti dipatuhi
<i>riadah</i>	segala kegiatan yang dilakukan pada waktu lapang yang menyeronokkan, menyihatkan badan dan menenangkan fikiran, spt bersenam, bermain dan berkelah; rekreasi
<i>tamadun</i>	keadaan atau tingkat kehidupan yang maju dari segi fizikal, mental dan rohani; peradaban
<i>algebra</i>	cabang matematik yang menggunakan huruf dan lambang untuk mewakili angka atau kuantiti dalam formula dan persamaan.

Berikut dibincangkan pula contoh peminjaman bahasa Arab yang berkaitan dengan pinjaman teras. Berdasarkan penelitian terhadap KDP, terdapat agak banyak perkataan pinjaman Arab yang bertindan (*duplicate*) dengan perkataan yang sedia ada dalam bahasa Melayu, seperti ditunjukkan dalam Jadual 5.

Jadual 5

Pinjaman Teras

Kata pinjaman Arab	Kata sedia ada dalam BM
<i>rih</i>	<i>angin</i>
<i>sajak</i>	<i>puisi</i>
<i>saif</i>	<i>pedang</i>
<i>wafat</i>	<i>mati</i>

<i>bakhil</i>	<i>kedekut</i>
<i>warkah</i>	<i>surat</i>
<i>tahayul</i>	<i>karut</i>
<i>takrif</i>	<i>definisi</i>
<i>solat</i>	<i>sembahyang</i>
<i>sultan</i>	<i>raja</i>
<i>askar</i>	<i>tentera</i>
<i>khinzir</i>	<i>babi</i>

Perkataan “sajak”, “wafat”, “bakhil”, “warkah”, “tahayul”, “takrif”, “solat”, “sultan”, “askar” dan “khinzir” ialah sinonim dengan perkataan “puisi”, “mati”, “kedekut”, “surat”, “karut”, “definisi”, “sembahyang”, “raja”, “tentera” dan “babi”, malah sering digunakan dalam wacana bahasa Melayu. Haspelmath (2009) mengemukakan pertanyaan tentang isu pinjaman teras; “*Why should speakers use a word from another language if they have a perfectly good word for the same concept in their own language?*” Soalan ini relevan kerana mengapakah perlu meminjam daripada bahasa lain, jika dalam bahasa penerima sudah ada perkataan yang digunakan untuk konsep yang hampir sama? Jawapan yang mungkin sesuai untuk persoalan ini ialah pinjaman teras berlaku kerana faktor prestijnya bahasa penyumbang (*donor language*). Misalnya, perkataan “definisi” dilihat mempunyai lebih ciri saintifik dan prestij berbanding “takrif”. Sebab lain ialah nilai estetik yang ada pada sesuatu perkataan, misalnya “puisi” berbanding “sajak”.

Selain itu, kata pinjaman Arab mempunyai konotasi yang lebih baik berbanding perkataan yang sedia ada dalam bahasa Melayu, misalnya perkataan “wafat”, “warkah” dan “khinzir” lebih sopan digunakan berbanding “mati”, “surat” dan “babi”. Faktor lain peminjaman leksikal ialah penjelasan (*clarification*), kesan (*impact*) dan ketepatan (*precision*) (Soto-Corominas et al., 2018). Sebagai contoh, kata pinjaman Arab “solat” didapati lebih jelas dan tepat berbanding “sembahyang”. Dari segi definisi, perkataan “solat” merujuk kepada ibadat yang dimulai dengan niat semasa *takbiratulihram*, diikuti dengan perbuatan seperti rukuk, sujud dan membaca bacaan tertentu, dan disudahi dengan salam. Sebaliknya, perkataan “sembahyang”, yang dipinjam daripada bahasa Sanskrit, secara etimologinya merupakan gabungan perkataan “sembah + yang”. Kata “yang” merujuk kepada patung. Maka, perkataan “sembahyang” sebenarnya bermaksud menyembah “yang”. Hal ini bermaksud kata “solat” lebih jelas dan tepat dengan konsep ibadah dalam Islam.

Bagaimanapun, ada juga kata pinjaman Arab yang jarang digunakan, sama ada dalam pertuturan atau penulisan bahasa Melayu, misalnya perkataan “rih” dan “saif”. Menurut KDP, kata yang sedia ada dalam bahasa Melayu untuk kata “rih” ialah “angin”, sementara “saif” merujuk kepada “pedang”. Sebenarnya, hal ini pernah dibincangkan oleh kajian Zaidan et al. (2015), yang mendapati bahawa hampir 44% kata pinjaman Arab yang terdapat dalam Kamus Dewan jarang atau langsung tidak digunakan.

Kesimpulan

Makalah ini telah memperlihatkan bahawa bahasa Melayu bersifat fleksibel, iaitu terbuka meminjam perkataan daripada bahasa lain. Perkataan Arab yang dipinjam terdiri daripada pelbagai kelas kata, misalnya kata pangkal ayat, kata ganti nama, kata bilangan dan kata bantu. Hal ini menunjukkan kata pinjaman Arab lebih mudah diterima pakai dalam bahasa Melayu berbanding bahasa lain, misalnya bahasa Inggeris. Dari aspek gramatikal pula, bahasa Melayu tidak dipengaruhi oleh sistem nahu bahasa Arab, dan begitu juga sebaliknya. Maksudnya, bahasa Melayu hanya meminjam perkataan bahasa Arab, dan disesuaikan dengan sistem nahu bahasa Melayu. Misalnya, jika perkataan Arab yang dipinjam adalah dari jenis kata nama, perkataan tersebut boleh sama ada dikekalkan atau berubah kelas katanya. Selain itu, sesuatu kata pinjaman Arab itu tidak terikat dengan kelas kata tertentu, iaitu boleh dikategorikan dalam beberapa kelas kata yang berbeza dalam bahasa Melayu, misalnya “takwa” dan “tertib”. Perbincangan dalam makalah ini telah juga membuktikan bahawa terdapat sejumlah perkataan pinjaman Arab yang telah dikategorikan secara tidak tepat, misalnya “hujah” dan “muktamad”. Kajian ini mencadangkan supaya pengkategorian kelas kata harus berdasarkan konteks penggunaannya dalam ayat. Keterbukaan bahasa Melayu meminjam perkataan daripada bahasa lain turut memperlihatkan berlakunya peminjaman teras, iaitu kata pinjaman Arab bertindan dengan perkataan yang sedia ada dalam bahasa Melayu. Makalah ini telah menjelaskan faktor yang menyebabkan peminjaman teras berlaku, misalnya faktor prestij, estetik, sopan dan ketepatan maksud dalam konteks tertentu.

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THE COGNITIVE COMPONENTS OF ANXIETY DURING SPEAKING TESTS AMONG OMANI LEARNERS

Ali Al GHAITHI*¹

Behnam BEHFOROUZ²

¹Sohar University, Oman

²University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Oman

AGhaithi@su.edu.om

Behnam.Behforouz@utas.edu.om

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

To find out the components and levels of cognitive anxiety among Omani learners, 110 participants were selected in three proficiency levels: elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate. To collect the data, a questionnaire adapted from Thomas et al. (2017) Cognitive Test Anxiety Scale (CTAS-2) was used and some statistical analysis was run to measure other variables including gender and English proficiency levels on the amount of cognitive anxiety that students experience during speaking examinations. The results of the study revealed that lack of confidence and sleep, fear of failure, and immediate feedback were the primary sources of anxiety at either average or high levels during the speaking examination sessions. In addition, the study could not find any effect of gender on anxiety. The elementary English proficiency level students suffer more during the speaking examination. The results suggest that teachers provide a comfortable examination environment by fostering some jokes and laughter. Punctuality of examiners, and giving one or two minutes extra to exceptional cases assist in stress reduction during speaking examinations. In addition, the findings suggest that institutions and curriculum developers prepare semi-authentic speaking examination situations to reduce the cognitive elements of test anxiety by designing game-based speaking tasks.

Keywords: cognitive components of anxiety; speaking test; academic performance; Omani EFL context

Introduction

Several factors influence foreign language anxiety among second language learners, which are different and generally used within the classroom contexts (Andujar et al., 2020). Horwitz et al. (1986) developed a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to help examine these influencing factors within classrooms by considering factors such as test anxiety and apprehension of test failure. Many studies, such as the recent one by Behforouz et al. (2022), have employed the scale in examining the concept of language anxiety in foreign language classrooms.

Çağatay (2015) employed the FLCAS to investigate the level of anxiety among foreign language students to determine the reason behind their anxiety levels. The result showed that the female students exhibited moderate anxiety levels. The findings also revealed that moderate anxiety was not found among learners at an advanced level, which indicates a significant relationship between proficiency levels and degree of anxiety in speaking or other aspects of language use. In another study, Mohtasham and Farnia (2017) employed the same FLCAS triangulated with an interview to investigate Iranian students' level of anxiety in a foreign language speaking course. Female students were found to have higher anxiety levels in speaking compared to male students who were also asked to carry out the same tasks. The same researchers in a different reported that the Chinese students used around 32 strategies while speaking to alleviate their foreign language speaking anxiety levels. These strategies are encouraged to be heeded by foreign language teachers to reduce their learners' anxiety levels while speaking (Mohtasham & Farnia, 2017).

These reviewed studies using Horwitz's (1986) FLCAS are done within the confines of classroom settings. Therefore, there is a gap in the literature concerning studies that address foreign language anxiety in English oral examinations. Therefore, it could not cover aspects of test purpose, importance, and other aspects of extra-linguistic factors responsible for anxiety in speaking tests. In this respect, a statistical study was carried out by Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) to investigate the relationship between students' achievements and their foreign language anxiety. The researchers categorised anxiety into low, medium, and high, where more anxious subjects were conditioned for interviews to triangulate the rationalisation regarding their anxiety levels. Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) found a strong relationship between poor performance and high anxiety levels in the foreign language learning process. Therefore, based on the previous studies conducted in this area, it can be concluded that there is a strong relationship between anxiety levels and performance levels, as low performance usually is triggered by high anxiety concerning the degree of quantity or quality of the candidates' output (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2012).

The study examined the components and levels of cognitive anxiety among Omani learners. The research questions are:

- 1) What cognitive components of anxiety hinder better performance of Omani English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students during the speaking test session?
- 2) Does gender affect Omani students' cognitive anxiety levels in speaking tests?

- 3) Does English language proficiency affect the level of anxiety that Omani EFL learners experience during the speaking test?

Literature Review

Anxiety

Pintrich and Schunk (2002) defined anxiety as a physiological or behavioural phenomenon that results from a failure in an assessment or evaluation, after an examination. Zheng and Cheng (2018) categorised test anxiety into state anxiety, trait anxiety, and situational anxiety, depending on the test taker's stability and the anxiety's emergence. Horwitz (2001) posits that L2 acquisition anxiety differs from another context-driven type of anxiety. Studies (Day & Gu, 2013; Horwitz, 2001; Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013; Siyli & Kafes, 2015) have been carried out to understand the causes of speaking anxiety, revealing many factors such as physiological, psychological, linguistic, and cultural factors, which have spurred speaking anxiety levels among learners who may have their performance affected due to restrictive or performance reasons (Rajitha & Alamelu, 2020). Learners can undoubtedly be affected in their course of L1 and L2 learning situations by comprehension apprehension (CA) as it has a strong relationship with language use (Horwitz, 2001). Both internal factors which are strongly students' related and external factors are found to be responsible for high language anxiety among learners. These external factors include the nonchalant attitude of the learners, lack of scaffolding on the teachers' part, and the problem of attention (Day & Gu, 2013; Siyli & Kafes, 2015).

Kayaoglu and Saglamel (2013) investigated the aspect of language anxiety among some groups of participants using the interview. The interview results revealed that the learners' deficiencies in grammar, pronunciation and lexis are behind their high levels of language anxiety. Zia and Sulan (2015) found that students' anxiety levels rise due to lack of interest in learning, lack of cooperation, poor instruction content, mismanagement of time, and poor teaching skills, among others.

According to McCroskey (2015), there is a relationship between low self-esteem in one's communication skills and hesitations while communicating due to the fear of being evaluated by others. Shyness is also an essential factor in language-speaking anxiety. For example, it was postulated by Crozier and Hostettler (2003) that low performance is more evident among shy children due to how strongly they react to a test administration. According to Liu and Jackson (2008), classroom behavioural issues of self-assessment, fear of being evaluated by peer groups, and pessimism of negativity assessment are all found to cause speaking anxiety among Chinese participants. Despite these factors, scholars have been unanimous in their findings that learners with self-confidence and high motivation have higher performance than learners with low self-confidence and low motivation (Krashen, 1981; Viswat & Jackson, 1993).

It seems essential to measure external or extra-linguistic factors such as the examination hall, the examiner, and the closeness of the examiner and the test takers during examinations. These factors and others such as differences in cultural

backgrounds, pressure from parents on children's performance, and washback effects have real impacts on the learners' performance (Bodas & Ollendick, 2005; Chalhoub-Deville, 2003; Cheng et al., 2014).

The extent of language anxiety in certain language skills can be viewed from different perspectives. These differences could be based on the classroom levels of the test takers. The highest degree of anxiety has been recorded in line with speaking skill-related tasks among the learners (Çağatay, 2015; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013; Tanveer, 2007). Zheng and Cheng (2018) found that high anxiety levels are most likely to occur when learners deal directly with native speakers in speaking interactions of a foreign language. Also, the anxiety levels of the learners depend on their language proficiency.

Cognitive Test Anxiety

Cognitive test anxiety is defined as an individual's cognitive reactions to evaluation (Cassady & Johnson, 2002). Cassady and Johnson (2002) identified parts of cognitive test anxiety before, after, and during academic performance. Usually, these reactions are experienced by students when their confidence levels are down during an evaluation when their performances are compared against that of others, and when they are worried much on what they will go through if they fail (Cassady & Johnson 2002; Cheng et al., 2014; In'nami, 2006).

High-stake tests may be underrepresented and have their constructs not relevant due to the reactions against the test takers (Andujar et al., 2020). This effect on test performance has been studied by many researchers in the field of language learning (Chastain, 1975; Cheng et al., 2014; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre et al., 1997; Zheng & Cheng, 2018). On the other levels of education outside of the language learning domain, studies (Chastain, 1975; Cheng et al., 2014; Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre et al., 1997; Zheng & Cheng, 2018) have similarly found that language test performance is affected by high anxiety levels.

Cheng et al. (2014), in their cross-cultural study using participants across different cultures in the context of three varied high-stake speaking tests, highlighted several factors of cognitive test anxiety that affected speaking test performance. Some factors, such as test importance and purpose, have been found to affect cognitive test anxiety. Zheng and Cheng's (2018) study on Chinese students studying in a public university showed that cognitive anxiety is a negative impediment to test achievement. The findings further revealed that students in a foreign language speaking test were more likely to have higher anxiety levels. Parents' expectations, test importance, or test purpose, among others, are factors that may influence cognitive test anxiety (Bodas & Ollendick, 2005; Cheng et al., 2014) as cognitive test anxiety revolves around specific parameters apart from contextual factors that may play a significant role in test takers' anxiety (Andujar et al., 2020).

Gender Differences in English-Speaking Test Anxiety

The issues of gender and language anxiety have recently become the focal

point of many studies because gender difference affects anxiety levels among students (Batiha et al., 2016; Gulmez, 2012; Hwa et al., 2017; Kitano, 2001; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013).

No gender differences were found in the anxiety levels of EFL learners at a Polish university (Marzec-Stawiarska, 2014) and among learners in an EFL Jordanian context (Batiha et al., 2016). Other studies have shown differences between the two genders in anxiety levels. For example, Hwa and Peck (2017) found that males and females have moderate level of speaking anxiety, with the anxiety levels in female learners are moderately higher than that of their male counterparts. In another study by Bozavli and Gulmez (2012), Turkish female students exhibited higher anxiety levels in their speaking lessons than males. In two other studies (Hannon, 2012; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014), female participants showed higher levels of anxiety in the speaking sessions compared to their male peers.

English Proficiency and Speaking Test Anxiety

Based on the relationship between anxiety levels and English proficiency, many studies (Abrar et al., 2016; Tianjin, 2010; Zhang & Liu, 2013) have found that the more proficient subjects or learners have superficial anxiety levels when learning and speaking English compared to the less proficient participants. This level of difference tends to vary (Çağatay, 2015; Liu, 2006; Tercan & Dikilitas, 2015; Tianjian, 2010; Zhao & Whitchurch, 2011). In a study by Tianjin (2010), the proficiency and speaking anxiety levels of Chinese participants were investigated based on three levels of proficiency. The results revealed that learners with high proficiency levels experience low anxiety while speaking.

Contrary to the findings of Tianjian (2010), Debreli and Demirkan (2015) found that the pre-intermediate learners tend to have more anxiety compared to the elementary learners, who are even more proficient. This might be because of the tasks given to the learners which tend to be more difficult (tasking and demanding) as their proficiency levels increase. Also, at that level, learners may be worried about the expectations of their teachers regarding their performances and hence, their high anxiety levels (Debreli & Demirkan, 2015).

Zhang and Liu (2013) investigated the effect of Chinese university students' oral test anxiety and speaking strategies on the learners' oral performance. The results indicated that more proficient students exhibited lower anxiety levels in their oral performances while taking the oral test. Anxiety and proficiency levels have also been investigated by Abrar et al. (2016), who found that more proficient students have less anxiety in speaking sessions. Liu (2007) examined the anxiety levels during English oral tests among Chinese undergraduate students by developing an oral English Test Anxiety Scale comprising 34 items and figured out three different dimensions concerning oral English tests, which are: the test preparations, test feeling, and test concerns. The findings suggest that most students feel anxious when taking oral tests, while the students with high proficiency levels experience less anxiety.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study included 110 Omani EFL learners from the General Foundation Programme (GFP) at one of the higher education institutions in Oman. This institution provides English language learning classes for three proficiency levels (elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate). The students are placed in these levels based on the university's placement test or passing score in the final examination of the previous level or semester. Speaking examination is one of the components of the final examination which is applicable to all levels. Thus, to gain a better and more comprehensive view of speaking examination concerns, and problems, and to find solutions for these issues, students of different proficiency levels were studied. The number of participants at the elementary level was divided into 18 females and 17 males; for pre-intermediate, 19 females and 18 males; and at the intermediate level, 19 females and 19 males.

The students were in their third semester of 2022-2023 academic session at the university. The first language of all the participants was Arabic, with ages ranging between 18 and 19. As mandated by the university, every student has to study the one-year foundation programme before fully commencing their studies in their areas of specialty in higher education. During the required foundation year, students are encouraged to learn English and subjects such as mathematics and IT skills based on the university's curriculum, vision, mission, objectives, learning outcomes, and graduate attributes.

Instruments

To investigate the cognitive test anxiety levels of the participants, the researchers adapted Thomas et al.'s (2017) Cognitive Test Anxiety Scale (CTAS-2). The test consisted of 24 items accompanied by the translation of each statement in Arabic to enhance the students' comprehension of each item. The coding for the questionnaire is based on a four-Likert scale ranging from "Not at all typical of me, Somewhat typical of me, Quite typical of me," to "Very typical of me." The reason for the scale selection is its internal consistency and concurrent validity measured at ($\alpha = 0.96$). Furthermore, newer studies (Pate et al., 2021; Teribury, 2021; Zheng & Cheng, 2018) have employed the scale in their course of analysing cognitive test anxiety. The scale has also been subjected to numerous translations, such as Spanish (Andujar & Cruz-Martinez, 2020).

To measure the reliability of the test, a pilot test using 30 Omani EFL learners was done. Based on the results obtained from the reliability test, the Cronbach's Alpha was found to be .855, which means that the questionnaire had internal consistency. The Arabic translation of the questionnaire was given to a PhD holder of Applied Linguistics with reputable working experience to maintain the same language standards, form, and style in the Arabic translation. The questionnaire was then taken for external moderation of the questions and cultural and academic ethics to ensure a more reliable instrument.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

At the beginning of the research, instructions were also given to the research participants to read before the data collection procedures. All participants agreed to join the research voluntarily after being categorically informed that all the information they gave would be handled with confidentiality.

The second edition of the CTAS was sent to the students to collect their responses, and they were given 30 minutes to complete the survey. To analyse the data for this study, SPSS version 16.0 was used accordingly.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the item analysis of the Test Anxiety Questionnaire. The items of the questionnaire were in a Likert-scale format ranging from Not at all typical of me (1), Somewhat typical of me (2), Quite typical of me (3), to Very typical of me (4). The researchers divided the scores (1 to 4) by three: Up to 1.33 shows low anxiety. From 1.34 to 2.66 shows average anxiety. From 2.67 to 4 shows high anxiety. As Table 1 indicates, no items showed low anxiety. However, eight items showed high anxiety, and 16 items showed average anxiety. Hence, it can be claimed that the participants suffered from average to high levels of anxiety.

Table 1

Item Analysis for the Test Anxiety Questionnaire (N=110)

	Statements	Mean	Status
1	losing sleep	2.96	High
2	being worried to do well	2.35	Average
3	get distracted	2.45	Average
4	difficulty remembering	2.72	High
5	likely to fail	1.72	Average
6	not good at	2.00	Average
7	begin to think	2.14	Average
8	so nervous	2.73	High
9	feel defeated	2.87	High
10	other students are doing better	2.04	Average
11	tend to freeze up	2.31	Average
12	the consequences of failing	1.97	Average
13	make careless errors	2.51	Average
14	My mind goes blank	2.81	High
15	not be too bright	2.42	Average
16	Forgetting the facts I really know	2.30	Average
17	I do not perform well	2.00	Average
18	the feeling that I am not doing well	2.61	Average
19	being a poor test taker	1.81	Average
20	I should have done better	2.91	High
21	I am not a good student	1.73	Average

22	I often realise mistakes	2.57	Average
23	I am afraid to see the score	2.75	High
24	have less control over test scores	2.82	High

Gender and Cognitive Test Anxiety

To measure the effect of gender on cognitive test anxiety, first, the test of normality was conducted and Table 2 shows the results for the male and female participants.

Table 2

The Result of Normality Test for Males and Females

	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Anxiety	Female	.201	56	.000
	Male	.215	54	.000

The result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality shows that the data are not normally distributed for the two sets of scores ($p < .05$). Therefore, the Mann-Whitney U test should be used for the mean comparison. The descriptive statistics (ranks table) of the two groups are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

The Ranks Table for the Scores of Males and Females

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Anxiety	Female	56	58.31	3265.50
	Male	54	52.58	2839.50
	Total	110		

The mean rank for the female and the male groups are 58.31 and 52.58, respectively. Table 4 shows the result of the Mann-Whitney U Test.

Table 4

The Result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for the Comparison of Males and Females

	Anxiety
Mann-Whitney U	1354.500
Z	-.966
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.334

Based on Table 4, there was no significant difference between the male and the female participants, $U = 1354.50$, $P > .05$. Hence, gender did not significantly affect the cognitive speaking test anxiety levels of Omani students.

English Proficiency and Cognitive Test Anxiety

Table 5 shows the result of the test of normality for the proficiency levels. The result of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality shows that the data are not normally distributed for the elementary and intermediate levels ($p < .05$). Therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis test should be used for the mean comparison. The descriptive statistics (ranks table) of the three groups are shown in Table 6.

Table 5

The Result of Normality Test for Proficiency Levels

Language proficiency		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Anxiety	Elementary	.258	35	.000
	Intermediate	.538	38	.000
	Pre-intermediate	.100	37	.200*

Table 6

The Ranks Table for the Three Proficiency Levels

Language Proficiency		N	Mean Rank
Anxiety	Elementary	35	67.89
	Pre-Intermediate	37	57.81
	intermediate	38	41.84
Total		110	

The mean ranks for the elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate groups are 67.89, 57.81, and 41.84, respectively. Table 7 shows the result of the inferential test.

Table 7

The Result of the Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Comparison of Levels

Anxiety	
KW Test	13.090
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.001

Table 7 shows a significant difference among the levels, $\chi^2 (2) = 13.09$, $P < .05$. To find out which group is statistically different from the others, an inferential test was performed for each set. Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics of the three levels.

Table 8*The Descriptive Statistics of the Three Levels*

Language Proficiency	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Elementary	59.1143	14.46857	35
Intermediate	54.8421	.97333	38
Pre-intermediate	58.6486	11.08857	37
Total	57.4818	10.48698	110

As can be seen in Table 8, the mean scores of the elementary, intermediate, and pre-intermediate levels are 59.11, 54.84, and 58.64 respectively.

Table 9*The Result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for the Comparison of Elementary and Intermediate Levels*

	Anxiety
Mann-Whitney U	360.500
Wilcoxon W	1101.500
Z	-3.634
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

Based on Table 9, there was a significant difference between the elementary and intermediate levels, $U = 360.50$, $P < .05$.

Table 10*The Result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for the Comparison of Elementary and Pre-Intermediate Levels*

	Anxiety
Mann-Whitney U	518.500
Wilcoxon W	1221.500
Z	-1.458
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.145

As can be seen in Table 10, there was not any significant difference between the elementary and pre-intermediate levels, $U = 518.50$, $P > .05$.

Table 11*The Result of the Mann-Whitney U Test for the Comparison of Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate Levels*

	Anxiety
Mann-Whitney U	488.500
Wilcoxon W	1229.500

Z	-2.453
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.014

As Table 11 shows, there was a significant difference between the intermediate and pre-intermediate levels, $U = 488.50$, $P < .05$.

Discussion

Anxiety is a feeling due to the surrounding ideas or factors (Koba et al., 2000; Ohata, 2005). This definition states that anxiety can bring psychological and biological barriers that are not controllable and non-predictable (Behforouz et al., 2022). This study investigated the cognitive elements of anxiety experienced by Omani EFL students of various proficiency levels while participating in speaking examination sessions.

The first research question investigated cognitive components of anxiety that negatively affect Omani EFL learners' speaking performance during the test. The questionnaire results showed that Omani EFL students had some amount of anxiety ranging from average (Mean: 1.72, likely to fail) to high levels (Mean: 2.96, losing sleep). There is no item found to be in lower levels of anxiety. Among the options, lack of sleep ($M=2.96$) and nervousness after the performance in the speaking examination ($M=20.91$) topped the list. Bashori et al. (2022) also revealed that their participants showed a moderate-to-serious level of anxiety in speaking sessions. However, the results are different from Yaniafari and Rihardini (2021), who found that students in online speaking classes had less anxiety. Lack of adequate practice time, lack of self-confidence, lack of real-life situation communication, fear of failure, receiving immediate feedback, and lack of speaking skills were considered the most important reasons for the anxiety in speaking sessions. Based on Debreli and Demirkan's (2016) study, the reasons for the EFL students in Cyprus to have high anxiety in the language learning process are fear of failure and making mistakes, and being called by language teachers in the class. Also, Jones (2004, as cited in Debreli & Demirkan, 2016) noticed that fear of making mistakes plays a vital role in foreign language learning in causing anxiety.

The second research question aimed at finding male and female Omani EFL students' performance differences in speaking examination sessions. The results revealed that anxiety did not have any relation with gender ($U = 1354.50$, $P > .05$). There were also no significant gender differences in other studies (Behforouz et al., 2022; Karadeniz, 2011; Kurniasih et al., 2021). In contrast, some studies showed gender differences. Siahpoosh et al. (2022) reported that female bilinguals are significantly more anxious compared to their male counterparts in an online session. Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) also found that females have more anxiety levels while communicating in English. In two other studies, however, Fariadian et al. (2014) and Jebreil et al. (2015) stated that after measuring the anxiety level of their students within the Iranian EFL context, male students have higher anxiety than female students.

As for the third research question, there was a significant difference in the anxiety levels of students with different proficiency levels. The elementary students

had the highest anxiety level ($M=59.1143$) and intermediate students had the lowest ($M=54.8421$). In this regard, studies found different results. For example, Gardner et al. (1977, as cited in Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009) stated that when students' proficiency levels increased, their anxiety levels decreased accordingly. They revealed that elementary students carry more anxiety than advanced students, which is in line with the findings of the present study. In two other qualitative studies, Ewald (2007) and Kitano (2001) revealed that increased proficiency levels result in higher anxiety. Sparks and Ganschow (2007) found that high school English learners with higher anxiety levels performed differently based on their first language skills than those with less anxiety. Finally, Marcus-Llinas and Garau (2009) found that advanced students with higher levels of achievement carried a higher degree of anxiety too.

Conclusion

The study showed that the anxiety experienced by Omani EFL students in speaking test sessions may be due to lack of adequate sleep, lack of confidence, fear of failure, and no control over the scores. The study also revealed that gender did not remarkably affect anxiety. In addition, it was revealed that elementary students carry higher anxiety level, followed by pre-intermediate learner, while intermediate learners had a lesser level of anxiety than the other two groups.

The findings of this study can be beneficial for examiners and institutions. As receiving immediate feedback and fear of failure increase anxiety levels, examiners can start their session by introducing some jokes to create a friendly and comfortable situation that decreases students' anxiety and increases their confidence. It is suggested that examiners be punctual during the examination session as it might reduce the anxiety level of students. Examiners can consider giving one or two minutes extra to some of the stressed students to decrease the anxiety level before they start the speaking examination. Since students lack speaking skills, schools, institutions, and even the curriculum designers can implement some type of game-based learning or extracurricular activities outside of the classroom context to provide semi-authentic situations to practise their English skills in speaking examination situations.

This study dealt with the cognitive components of anxiety during the speaking examination. Further research can be conducted to find the techniques for dealing with these reasons for anxiety either during the speaking examination or speaking sessions in the class. This study focused on the students to examine the reasons and amount of stress, and further studies are suggested to investigate the teachers' viewpoints on the anxiety and strategies they use to reduce this type of anxiety during class and examinations. This study targeted the students at the foundation level, however, higher education students may suffer from similar anxiety too, therefore, to gain comprehensive data on Omani students, further research is suggested to be conducted in all Omani educational institutions.

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THE ROLE OF EXTRAMURAL ENGLISH EXPOSURE AS REVEALED IN THE LANGUAGE ACCURACY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL EFL WRITERS

Bing Bing OEI*

Ali MUSTOFA

Syafi'ul ANAM

Universitas Negeri Surabaya, Indonesia

¹oei.20017@mhs.unesa.ac.id

²alimustofa@unesa.ac.id

³syafiul.anam@unesa.ac.id

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

Studying in an international school setting offers an excellent opportunity for students to acquire the target language, English, through abundant language exposure. As observed during classroom observations, several students outperformed their peers in targeted language production despite the same school language exposure. Extramural English is assumed to play a substantial influence. This case study explored the Extramural English exposure of 15 ninth-grade students, the duration of such exposure, and the language accuracy of their academic writing captured after receiving it. A qualitative design was utilised to examine the data acquired from students' linguistics background survey, daily online logs, interview transcription, and their writing products. The findings reveal that parents are the central agency facilitating language learning. During the eight-week research period, 80% of the students received interactive Extramural English, while 100% were exposed to non-interactive Extramural English. The frequency of receiving Extramural English exposure is more significant than the onset of exposure. A minimal linguistic error was recognised for 29% of average conciseness and 23% of inappropriate punctuation, while other errors were between 1% and 5%. This research highlights the importance of Extramural English exposure to written language accuracy among secondary EFL students.

Keywords: academic writing; extramural English; language exposure; language accuracy

Introduction

International schools have increased by 62% in 10 years (ISC Research, 2021). In 2017, Indonesia led the way with 190 international schools in the Asian region (Mononimbar, 2017). International schools offer English as a medium of instruction and the adoption of a global curriculum, for example, Cambridge Assessment International Education (Cambridge International Education, 2022), which improves the students' language proficiency. Learners are exposed to various linguistic inputs in the classroom acquired from their teachers (Chan, 2014) and their peers (Gámez et al., 2018).

It was found that the school factors must fully compensate for disparities in English language competency. Parental attitude toward language learning (Cohen et al., 2021; De Houwer, 2017), parent's education, and socioeconomic status are strongly associated with students' English language competency (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Azzolini et al., 2020; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013). The parents provide home facilities, such as books, which have been evident to increase phonological awareness and reading comprehension that support language acquisition (Pace et al., 2017), increasing the quality and quantity of language exposure the students receive, recognised as Extramural English.

Extramural English refers to the English students use or are exposed to outside the classroom (Avello et al., 2019; Leona et al., 2021). They may hear English spoken at home or school, play online games in English, listen to English-language music, read English-language books, or attend English-language courses. It enhances learners' language acquisition (Krashen, 1982), vocabulary, and communication capacity (Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Muñoz, 2014; Peters, 2018).

Numerous studies have investigated the correlation between language exposure and vocabulary (Akbarian et al., 2020; Bisson et al., 2014; Chang & Monaghan, 2019; De Wilde et al., 2020a; Leona et al., 2021), the relationship between language exposure and grammar (Matusevych et al., 2017), speaking (Chan, 2014; Gámez et al., 2018), or language proficiency-listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Al-Zoubi, 2018). Correct grammar is essential in academic writing because it facilitates the precise and exact communication of ideas (Cavaleri & Dianati, 2016). However, Extramural English and language accuracy in academic writing have not been specifically addressed.

This study then investigated Extramural English exposure of students and how it shapes their linguistic accuracy in academic writing, especially in international school contexts. The study aimed to provide language learners, teachers, and parents with a better understanding of the role of exposure in students' language learning, hence boosting learners' academic writing ability, specifically in written linguistic accuracy.

Literature Review

Extramural English

Language exposure or input refers to any spoken or written language a learner is exposed to in communicative circumstances (Van Patten et al., 2019). With the assistance of technology, language exposure, known as Extramural English, is available outside of the classroom, accelerating the spread of English and multiplying its accessibility (Kessler, 2018). Extramural English exposure manifests in interactive and non-interactive forms.

The interactive language exposure is communicative, of high-quality input, diverse in registers, and contextually relevant (Slabakova, 2016). Travelling to English-speaking countries, speaking in English, playing online games, and using social media are recognised as interactive language exposures that improve one's language proficiency (De Wilde et al., 2020b; Domingo, 2019). Interaction yields comprehensible output (Gitsaki, 1998), stimulating awareness, hypotheses testing, and reflection toward fluency. It allows language learners to pick up new words and rules of grammar (Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013).

Non-interactive language exposure, for instance, reading and watching TV or movies in the target language, eliminates communication and fosters receptive skills (Avello et al., 2019; Domingo, 2019; Peters, 2018). Passive perceptual exposure was reported to have a less positive correlation with active language usage, such as social media use and gaming in English, which were identified as the most beneficial language inputs, according to De Wilde et al. (2020). However, other studies (Avello et al., 2019; Fang & Park, 2019) found that non-interactive language exposure correlated with vocabulary expansion and was more impactful than the school instructions (Peters, 2018).

Krashen (1982) proposed the Affective Filter Hypothesis, which claims that language acquisition is optimised when students are strongly motivated, self-confident, and anxious. The non-interactive exposures permit language learners to proceed at their own pace, pick appropriate content for their level and interests, and re-read or re-watch what they have been reading or seeing to improve their comprehension (Jones, 2019). The positive attitude of language learners renders them "open" (Krashen, 1982, p. 31) to language input and enhances language acquisition.

The benefits of Extramural English are positively confirmed (Al-Zoubi, 2018; Avello et al., 2019; Azzolini et al., 2020), while the starting age and the frequency of receiving language exposure have been disputed (Muñoz, 2014). The early start of language exposure positively contributes to a native-like pronunciation (Lightbown & Spada, 2013); however, other studies have shown that the frequency or quantity of receiving language exposure matters. Frequency of exposure, aural augmentation, variations in working memory, and incidental vocabulary acquisition were proven effective (Malone, 2018). Language acquisition may not require an early start, but input quantity and language use may be equally crucial (Slabakova, 2016).

Quantity and quality of Extramural English determines one's language acquisition and is enhanced through the support of parents (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Azzolini et al., 2020; De Houwer, 2017; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Makarova et al., 2019;

Pawlak, 2021). It has been found that mothers with greater levels of education and parents from higher socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to encourage their children to acquire a second language (Brown, 2021). Parents might assume the role of agents when they teach their children to speak English at home (Cohen et al., 2021) or provide learning facilities to their children, for example, by reading books or accessing videos that support language acquisition (Azzolini et al., 2020).

Academic Writing: Language Accuracy

Brown and Lee (2015) suggest the requirement for micro and macro writing skills. It covers the competency in applying correct surface linguistic area, punctuations, writing purpose, and strategies. Therefore, writing is suggested to be the most complex linguistic skill to master, and errors are common (Pescante-Malimas & Samson, 2017).

Numerous studies have been conducted on EFL writing errors. Kaweera (2013) reviewed the writing errors among EFL Thai students, identifying the sources of interlingual errors in the participants' direct translation from Thai to English. Khansir (2013) conducted a study comparing EFL and ESL student-written errors, varying between the two groups in punctuation, which marked the highest errors, and spelling, which marked the lowest. Liao (2016) meanwhile identified grammatical error types made by 66 Taiwanese university students to study how Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE) affected the students' writing performance and showed the AWE application's effectiveness in enhancing students' writing performance, especially linguistic performance, by analysing and comparing students' writing errors.

Errors are the evidence to understand how a language is learned (Richards, 2015). It provides feedback to students, teachers, and researchers to help them enhance their language proficiency by preparing several language learning strategies to tackle the problem. The purported tool for evaluating language accuracy is Error Analysis, which claims to be helpful for both learners and teachers in resolving learning problems and boosting language awareness to avoid repetition (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Richards, 2015).

Method

As teachers at one of Surabaya's international schools attended by 100% of Indonesian students studying the International Cambridge Curriculum framework, we have observed that several Grade 9 students who studied the same class, Global Perspective, outperformed their colleagues in English academic writing. Despite their exposure to the same classroom language, their academic writing was superior to that of their peers. They answered the questions well and enthusiastically shared their comments with the rest of the class. Figure 1 illustrates a representative sample of student replies.

Figure 1

Sample of the Student's Answer in Padlet

<p>What is the best social media platform? Start with your Claim-Evidence-Reasoning</p>	
<p>TikTok- Participant 5</p> <p>Claim: I think TikTok is the best social media platform. Since TikTok covers content from entertainment, education, and interesting topics from all over the world. It can be beneficial for us users, since we get to enjoy the content, as well as stores/brand, since they have more chance to promote their products into.</p> <p>Evidence: Currently, TikTok is the most popular social media with over 800 million monthly users. Lots of influencers got more famous from the app and sales of markets increased because of the algorithm and the amount of user.</p> <p>Reasoning: Because TikTok can make us interact from people all around the world, watch their contents, and also to make our either name or brands well-known to the society.</p>	<p>Twitter-Participant 13</p> <p>Claim: Twitter is a social media to connect people and share their thoughts with people around the world. They can tweets random stuff from any topics, post pictures and many more that makes popular around the world.</p> <p>Evidence: Information published in Twitter is available for millions of people to see since it is reported that the user of Twitter reached 186 million in 2020.</p> <p>Reasoning: Because you can find anything in Twitter and you can meet a lot of people around the world, Twitter is the best social media platform.</p>

This one-of-a-kind phenomenon prompted the current case study research design, assuming that Extramural English substantially influences the creation of variations among pupils. Prior studies (De Wilde et al., 2020a; Oxford, 2017; Pawlak, 2021) have suggested examining the participants in context, focusing on the participants' perspectives, and offering extensive data presentations for evaluating the theoretical field and reality for drawing better conclusions in certain circumstances. Twenty Grade 9 Indonesian students who outperformed their colleagues in academic writing, as determined through classroom observations and the documentation of their English and Global Perspectives test scores above 90, were invited to participate. After submitting the consent letter, 15 of them and their parents were willing to participate in the research. Confidentiality, anonymity, and transparency were upheld according to the research and publication ethics guidelines approved by the Universitas Negeri Surabaya Research Ethics Protocol (Protocol Code: B/15360/UN38.8/LT.02.02/2022).

Instrument and Procedure

Different methods were employed to address the research questions. A language background questionnaire was distributed to the students and their parents. The

details of Extramural English exposure and the number of hours students are exposed to English were documented through the Online Log. The Online Log, distributed to all the student participants once a week during the eight weeks of the research, provides several benefits, including real-time data collecting, which tracks changes over time, smartphone accessibility, and captures the natural flow of everyday life (Arndt et al., 2021). Inquiries were concise, focused, and open-ended to avoid fatigue or prompted reactions in frequent users.

Due to the students' same language exposure, all 15 participants attended a Zoom Meetings Focus Group, and individual interviews were organised to ascertain their perspectives. Considering the hectic schedules of the parents and the pandemic, telephone interviews were done with six parents who accepted the interview invitation for data triangulation of the students' Extramural English exposure and the facilities the parents provided for children to receive exposure.

The final information obtained from the students was their written research reports. Individual research papers ranging from 800 to 1200 words were assigned to students in the Global Perspectives program following two months of 60-minute lessons per week. Fifteen reports were evaluated for language errors. This study was conducted according to the research guidelines and publication ethics regulations of the Research and Publication Ethics Board of the Universitas Negeri Surabaya.

Data Analysis

All the 15 student participants consistently submitted their Online Logs for analysis during the research period. Table 1 illustrates a sample of Online Log, which distinguishes non-interactive language exposure from interactive language exposure for analysis.

With the help of an automatic writing assessment software, Grammarly, and the researchers' knowledge, we assessed the students' research reports using a grammatical, lexical, semantic, and mechanical fault rubric adapted from Wu and Garza (2014).

Table 1
Sample Analysis of the Online Log

[illegible]

Table 2
Error Coding Categories

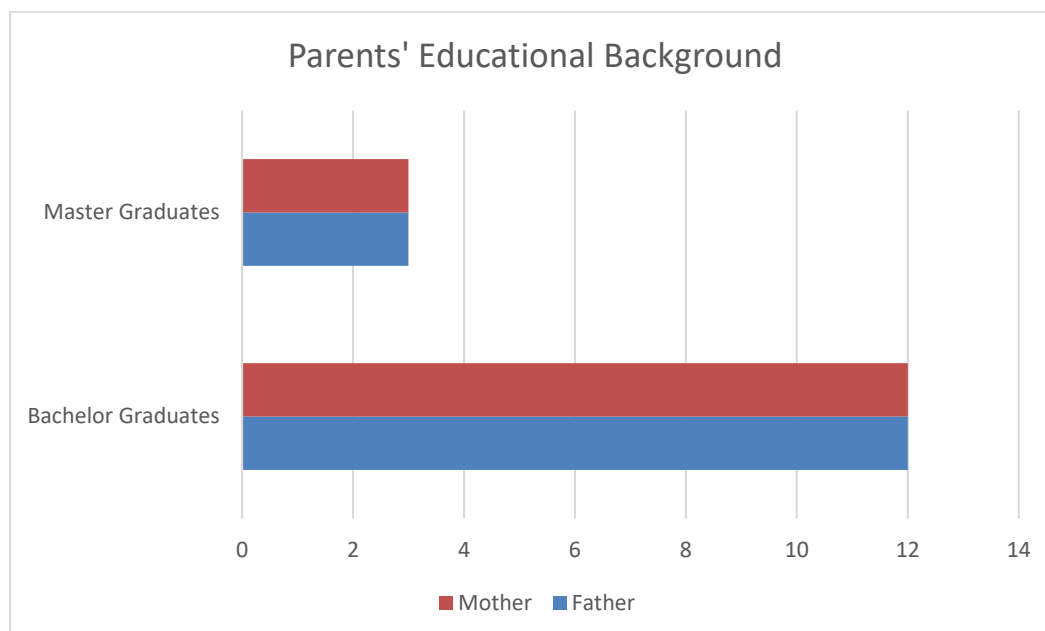
Types of errors	#	Error Categories
Grammatical errors	1	Verb Tense
	2	Sentence Structure
	3	Coordination
	4	Relative Clause
	5	Singular/plural
	6	Verb omission
	7	Subject omission
	8	S-V agreement
	9	Fragment
	10	Genitive Case
	11	Infinitive/gerund
Lexical errors	12	Noun
	13	Pronoun
	14	Verb
	15	Adjective
	16	Adverb
	17	Article
	18	Preposition
	19	Word form
	20	Interjections
Semantics errors	21	Clarity/conciseness
	22	Word choice (meaning)
Mechanics errors	23	Punctuation
	24	Capitalisation
	25	Spelling

Results

Extramural English

Students' language proficiency is discovered to be linked to their parents' socioeconomic status (SES) and their mother's level of education. Figure 2 shows the educational levels of the participants' parents. A total of 80% of the participants' parents had a Bachelor's degree, and 20% had a Master's degree. Two mothers and fathers involved in this study were college graduates from foreign universities outside Indonesia.

Figure 2
Parents' Educational Background



One hundred per cent of the participants in this study belong to the middle class or higher SES. These parents could send their children to an international school, which costs more than regular schools with the national curriculum in terms of facility costs and other fees. This conclusion clarifies why the participants received so many facilities during childhood, enhancing their English skills. During the interview, one of the parents stated that she did not speak English but wanted her daughter to be proficient by enrolling her in an English course taught by native English speakers.

We prefer to communicate in Indonesian rather than English at home. However, my child takes English classes, watches videos on YouTube, and reads books in English. (English translation)
 (Parent of Participant 15, Parent's Interview)

The facilities provided by the parents are valuable sources for language acquisition for the participants, allowing them to have more possibilities to experience and more language exposure. Even though their parents may not have been natural English speakers, they purchased English books for their children to read, enrolled them in lessons taught by native English speakers, or provided them with an English television channel and Internet connection for their devices.

Since they were small, my children have been studying English. They are accustomed to watching English-language television and YouTube and reading English-language books. Before the outbreak, they had received English training from native speakers. (English translation)

(Parent of Participant 7, Parent's Interview)

Their Extramural English exposure influences the participants' language learning and performance. Figure 3 depicts the participants' daily Extramural English exposure, documented according to the interactive and non-interactive modes. There are two forms of interactive language exposure: verbal and written. The non-interactive language exposure involves utilising English in device settings, listening, watching, reading, and playing offline games.

Keeping track of the Students' daily Extramural English, as indicated in Table 3, it was found that 80% of the participants conversed daily in English, on average. A few participants described how they appreciated conversing with native speakers via social media, which might be deemed as high-quality input, similar to the experience of Participant 14:

Talking to native speakers on the Instagram app to gain more knowledge and expand my social life.

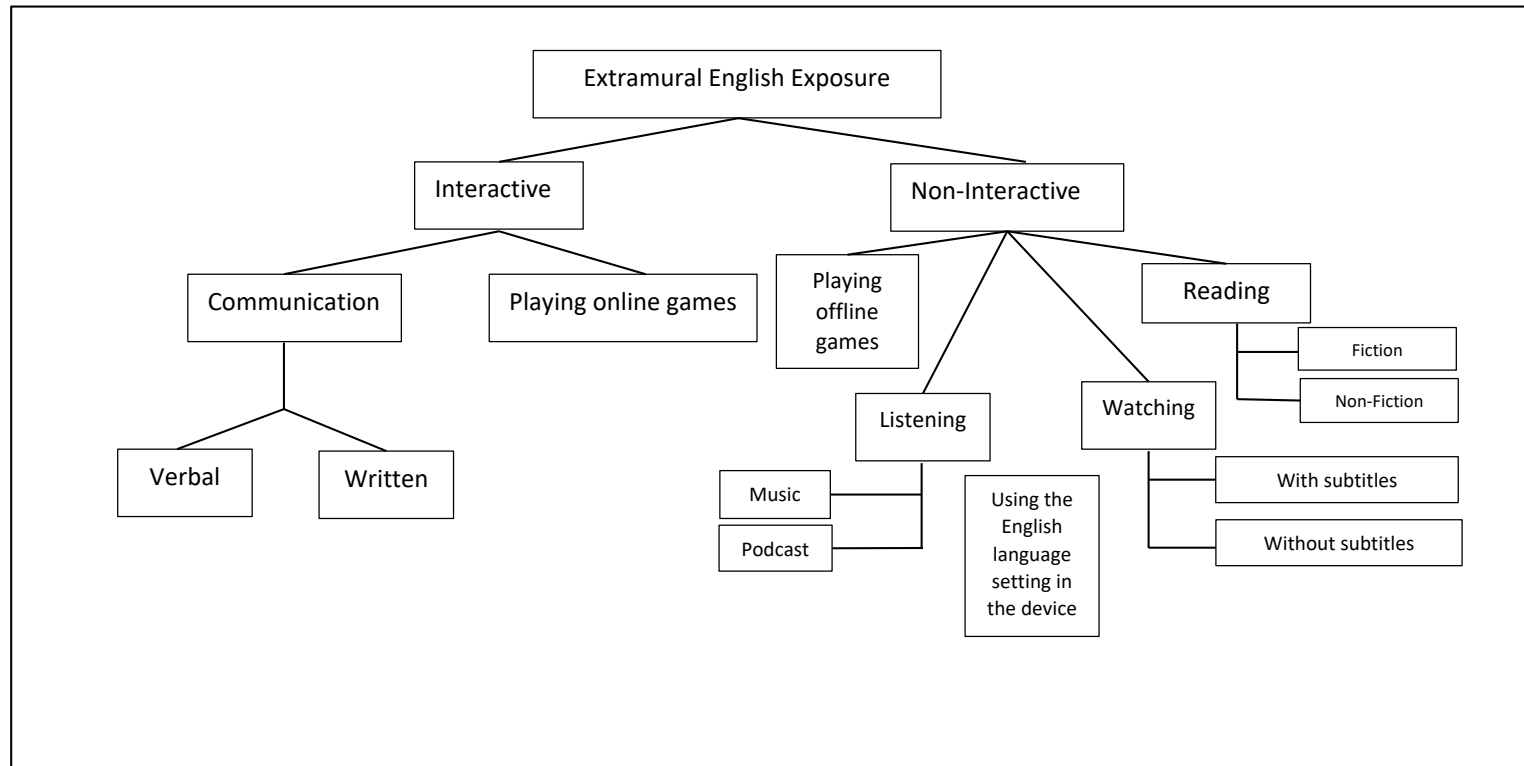
(Participant 14, Online Log)

On average, 10% of the participants committed their time to online games. They are members of the online gaming community and play as a group. Nonetheless, just a fraction of the participants engaged in online gaming.

Table 3
Out-of-School Language Exposure

Out of school Language Exposure	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Ave- age
Communication	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%	80%
Playing games online	0%	7%	7%	20%	20%	7%	7%	13%	10%
Playing games offline	13%	13%	13%	13%	13%	13%	13%	13%	13%
Using the English language setting on the device	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100 %
Listening	67%	73%	80%	73%	67%	73%	67%	80%	73%
Watching	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100 %
Reading	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100 %

Figure 3
Extramural English Exposure



Non-interactive language exposure surpassed interactive language exposure. During the two-month research period, playing offline games, using the English language setting on the device, listening to music or podcasts, and reading activities were reported as the participants' sources of non-interactive language exposure. On average, 13% of the participants preferred offline games over internet games. As stated by Participant 10 during the interview, they chose offline games for amusement or to improve their cognitive abilities.

like playing games like Chess. It is fun. I can learn how to think of a strategy to win.

(Participant 10, FGD-Students' Interview)

73% of the participants, on average, got engaged in the listening activity, which came second in the category. The Online Log implies that the individuals listened to a podcast with diverse themes or tunes. The podcast provides participants with an excellent opportunity to learn about various subjects while listening to music. In addition, listening activities enhance language skills, as explained in the Online Log.

Listening (to) music allows me to think of how to be creative in arranging words.

(Participant 2, Online Log)

In addition, all the participants reported that they used the English language setting on the gadget, watching films, and reading books. The English language setting is familiar to the participants, as indicated by Participant 12.

I get my English exposure from YouTube, my family, your family, my school, my friends, the television, and my device setting.

(Participant 12, Student's Interview)

Table 4 shows consistent data on watching and reading English materials were collected from the first to the last week of the study. Films, news, documentaries, and social media proved popular among the participants. As a result of watching the video, they are entertained, acquire the language, understand the culture, and implement the communicative techniques. Participant 11 recounted his experience watching the live Internet debate broadcast during the Focus Group Discussion and confirmed it increased his communication skills.

People around the world (can join the debate) since the platform is everywhere. There is one moderator during the discussion. So, everyone should watch their words and talk more carefully during the debate.

(Participant 11, FGD-Students' Interview)

Table 4*Duration of Extramural English Exposure (in hours per day per week)*

Interactivity	Out-of-School Language Exposure	Week								Average
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Interactive	Communication	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	3.0	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.4
	Playing games online	3.0	1.0	1.0	2.3	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.1
Non-Interactive	Playing games offline	2.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	2.1
	Listening	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.2
	Watching without subtitle	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.6	3.3	2.2	3.7	3.5	3.2
	Watching with subtitle	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.6
	Reading (including using English in device setting)	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	3.9	1.7	1.6	2.0

Reading is identified as a component of the participants' daily language exposure and has effects comparable to watching. All the participants read materials on social media, while book reading was less common. The usefulness, appeal, and effectiveness of social media reading are consistently highlighted.

I watch and use social media because it is practical, easy to use, and entertaining. Not only that, I can learn a lot by using social media and people's opinions or perspectives from different backgrounds.

(Participant 2, Online Log)

The students had more non-interactive out-of-school language exposure than interactive out-of-school language exposure from the first to the last week of the study, as shown in Table 4. All the students were exposed to reading, watching, and using the English language setting every week. According to Table 4, their language exposure varied, averaging between 0.6 and 3.2 hours per day per week. The most common type of non-interactive extramural exposure is watching without subtitles, with an average of 3.2 hours per day per participant. Students were exposed to communication for an average of 2.4 hours per day; this represents the second greatest portion of their daily routines. Each participant spent an average of 2.2 hours per day per week on listening. The students engaged in offline or online gaming for an average of 2.1 hours per day, which is marginally distinct from their time spent listening. The daily and weekly reading time is two hours. The least amount is 0.6

hours daily of watching foreign films with subtitles per week. Table 4 shows how students allocated their time to extramural English exposure daily.

The duration of each participant's weekly exposure to the target language is displayed in Table 5. During the COVID-19 outbreak, the participants stayed at home and engaged in online streaming, reading, and listening.

The weekly report revealed that the participants whose language acquisition began before preschool had the shortest average duration, 8.3 hours per day every week. A group with a later English start had a more extended period of out-of-school language exposure, 9.8 hours per day weekly for the pre-schoolers and 9.3 hours per day weekly for the beginning elementary students. Participant 7's description showed the importance of frequency or quantity of language input in language acquisition rather than the onset.

I came to this school without knowing anything about English. My parents sent me to Kelt, an English course, learning English with native speakers for several years. I learn about grammar and everything. It helps me a lot to improve my (English) skills.

(Participant 7, Student Interview)

Table 5

Each Participant's Average Duration of Out-of-School Language Exposure (In Hours Per Day Every Week)

The Onset of English Exposure	Participant	W1	W2	W3	W4	W5	W6	W7	W8	Average
Before preschool	1	9	5	9	7	7	8	8	8	7.6
	4	5	7	7	9	9	12	7	10	8.3
	5	11	11	11	11	11	13	11	11	11.3
	11	5	6	7	3	2	4	7	6	5
	12	7	8	8	5	8	9	7	9	7.6
	13	11	10	10	11	12	11	9	8	10.3
	Average									8.3
Preschool	2	9	9	12	11	11	13	13	10	11
	3	10	7	8	8	9	10	11	11	9.3
	6	13	12	11	11	12	14	12	12	12.1
	8	6	8	9	11	7	10	7	12	8.8
	9	6	4	5	7	4	8	6	6	5.8
	10	12	17	13	17	18	14	13	17	15.1
	14	9	11	12	9	13	10	12	12	11
	15	6	8	5	6	4	5	5	5	5.5
	Average									9.8
Elementary	7	6	6	10	13	12	9	9	9	9.3
	Average									9.3

Academic Writing: Language Accuracy

The error detection was initially done through Grammarly. It was then evaluated by the researchers, who have been certified to teach English as a foreign language for more than 15 years. The errors were categorised based on grammatical, lexical, semantics, and mechanics errors (Wu & Garza, 2014).

The system discovered an average of 101 incorrect identifications daily. The findings revealed a small percentage of grammatical and lexical faults and significantly greater semantic and mechanical errors. Table 6 provides information about the error proportion.

The percentage of detected grammatical errors was the lowest, ranging from zero to five per cent on average. The participants, on average, did not make relative clauses, verb omission, subject omission, and genitive case errors. The error rate for verb tense errors was the highest at 5%, followed by singular/plural errors (3%). Next were coordination and subject-verb agreement issues (2%). The least frequent were sentence structure, fragment, and infinitive/gerund errors (1%). Participant 3 shared that she trusted her parents to help her with her English. In the excerpt, there is a verb tense error (could).

Parents are the closest person and the person that we could trust the most
(Sentence number 21, Participant 3's work)

Note: "Could" should be replaced with "can".

Single and plural forms were the next frequent type of grammar errors. The overuse of the letter "s" indicates pluralism in English construction, may originate from an intralingual error resulting in overgeneralisation, as illustrated in Participant 3's use of "childrens" but the meaning is not affected.

Social skills are essential for childrens.

(Sentence number 5, Participant 3's work)

Note: "Childrens" should be replaced with "children".

In the category of lexical errors, the students had the most problems with preposition errors (9%). There are multiple inappropriate placements of the preposition or missing preposition usage, like "on" being used instead of "of":

As stated by UN Women⁸, globally, women still get paid roughly 23% less than their male comparatives, increasing difficulty on accessing digital infrastructure.
(Sentence number 46, Participant 4's work)

Note: The preposition "on" should be changed to "of".

Although not frequent, the students made errors with adjectives and articles (4%) than pronouns and verbs (2%). Noun error was minor (1%).

As for semantics errors, clarity and conciseness (29%) were a great problem. See example in Figure 4 where the student used "as well as" and "as a result of" inappropriately. Grammarly suggested "and" and "due to" respectively.

Table 6
Error Analysis of the Participant's Research Report

Participant	Number of Errors	Types of Errors																								
		Grammatical errors											Lexical errors								Semantics errors		Mechanics errors			
		1. Verb Tense	2. Sentence Structure	3. Coordination	4. Relative Clause	5. Singular/plural	6. Verb omission	7. Subject omission	8. S-V agreement	9. Fragment	10. Genitive Case	11. Infinitive/gerund	12. Noun	13. Pronoun	14. Verb	15. Adjective	16. Adverb	17. Article	18. Preposition	19. Word form	20. Determiner	21. Clarity/conciseness	22. Word choice (meaning)	23. Punctuation	24. Capitalisation	25. Spelling
1	69	4%	0%	3%	0%	1%	1%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	1%	1%	4%	1%	10%	10%	0%	0%	20%	1%	29%	12%	1%
2	48	8%	0%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%	8%	0%	0%	2%	0%	2%	2%	2%	0%	10%	6%	0%	0%	33%	0%	21%	0%	0%
3	59	12%	0%	3%	0%	17%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	2%	3%	0%	0%	3%	2%	3%	0%	0%	25%	0%	24%	0%	3%
4	95	0%	0%	1%	0%	3%	1%	0%	2%	0%	0%	3%	1%	4%	1%	1%	1%	4%	20%	0%	2%	29%	1%	15%	0%	9%
5	105	2%	3%	4%	0%	0%	0%	0%	4%	3%	0%	1%	1%	3%	0%	10%	1%	7%	6%	0%	5%	37%	1%	12%	0%	2%
6	49	2%	0%	2%	2%	8%	0%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	8%	0%	2%	12%	0%	2%	37%	0%	20%	0%	0%
7	399	5%	2%	1%	0%	3%	1%	0%	1%	1%	0%	1%	0%	5%	1%	4%	3%	3%	6%	1%	8%	34%	0%	22%	1%	0%
8	81	1%	2%	0%	1%	1%	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%	1%	2%	2%	0%	5%	2%	4%	14%	0%	0%	23%	0%	28%	5%	5%
9	181	4%	2%	1%	1%	4%	1%	0%	1%	0%	1%	0%	1%	1%	3%	4%	5%	6%	9%	0%	1%	18%	0%	35%	1%	4%
10	148	5%	4%	1%	0%	1%	1%	0%	2%	1%	0%	1%	0%	1%	2%	11%	2%	1%	9%	0%	0%	23%	0%	36%	0%	0%
11	128	9%	2%	1%	0%	1%	0%	0%	1%	2%	0%	0%	0%	5%	4%	2%	2%	2%	4%	0%	4%	20%	0%	39%	2%	0%
12	56	13%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	5%	0%	0%	4%	0%	9%	0%	2%	4%	2%	5%	0%	0%	27%	0%	21%	5%	4%
13	39	5%	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3%	0%	3%	0%	0%	5%	8%	0%	3%	13%	0%	3%	33%	0%	23%	0%	0%
14	21	0%	0%	5%	0%	0%	0%	0%	5%	5%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	5%	0%	19%	48%	0%	14%	0%	0%
15	31	10%	3%	10%	0%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	6%	10%	13%	0%	3%	29%	0%	6%	0%	3%
	101	5%	1%	2%	0%	3%	0%	0%	2%	1%	0%	1%	1%	2%	1%	4%	2%	4%	9%	0%	3%	29%	0%	23%	2%	2%

Mechanical errors, such as inappropriate punctuation, accounted for 23% of the errors and is the second highest type of error. Missing commas, full stops, or hyphens were frequently present. Capitalisation or spelling errors ranked last (2%). The example shows the omission of a comma before “such as” in the sentence “... through the Internet such as ...”.

Cyberbullying is when people bully others through the Internet such as body shaming or saying bad words to them. (Participant 9’s work)

Note: A comma should be added between “internet” and “such”.

Grammarly was useful to the students as 33% of the participants utilised the revisions indicated by automated written input, such as the Grammar Checker in Google Docs or Grammarly. This helps the learners produce academic writing with limited errors that do not interfere with the meaning and do not influence the message delivery. Sixty-seven per cent of the participants confirmed that writing in English was natural, and they practically re-read their writing before submission. They relied on their “instinct”, driven by Extramural English language exposure intake.

Figure 4

Sample of Clarity Error Detection

According to Dr. Ira Savitri Tanjung, a psychologist, as well as child and adolescent psychiatrists, Indonesian youngsters are dealing with mental problems as a result of the addiction to mobile gadgets.

(Participant 5's work)

Error Detection and Suggestion

CLARITY

Your sentence may be unclear or hard to follow. Consider rephrasing.

According to Dr. Ira Savitri Tanjung, a psychologist, **as well as** and child and adolescent psychiatrists, Indonesian youngsters are dealing with mental problems **as a result of** due to the addiction to mobile gadgets.

Replace with this version

☒ Highlight changes

Discussion

Prior research has demonstrated the advantages of interactive and non-interactive language exposure for language development (Peters, 2018; Al-Zoubi, 2018). De Wilde et al. (2020b) emphasised the role of interactive language exposure in learners' language performance for their multimodality. However, the finding of this study revealed that non-interactive Extramural English was essential. Although not every participant was exposed to interactive language, all of them reported regularly watching, reading, and using English language settings on their devices, which was supported by their positive parental attitude towards language learning and their educational or economic background (Altinkamis & Simon, 2020; Cantone, 2022; Cohen et al., 2021; De Houwer, 2017). The participants in the present study made fewer errors in clarity, punctual and grammar (1%-29%) compared to a previous study by Mustafa et al. (2017). The participants in Mustafa et al.'s (2017) study had similarity, were about the same age at the junior high level and from the same country, were required to write 150 words of essay. They showed a higher frequency of language errors, ranging from 30% of prepositions to 48.4% of word form errors. The hypothesis that language is relevant to other aspects of report writing is supported by the analysis of the participants' writing as a result of Extramural English, enabling students to conduct self-checking in the future. The language input, turning into the intake, activates the monitoring systems that control language production based on the hypothesis drawn from the input (Krashen, 1982) and assists the students in producing fewer linguistic errors in their writing.

Despite the ongoing debate between the effective onset of the language and the frequency of the language, prior studies have demonstrated the importance of frequency and quantity of language input (Muñoz, 2014; Peters & Webb, 2018; Slabakova, 2016). The participants in the present study exhibited a range of Extramural English types before, during, or after preschool years. However, the participants' incidences of written errors were comparable. Their daily average length of Extramural English exposure was marginally higher than those with earlier language onset, even though they encountered language exposure later. This finding aligns with the study by Matuskevych et al. (2017) that shows the correlation between cumulative exposure and language performance and the absence of the effect of the starting age of receiving language exposure.

Conclusion

The study was on the role of Extramural English exposure in the language accuracy of 15 secondary school EFL learners who outperformed their peers. While not all the participants had the opportunity to engage with interactive language, the results showed that 100% of them had encountered non-interactive Extramural English exposure, such as through frequent reading, watching English materials, and using English language settings on their devices, which was supported by their positive parents' attitude towards language learning and their educational or economic background. The findings confirmed the essential role of non-interactive Extramural English exposure and the importance of the duration of receiving language exposure

over the onset of the language. This resulted in minor language errors found in their academic writing. Individual attributes, meanwhile, become a limitation of the study that could be included in future research for a more thorough investigation by employing an ethnographic method.

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ROLE OF L1 AND L2 IN THE ACQUISITION OF BAHASA INDONESIA AS A THIRD LANGUAGE

Abdul KHOLIQ

Bambang YULIANTO*

Suhartono SUHARTONO

Universitas Negeri Surabaya, Indonesia

abdul.21014@mhs.unesa.ac.id

bambangyulianto@unesa.ac.id

suhartono@unesa.ac.id

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**Corresponding author*

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to analyse the role of L1 and L2 in the Bahasa Indonesia acquisition as L3. The participants of this study were *Bahasa Indonesia bagi Penutur Asing* (BIPA) students from Universitas Negeri Surabaya. Data were collected when participants carried out conversations using Bahasa Indonesia and described pictures shown to them. The participants' speech was analysed for language transfer and the participants' tendencies to use L1 or L2. The results show that L1 influences the phonological shift in L3 articulation. This happens to participants' whose L1 typology is close to L3. L1 also plays a dominant role in helping participants to master L3 vocabulary when the typology is close to L3. If the L1 typology is far from L3, L2 is the main supplier in mastering L3 vocabulary. Typology is the dominant factor in L3 acquisition. In addition, other factors, such as L2 status, working memory, and memory, influence the role of L1 and L2 but are less dominant than typology.

Keywords: third language acquisition; cross-linguistic influence; language backgrounds; multilingualism

Introduction

In education, the theories of language acquisition are important to explain strategies for learning languages (Hamid, 2011). Students' knowledge and proficiency of the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) affect third language acquisition

(TLA). Cenoz (2001) stated that TLA is more complex than second language acquisition (SLA). In SLA, there is only L1 as the source language, but in TLA, the relationship can be between $L1 \leftrightarrow L3$, $L2 \leftrightarrow L3$, or $L1 \text{ and } L2 \leftrightarrow L3$ (Alonso et al., 2020). In addition, the process that occurs in TLA can adhere to several principles: (a) language sources can come from L1/L2; (b) L1 and L2 have different qualitative characteristics; (c) the process possesses a holistic nature; and (d) aspects in L3 can be mastered all at once or repeatedly.

L1 is assumed to be the first language in childhood with the acquisition of linguistic abilities at a certain level. L2 is assumed to be the language acquired after L1 as the source language. In chronological order, L3 is assumed to be the language acquired after L1 and L2, either sequentially or simultaneously (Hammarberg, 2014). The term L3 was used by language acquisition experts along with the emergence of studies examining cross-linguistic influences in language acquisition. Rothman et al. (2013) said that L3 is a language that is acquired after at least two other languages have been acquired. Thus, chronologically, L3 can actually be a fourth, fifth, or any number of languages (L_n) acquired after the first two. A language can also be considered as an L3 if the L2 consists of more than one language, or $L2_n$ (Hammarberg, 2018).

There has been considerable interest in third language acquisition (TLA) studies over the last decades (Bardel & Sánchez, 2020; Cenoz, 2001; De Angelis, 2007; Hammarberg, 2001). TLA research involves psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives. From the sociolinguistic aspect, TLA can improve language acquisition skills, which can be used for educational and social development in multilingual individuals. TLA research also have bi/multilingual acquisition ability characteristics compared to monolingual individuals (Cenoz et al., 2001).

TLA examines several phenomena, including transfer, interference, language avoidance, borrowing, and the elimination of previous languages (Smith & Kellerman, 1986). TLA can also be studied from 1) linguistic aspects (language transfer, aspects of phonology, morphology and syntax, minimum pairs); 2) sociological aspects (language negotiation); 3) psychological aspects (metalinguistic awareness, speaker heritage); 4) educational aspects (CLIL); and 5) cognitive aspects (competence of multilingual speakers) (Amaro et. al, 2012; Ding & Ding, 2021).

TLA research is most appropriate in Indonesia to investigate students who are studying Bahasa Indonesia as a foreign language, for instance, in the programme *Bahasa Indonesia bagi Penutur Asing* (BIPA). BIPA students, on average, master more than two languages before learning Bahasa Indonesia. One of the observations that have been made in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia is the occurrence of lexical transfer from L1/L2, suggesting that the students' L1 and L2 play a vital role in the process (Kholiq & Luthfiyati, 2020).

This study analyses the role of L1 and L2 in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia as L3. The objectives of the study are: 1) to identify the role of L1 and L2 in articulation of Bahasa Indonesia as L3; and 2) to determine the role of L1 and L2 as a vocabulary supplier in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia as L3.

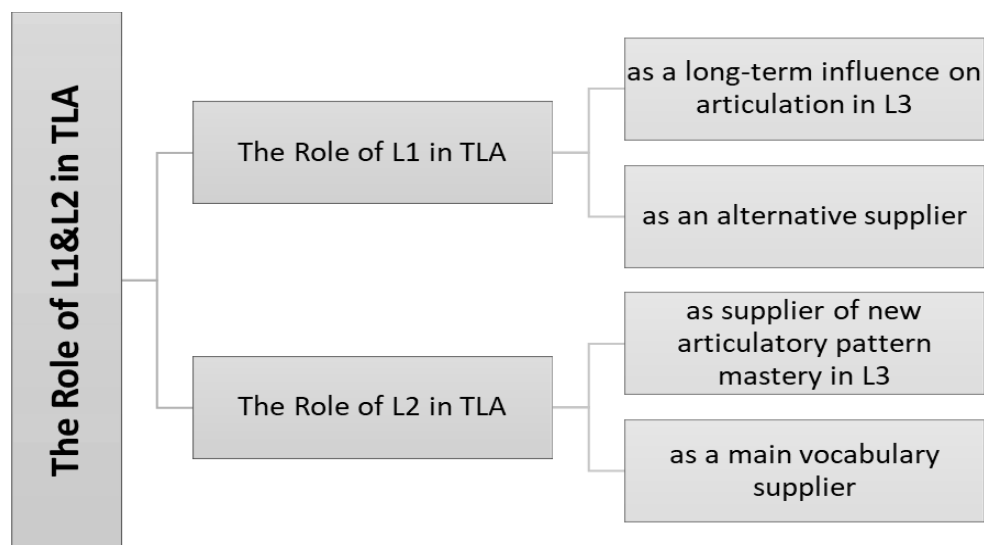
Theoretical Framework

Language background in TLA is very important for learners (Mahdun et al., 2022; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). The learners' L1 and L2 are the primary capital for their L3 acquisition. The role of L1 and L2 can be seen in articulation and vocabulary suppliers in L3 acquisition. The effect of L1 is also seen in the articulation of powerful L3 learners. Hammarberg (2001) stated that L1 has a long-term influence on articulation in L3. This can be seen in several L1 sounds that affect the L3 articulation. L1 functions as an alternative supplier when L3 learners cannot associate a word with L2. Jin (2009) corroborates that the influence of L1 cannot be eliminated as a source of direct transfer of TLA, even after learners have obtained a typologically closer L2.

Kulundary and Gabriele (2012) found that L2 has a role in the grammatical and lexical mastery of L3. In addition, working memory also affects TLA, which indirectly has a vital role in L2 word mastery in L3 learners (Shekari & Schwieter, 2019). The role of L1 and L2 in TLA is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework for the Role of L1 and L2 in L3 Acquisition



Method

This study uses a qualitative approach by analysing the roles of L1 and L2 in TLA. The language performance of participants in interviews and when they produced sentences in response to given stimuli. The spoken data from the interviews were used to determine the role of L1 and L2 in TLA articulation. Meanwhile, to determine the role that L1 and L2 play as vocabulary suppliers in L3, the words, phrases, clauses, or sentences that are used by the participants in L3 were analysed.

The participants of this study were three BIPA students at the Universitas Negeri Surabaya (Unesa). The selection criteria were students who were studying Bahasa Indonesia as an L3, and started to acquire Bahasa Indonesia at the same time. The participants of this study were:

- 1) S-1 from Thailand with L1: Pattani Malay, L2: Thai and English, and L3: Bahasa Indonesia;
- 2) S-2 from Madagascar with L1: Malagasy, L2: French and English, and L3: Bahasa Indonesia; and
- 3) S-3 from Madagascar with L1: Malagasy, L2: French and English, and L3: Bahasa Indonesia.

Data were collected using elicitation techniques. Elicitation is used for participants to show their language performance by combining knowledge, perception, and language skills (Gass & Mackey, 2007). In this study, interviews and picture-based sentence production were used to elicit the participant's language performance.

Interviews were conducted using Bahasa Indonesia as L3. If they could not speak Bahasa Indonesia, they could use L1/L2. Participants were asked several questions on various topics, such as family profiles, Bahasa Indonesia learning process, comparison of Indonesia's country and origin, and plans after studying in Indonesia. The data focused on linguistic performance, not the contents of the answers. Sounds, words, phrases, clauses, or sentences that were transferred to L1/L2 became the data of this study to analyse the roles of L1 and L2 in the participants' TLA.

In addition to the interviews, participants were also asked to produce sentences based on pictures. One hundred pictures were shown to the participants as stimuli to make sentences. The images were related to the participants' environment. The data collected at this stage were the same as the data in the interview, namely, sounds, words, phrases, clauses, or sentences that were transferred to L1/L2. Figure 2 shows some examples of pictures provided to the participants.

Figure 2


Some Pictures Provided to the Participants





Data analysis in this study included 1) phonetic transcription; 2) identification and classification; and 3) data analysis. Phonetic transcription was conducted for the recordings of the participants' pronunciation when they discussed and produced sentences based on pictures. Identification and classification were carried out by specifying sentences that contained L1/L2 language elements. These elements can be phonemes and words. Sentences containing phonemes in L1/L2 were categorised as data used to analyse the role of L1/L2 in articulation. Meanwhile, sentences containing words in L1/L2 were categorised as data used to analyse the role of L1/L2 as vocabulary suppliers. Data analysis was carried out by examining the results of identification and classification with the roles of L1 and L2 in Bahasa Indonesia acquisition as L3. The data collection and analysis process are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Research Procedure

Data Collection			Analysis Process		
Topic/Picture	Questions/Keyword from Picture	Answer/Sentences Production	Phonetic Transcription	Identification and Classification	Data Analysis
Interview Process					
Family profiles	Berapakah umur Saudaramu?	Adik yang <u>bosu</u> tiga belas tahun, namanya Lukman. (S-1)	[Adlʔ] [yan] [bosu] [tiga] [bəlah] [tahUŋ], [namañio] [Lukman].	Articulated/pronounced [bəlah] in Malay (L1), it should be [bəlah] in Bahasa Indonesia	Phonological shift [s] to [h] in L1
				Articulated/pronounced [namañio] in Malay (L1), it should be [namaña] in Bahasa Indonesia	Phonological shift [a] to [o] in L1
				Used <i>bosu</i> (L1), not <i>bungsu</i> (L3)	L1 supplied the word to be expressed in L3
Produce Sentences Based The Pictures					
	Bersembunyi	Anak-anak bermain <u>akiafina</u> (S-2)	[anaʔ] [anaʔ] [bərmæn] [akiafina]	Articulated/pronounced [bərmæn]. Sound [ə] does not occur in L1	L2 supplied the sound [ə] that does not occur in L1
				Used <i>akiafina</i> (L1), not <i>bersembunyi</i> (L3)	L1 supplied the word when L2 could not

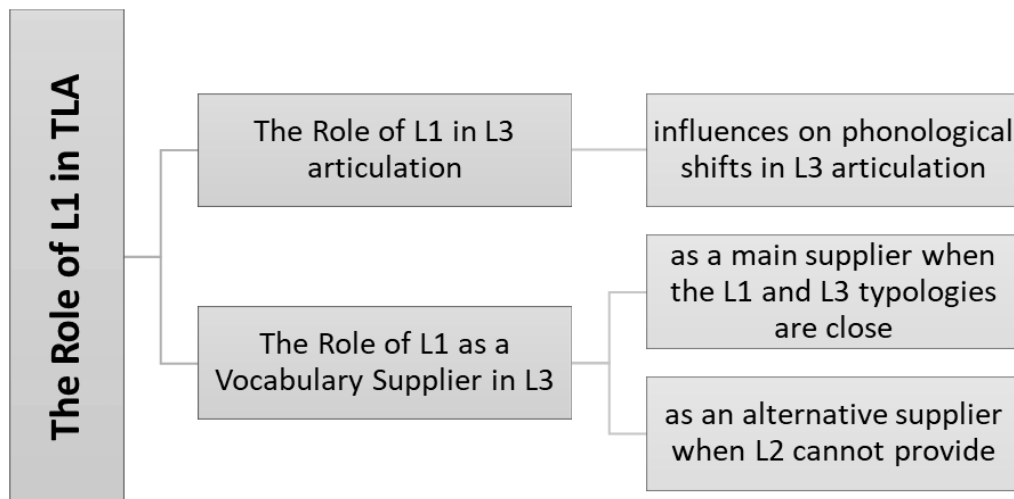
Result

The Roles of L1 in the Acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia as L3

The results showed that L1 influences L3 articulation as illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3

The Role of L1 on L3 Acquisition



The role of L1 in articulation can be observed in the phonological shift from L1 to L3. This is influenced by the close typology of L1 and L3. In addition, the typology also influences the role of L1 as the main supplier.

The Role of L1 in L3 Articulation

The results are presented based on the participants' L1, as the phonological characteristics of the two L1s in this study (Malay and Malagasy) are different.

Malay S-1's L1 brought about several phonological shifts. The phonological shifts showed the following changes: 1) changing vowels [a] to [ə]/[o]; 2) glottalisation of stop consonants ([t], [d], & [p] → [ʔ]); 3) assimilation ([s] → [h]); 4) deletion ([r] & [l] → ~~r~~), and 5) changing nasal features ([-un] → [-Uŋ]). The phonological shifts from the Malay L1 are described in Table 2.

Table 2*Phonological Shift from Bahasa Indonesia to Malay Sounds*

Sounds in Bahasa Indonesia	Position	Phonological Shift	Example
[a]	at the end of the words	→ [ə] / [o]	→ [sama] → [samo] [saya] → [sayə] [saɲat] → [saɲəʔ]
[t], [d], and [p]	stop consonants at the end of the words	→ [ʔ] (glottic)	→ [murid] → [muriʔ] [cukup] → [cukuʔ]
[s]	at the end of the words	→ [h]	→ [tullɔ] → [tullh] [gəlas] → [gəlah] [bəlaɲar] → [bəlaɲa]
[r] and [l]	at the end of the words	→ Deleted	→ [futsal] → [futso] [kebun] → [kebu]
[-un]	at the end of the words	→ [-Uŋ]	→ [kebun] → [kebuŋ] [tahun] → [tahuŋ]

From Table 2, it can be seen that phonological shifts occur in sounds at the end of the words due to the influence of Malay Pattani sounds. This shows that the speaker was strongly influenced by the L1 when pronouncing Bahasa Indonesia sounds. More specific examples can be seen in the following sentences.

- (1) *Saya jadi orang yang menjaga dan wakilan dari club itu.*

[saya] [jadi] [oran] [yan] [məɲjagə] [dan] [wakilan] [klUb] [itu].

- (2) *Sama saja.*

[Samo] [sajə].

In sentence (1), the word *menjaga* was pronounced [məɲjagə], not [məɲjaga]. In sentence (2), the lexical *samo* and *saja* were pronounced [samo] and [sajə] instead of [sama] and [saja]. It shows how Malay dialect still influences S-1 in terms of the sound shift [a] to [ə] and [o] at the end of the words.

S-1 pronounced the stop sounds [t], [d], and [p] at the end of the words to become [ʔ] in many words. This does not match the sound in Bahasa Indonesia, the target L3. The following sentences demonstrate the shift.

- (3) *Tidak ada teman dekat sangat.*

[tidaʔ] [ada] [təman] [dəkəʔ] [sanaʔ].

- (4) *Kalau orang yang tidak boros itu tidak cukup.*
[aman] [oran] [yan] [tida?] [boroh] [itu] [tida?] [cukU?].

The words *dekat* and *sangat* in sentence (3) were pronounced [dƏka?] and [saŋa?]. In sentence (4), it is *cukup* to pronounce [cukU?].

S-1 also changed the sound [s] at the end of several words to [h]. These words were pronounced by S-1 spontaneously, which could be why S-1 did not match the pronunciation in Bahasa Indonesia. It can be seen in the following sentences.

- (5) *Adik yang bosu tiga belas tahun, amanya Lukman.*
[Adi?] [yan] [bosu] [tiga] [bƏlah] [tahUŋ], [namaŋo] [Lukman].
- (6) *Itu tad untuk letak gelas.*
[itu] [tad] [untuk] [lƏta?] [gƏlah].

In sentence (5), S-1 uttered the lexical *belas*, which should be pronounced [bƏlas], not [bƏlah]. The sound [s] at the end of the sentence was changed to [h] in *gelas* 'glass' in sentences (6) into [gƏlah] instead [gƏlas]. It shows that S-1 was phonologically affected by L1, which typically uses the sound [h] for words ending with the sound [s]. However, in other words, S-1 did not change [s] to [h].

In pronouncing Bahasa Indonesia words, S-1 also removed the sounds [r] and [l] at the end of words. The omission corresponds to the phonological sounds in the L1. The omission of the sounds [r] and [l] at the end of the words is illustrated in the following examples.

- (7) *Saudaranya belajar.*
[Saudaraŋa] [bƏlaja].
- (8) *Bola, futsal, voli yang sering itu*
[bola], [futso], [voli] [yan] [sƏriŋ] [itu].

In sentence (7), the word *belajar* "learn" was pronounced [bƏlaja] by S-1 instead of [bƏlajar] in bahasa Indonesia. In sentence (8), the word *futsal* was pronounced [futso] by S-1. The word *futsal* is an example where the final sound [l] is omitted. the sound [l] is also omitted by S-1 in its pronunciation. It shows that S-1 is also affected by phonological shifts regarding the omission of [r] and [l] at the end of the pronunciation of Bahasa Indonesia words.

In pronouncing Bahasa Indonesia words, S-1 also pronounces [-un] at the final position as [-Uŋ]. This is shown in the following examples.

- (9) *Ibunya biasanya menjadi anak kebun sendiri.*
[ibuŋa] [biasaŋa] [menjadi] [ana?] [kebUŋ] [sƏndiri].

- (10) *Pendidikan itu lima tahun.*
[pəndidikan] [itu] [lima] [tahUŋ].

The word *tahun* “year” is pronounced [tahUŋ] instead of [tahun]. The same change also happened to the word *kebun* “garden”, pronounced by S-1 as [kəbUŋ] instead of [kebun]. The two terms were repeated in different sentences. This means that the change of pronunciation from [-un] to [-Uŋ] in the final position of the word was only found in the pronunciation of the words *tahun* and *kebun*.

From the data, it can be seen that S-1 was affected by the articulation of L1. The effect of this articulation can be seen in the changing of several sounds that follow the phonological shift in the Pattani dialect of Malay as its L1. Even though for certain words, S-1’s pronunciation followed Bahasa Indonesia, the pronunciation of most of the terms produced by S-1 showed the phonological shift of L1, thus it can be said that L1 plays a significant role in S-1’s articulation in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia as L3.

In Malagasy, there are no [ə], [c], [q], [w], and [x] sounds. The participants in this study revealed that S-2 and S-3 appeared not to be able to use the sound [ə] in the pronunciation of Bahasa Indonesia. This is consistent with the phonology of the Madagascar language, which does not recognise the vowel sound [ə] and tends change this sound to [e].

S-2 and S-3 pronounced the sound [ə] to [e] in some words containing the sound [ə], as shown in the following examples.

- (11) *Saya anak pertama.*
[saya] [ana?] [pertama].

- (12) *Bekerja di ambassador. Prancis atau Indonesia.*
[bekerja] [di] [ambassador] [Prancis] [atau] [Indonesia].

In some of the sentences above, it is shown that *pertama* “first” word in sentence (11) was pronounced [first], not [pərtama]. In sentence (12), *bekerja* “work” word was pronounced as [bekerja] instead of [bəkərja]. It can be seen that in all forms of words with the sound [ə], the sound [e] was used. It indicates the effect of L1 from S-2 and S-3, which does not recognise the sound [ə].

From these data, S-2 and S-3 were affected by the absence of the sound [ə], which was converted into [e]. The sound changes were verbalised by S-2 and S-3 spontaneously as S-2 and S-3 did not focus on the pronounced sounds but on the choice of vocabulary to convey the meaning. S-2 and S-3 pronounced the sound [ə] to [e] in every word form. It shows that the role of the Malagasy appears in the S-2 and S-3 articulations, at least in this particular sound.

The Role of L1 as a Vocabulary Supplier in L3 Acquisition

Malay as L1 of S-1 has a very close typology with Bahasa Indonesia, so S-1 used Malay to switch vocabulary in Bahasa Indonesia without having to understand the words in Bahasa Indonesia. It can be seen in many exact Malay and Bahasa Indonesia words. The closeness of the language can be seen in the use of pronominal words, affix forms (*me-*, *ber-*, *ter-*, *-i*, *-kan*), aspect words (*sedang*, *akan*, *telah*, *harus*), and root words.

If S-1 does not know the word in Bahasa Indonesia, S-1 tends to match it into Malay, as shown in the following examples.

(13) *Saya selalu mengaji bahasa Indonesia.*

(14) *Di Thailand Selatan itu ada tembak dan kabom juga.*

S-1 used Malay as the main provider to substitute for Bahasa Indonesia words. In sentence (13), S-1 already understood the word *belajar* “learn” in Bahasa Indonesia because in Malay, the same word exists. Nonetheless, when S-1 was about to say the word “learn” in Bahasa Indonesia, he probably forgot this, so he chose *mengaji* “recitation”, which in Malay can replace the phrase *belajar*. However, the context of using *mengaji* and *belajar* differs in Bahasa Indonesia.

In sentence (14), the word *kabom* was used by S-1 to match the phrase *bom* “bomb” in Bahasa Indonesia. The word *bom* was previously unknown to S-1 in Bahasa Indonesia, so S-1 transferred it from Malay to become *kabom*, which is closely related in form. This shows that S-1 relied on L1 as the main provider or the first alternative to speak words that are not mastered.

In contrast, S-1 who had Malay as L1, S-2 and S-3 used their Malagasy L1 as an alternative supplier for words. S-2 and S-3 tended to use Malagasy because they could not find the equivalent words in Bahasa Indonesia, English, or French.

(15) *Nenek mampatory cucunya.*

(16) *Anak-anak bermain akiafina.*

In sentence (15), S-2 used the word *mampatory* to express *tidur*, most probably due to the participant’s lack of knowledge (or recall) of what *sleep* is in Bahasa Indonesia, French, or English. As a final alternative, the word *mampatory* (from Malagasy) was used by S-2. Meanwhile, in sentence (16), *akiafina* – meaning *hide* – plays the same role.

The findings suggested that L1 plays a role in the acquisition of L3 in terms of articulation and as a provider. The role of L1 in articulation is shown in the phonological shift and its phonological structure. If L1 is close to L3 and a phonological shift occurs, the phonological shift in L3 articulation will be affected. If in L1 there is no known sound as the one in L3, the articulation in L3 tends to avoid the absent sound or be replaced with another sound.

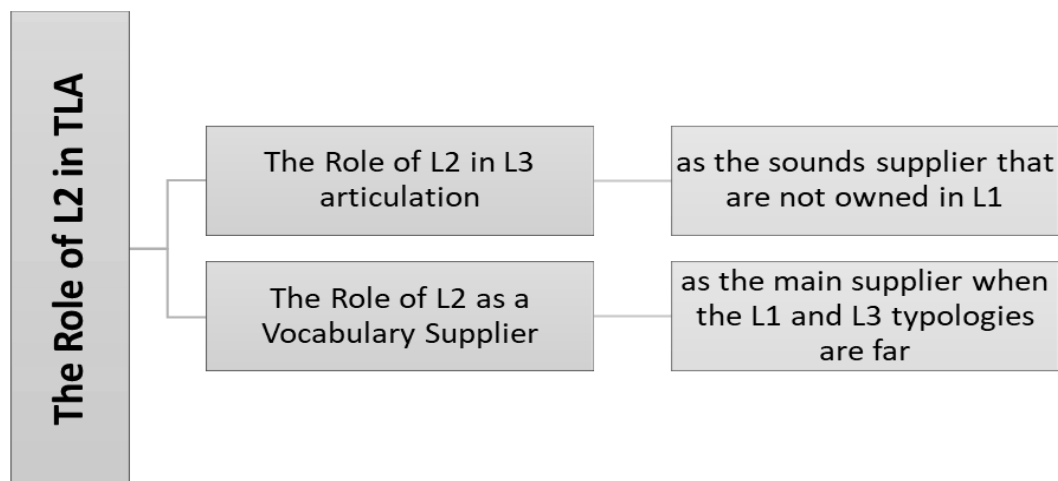
The role of L1 as a word provider is indicated in the typologies of the L1 and L2. If L1 and L3 are close, L1 tends to be TLA's main vocabulary supplier. The main vocabulary supplier is intended as the language used to understand words/phrases/other elements in the L3. If the typology of L1 and L3 is far or considered far by the L3 acquirer, L1 tends to be used as the last provider of vocabulary in TLA.

The Role of L2 in the Acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia as L3

The results of this study showed that L2 also plays the role as sound and vocabulary supplier, as illustrated in Figure 4.

Figure 4

The Role of L2 in Third Language Acquisition



The Role of L2 on Articulation in L3 Acquisition

The results showed that L2 is a sound enhancer for sounds that are available in L1. This can serve to support L3 pronunciation abilities. The L2 in this study were French and English from S-2 and S-3 respectively.

S-2 and S-3's L1 do not contain the sounds [ə], [c], [x], [q], and [w], while their L2 contains [ə], [c], [x], [q], and [w]. Because the sounds [ə], [c], [x], [q], and [w] are available in their L2 (French), this language can assist with the mastery of sounds that are not present in L1 for the learners to pronounce words in L3 (Bahasa Indonesia). This is illustrated in (17).

- (17) *Kesulitan saya bahasa Indonesia di kata-kata sedikit and vocabulary.*
 [kəsulitan] [saya] [bahasa] [Indonesia] [di] [vokabulari].

In (17), S-2 pronounced the word *kesulitan* and the word *vocabulary* with the pronunciation of [kəsulitan] and [vokabulari], which indicates that S-2 already recognised the sounds [ə] and [c]. Words in Bahasa Indonesia containing [ə], [c], [x], [q], and [w] were also pronounced correctly by S-2 and S-3, as shown in (18) and (19).

(18) *Saya mencoba makan honey.*
[saya] [mencoba] [makan] [hanie].

(19) *Ibu saya membeli plat berwarna putih.*
[ibu] [saya] [məmbəli] [plat] [berwarna] [putih].

In (18), S-3 spoke the word *mencoba* with the pronunciation [mencoba], which means that S-3 already recognised the sound [c] in the articulation of Bahasa Indonesia. This is possibly because of the additional mastery of sounds from the speakers' L2, French and English. The words *membeli* and *berwarna* were pronounced [məmbəli] and [berwarna] by S-2, which showed that S-2 was familiar with the use of the sounds [ə] and [w], but sometimes still used the sound [e] in *berwarna*, in (19). This suggests that in the mastery of consonant sounds, S-2 and S-3 already knew the sounds [ə], [c], [q], [x], and [w] through their unknown L2 in their L1.

The Role of L2 as a Vocabulary Supplier in L3 Acquisition

The role of L2 as a vocabulary provider is analysed based on three different L2s available in this study. First, the role of English (L2₂) as a vocabulary provider. Second, the role of French (L2₁) of S-2 and S-3 as a vocabulary provider, and third, the role of Thai (L2₁) from S-1 as a vocabulary provider.

English as L2₂ played the role of a vocabulary supplier when participants did not know the terms in Bahasa Indonesia. The following examples illustrate the use of English words as replacements:

(20) *Kalau dosen mau marah pada saya itu saya harus care.*

(21) *Nanti announcement lewat online.*

In sentence (20), S-1 used the word *care* to express the word *peduli*. The provision of the word *care* for the *peduli* in S-1's mind suggested that English was used to supply vocabulary when using L3. S-1 used the word *announcement* in sentence (21) to replace the word *pengumuman*. The word *announcement* was chosen by S-1 because he did not know or recall the word *pengumuman* in Bahasa Indonesia and Malay.

French as the L2₁ of S-2 and S-3 serves as a second vocabulary provider for S-2 and S-3 after English. The findings showed that when the two participants did not

manage to find English words, they resorted to French. Examples (22) and (23) illustrated this choice:

(22) *Anaknya menyusu dengan biberon.*

(23) *Kamar tidur saya ada tv dan nunurs.*

In sentence (22), S-2 and S-3 used the word *biberon* in French to replace the phrase *botol bayi* “baby bottle” in Bahasa Indonesia. In sentence (23), the term *nunurs* are used to replace the word *boneka* “doll”.

For S-1, Thai appeared to serve as the last resort vocabulary supplier. Thai, as S-1’s L2₁ was utilised when S-1 could not find the required word in Bahasa Indonesia, Malay, or English.

(24) *Taliseb itu bagus.*

The word *taliseb* is used by S-1 to replace the phrase *danau* in Bahasa Indonesia in sentence (24). The term *taliseb* was most probably used because S-1 have not mastered the word *danau* “lake” in Bahasa Indonesia, Malay, or English.

The roles that L2 plays in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia varied depending on the language background of the L3 learners. In general, the roles can be perceived in two parts: One, to assist in mastering the sounds of the L3, especially if the learner’s L1 does not contain the same phonemes, and two, as an additional vocabulary supplier.

Discussion

The Role of L1 and L2 in the Articulation of L3

From the results, it can be seen that L1 influences articulation, indicated by a phonological shifting in the L3 articulation to L1. This happens when the L1 typology is close to the L3 typology, such as the case with Malay (L1) and Bahasa Indonesia (L3) in the current study. If the L1 and L3 typologies are far, such as Malagasy and Bahasa Indonesia, the phonological shift of L3 to L1 articulation occurs in sounds that do not belong to L1, as shown in examples (11) and (12). The pronunciation of [ə] is pronounced as [e] because there is no [ə] sound in the speaker’s L1, that is, Malagasy.

In the case of Pattani Malay as L1, the phonological shifts (listed in Table 2) that occurred included changing vowels, glottalisation of stop consonants, assimilation, deletion, and changing nasal features. It follows Chapakiya (2020), who stated that the phonological changes in Pattani Malay include assimilation, nasalisation, deletion, glottalisation, and changing vowels. The main factor of this phonological shift is the Pattani Malay typology (L1), which is close to the Bahasa Indonesia typology (L3). These results support Hammarberg (2001), who stated that L1 has a long-term influence on

L3's articulation, influenced by typology, L2 status as a source language, proficiency, and recency factors.

If L1's typology is dissimilar with L3, L2 status can dominate L3 articulation. In Malagasy, there is no [ə], [c], [x], [q], and [w] phones, but in French and English as L2₁ and L2₂, the phones exist. Hence, French and English became the suppliers for the vocal mastery for S-2 and S-3's L3. This finding is in line with the research results by Llama et al. (2010) who stated that L2 status and recency have dominant influence on L3 articulation. Typology, however, is more dominant than L2 status and recency. It can be seen in the case of L1 Melayu Pattani, where typology has an important influence on the L3 articulation of S-3. Because S-2 and S-3 do not have a language background whose typology is close to L3, L2 status and recency become essential factors in L3 articulation.

In terms of articulation, L2 plays a role as the sound supplier when L1 does not have the specific required sounds. In this study, the participant whose L1 was Malagasy and L2 were English and French, the sounds that do not exist in Malagasy, namely, [ə], [c], [x], [q], and [w], were supplied with sounds from English and French. Fernandes and Brito (2007) suggested that L2 plays a role in constructing new words for L3 acquisition and helps learners deal with new L3 articulation. According to Wrembel (2010), sporadic phonological transfers of L2 occur in the acquisition of L3, showing that L2 is used to provide sounds that L1 does not have for L3 articulation.

As a summary, the role of L1 and L2 in L3 articulation can be viewed from two parts: the influence of phonological shifts in L3 articulation and the supply of sounds that L1 does not have for L3 articulation. The phonological shift occurs in L3 learners whose L1 typology is adjacent to the L3 typology. In other words, L1's sounds are similar to L3, therefore L1 influences L3's articulation. On the other hand, L2 will play a role as a sound supplier when the L1 does not contain the required sounds. This occurs when the L1 typology is far from the L3 typology.

The Role of L1 and L2 as Vocabulary Suppliers in Bahasa Indonesia Acquisition as L3

From the results, the role of L1 and L2 in vocabulary supplier can be seen from the lexical transfers performed by the participants. Participants made lexical transfers from L1 when the typology is adjacent to L3. When the typology of L1 is far from L3 but the typology of L2 is closer, the participants used L2 instead.

When the participants did not know Bahasa Indonesia, English, which was their L2₂, provided the vocabulary supply. This showed that Bahasa Indonesia was understood by using English as a vocabulary supplement. When S-2 and S-3 faced difficulties in using Bahasa Indonesia, following English, the participants resorted to French as L2₁ to function as a vocabulary source. This transfer to French occurred when participants were unable to find English replacements or believed that the English words that they know will not effectively replace the Bahasa Indonesia expression, and Malagasy served as the final source of vocabulary when French could not fulfil this role. For S-1, when a

word cannot be registered in Bahasa Indonesia, Malay, or English, Thai (L2₁) was utilised as the last source of vocabulary.

From the results, an L1 with a similar typology to L3 appeared to influence vocabulary mastery in L3, such as Pattani Malay (L1) - Bahasa Indonesia (L3). The close typology between L1 and L3 turned L1 into the source language in mastering L3 vocabulary. It is in line with the concept of a third language acquisition analysis which does not only look at the relationship between L2 → L3, but also L1 → L3 (Alonso et al., 2020; Cenoz, 2001). In addition, this finding also supports Falk and Lindqvist (2019), who found that English (L2) in Swedish language acquisition (L3) did not act as the main provider but German (L1) did. When the L1 typology is close to the L2 typology, L1 will dominate L3 acquisition regarding articulation and vocabulary. Jin (2009) stated that L1 could be the source language in TLA. It can be seen in the results of the current research in the case of the Pattani Malay L1.

That said, L2 plays the role as a vocabulary supplier when the L1 typology is far from the L3 (Hammarberg, 2001). It suggests that when learners feel that the L1 typology does not play a role in L3 acquisition, L2 then becomes the dominant supplier in vocabulary mastery. It is influenced by L2 status and working memory in L3 students. They use L2 as the main provider because of several factors, namely, typology and working memory (Cenoz, 2001; Shekari & Schwieter, 2019). L2 status assists in mastering L3, both in articulation and vocabulary.

L2 is also more dominant in L3 learners' working memory because the mastery is more recent than L1. It can be seen in the dominance of English as a vocabulary supplier in acquiring Bahasa Indonesia as L3. Following Tay and Cheung (2019), English as L2 in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia became the dominant language as a source language because the learners of Bahasa Indonesia in this study had studied English and were frequently exposed to the English language.

Conclusion

From this study, it can be concluded that in the acquisition of Bahasa Indonesia as L3, the roles of L1 and L2 are in articulation, and they function as a vocabulary supplier. In articulation, L1 influences the L1 phonological shift in L3, when the L1 typology is close to the L3 typology. In addition, L2 plays a role as an enhancer of L3 sound mastery for sounds that do not exist in the L1, when the L1 typology is dissimilar to L3.

As a vocabulary supplier, the results suggested that L1 that has a close typology to L3 plays a dominant role. However, L2 acts as the main supplier in the acquisition of L3 when L1 is typologically far from L3. Typology becomes the dominant factor in UNCLEAR MEANING, PLEASE REWRITE L3 acquisition. In addition, other factors, such as L2 status, working memory, and memory, influence the role of L1 and L2 but are less dominant than typologies. This study is limited to participants who have limited language background. Further research needs to be conducted on participants who

have more complex language background to obtain more findings pertaining to L3 acquisition.

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Ethical Approval Statement

This study was carried out according to the guidelines and has been approved by Pascasarjana Unesa (Approval ID: B/64347/UN38.8/PP.10.00/2022), approval date: 14 Oktober 2022.

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USING TEACHER-MADE AUTHENTIC MATERIALS FOR EFL VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' CAREER-RELATED VOCABULARY LEARNING

Eunjeong PARK

Sunchon National University, South Korea

parkej@scnu.ac.kr

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ABSTRACT

Although using authentic materials has advantages and disadvantages, it is evident that they bring many benefits to EFL learners, especially in terms of developing communication skills and cultural understanding. Moreover, they offer an opportunity to learn how English is used in real-life situations. This study adopts accidental ethnography as the research methodology. It illustrates, through content and language integrated learning (CLIL), how authentic materials are effective and useful to EFL learners in a specialised vocational high school. The findings indicated that the participants genuinely learned English and acquired career-related vocabulary that would be beneficial to their prospects, hence lending credence to the potential of authentic materials.

Keywords: authentic materials; content and language integrated learning; EFL; accidental ethnography

Introduction

Textbooks are essential in achieving educational goals. Good English materials can help students learn English more efficiently, providing adequate language and content with consideration of student needs and proficiency levels. In the current digital era, a strong command of language is required, and textbooks should work based on individual, societal, and global needs. In this regard, it is argued that the use of authentic materials is effective in helping learners use the target language in real life, increasing their motivation to learn it, and making language instruction meaningful (Hwang, 2005; Kodirova, 2021; Mishan, 2005; Widdowson, 2003).

Learning English with appropriate materials can meet learners' needs, including the development of communication skills and future career prospects. Preparing students for real-life environments and situations is of utmost concern. Often, Korean EFL vocational schools may not provide practical textbooks or satisfy the needs of vocational students. Furthermore, vocational students seem to not pay attention to learning aligned with the national or school curriculum. To make English instruction meaningful and effective, English language teachers can develop and present materials that meet students' needs related to their career.

Hence, incorporating authentic materials in English education enables teachers to use practical, culturally relevant resources such as newspaper articles, websites, advertisements, and songs in language instruction. This helps students develop language skills that are applicable to their everyday life, academic pursuits, and future careers. Moreover, authentic materials expose students to diverse cultures and perspectives, promoting cultural awareness and global competency, resulting in more engaging and meaningful language learning experiences. Bacon and Finnemann (1990) emphasised that teachers should explore ways to incorporate authentic materials into language instruction.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to utilise authentic materials for vocational high school students to learn career-related content and language, preparing them for the workplace after graduation. Additionally, this study investigates the perceptions of vocational high school students and their teacher regarding the use of authentic materials in content and language integrated learning (CLIL). The research questions are as follows:

- 1) What type of authentic materials were employed?
- 2) How did vocational high school students and the teacher perceive English language instruction with the use of authentic materials?
- 3) What were the suggestions recommended by the students and the teacher?

Literature Review

The Use of Authentic Materials

Authentic materials are defined as materials designed for real language use within its community (Kilickaya, 2004). Jacobson et al. (2003) regard authentic materials as printed materials used in the classroom context in the same way they would be used in real life. Authentic materials are described as materials that represent real-life contexts and situations with actual language use (Herod, 2002; Wulandari & Waloyo, 2018). Thus, students are likely to be exposed to authentic contexts through authentic materials including texts, photographs, video selections, and realia, which are used in teaching but not specially prepared for pedagogical purposes (Richards, 2001). Several studies have revealed the benefits of using authentic materials. Authentic materials have a positive impact on learner motivation (Lang & Jiang, 2008). Learners can have meaningful experiences with authentic materials because they feel that they are using the target language (Kilickaya, 2004). Oguz and Bahar's (2008) study showed that authentic materials meet students' needs and

expectations. Nunan (1999) believes that exposure to authentic materials is crucial due to its rich language input. This can help learners cope with communication and interactions in real life. Richards (2001) argued for the use of authentic materials in language learning with five reasons:

- 1) preparing the language learner for real life;
- 2) providing the necessary information to the language learner;
- 3) motivation arises in the language learner;
- 4) encouraging teachers to use effective teaching methods; and
- 5) authentic information helps to teach culture as well.

Richards (2001) further stated that authentic materials are closely related to learner needs by providing genuine cultural information about the target culture. They also encourage language teachers to create innovative approaches to teaching. Generating and using authentic materials may be of concern because authentic materials often contain difficult language and can be a burden for teachers (Richards, 2001).

Selecting the proper instructional materials is challenging but critical for both teachers and students. To ensure authentic materials support learning, it is important to make sure they are at the appropriate level for learners and that their use does not frustrate them. Authentic materials can be a practical tool for vocational high school students. Authentic materials can help make learning processes enjoyable and stimulating (Al Azri & Al-Rashdi, 2014; Kilickaya, 2004; Oguz & Bahar, 2008; Richards, 2001; Wulandari & Waloyo, 2018). This study, inspired by Jacobson et al.'s (2003) definition of authentic materials, explored the types of authentic materials that were developed and utilised for vocational high school students as well as the students and teacher's perceptions and responses.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in ELT

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a combined language teaching approach focusing on students' language learning in the context of subject-matter teaching (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). CLIL encompasses activities in which "a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role" (Marsh, 2002, p. 58). Both language and content, having mutually beneficial roles, are conceptualised on a continuum in CLIL (Gibbons, 2002; Marsh, 2002; Stoddart et al., 2002). CLIL can be described as a dual-focused instructional approach where a certain curriculum is taught through the medium of a foreign language (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). CLIL helps learners increase vocabulary learning skills and grammatical awareness, raise linguistic competence and confidence, motivate learner independence, develop risk-taking and problem-solving skills, and encourage positive attitudes and cultural awareness (Coyle, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2007). It also offers the authenticity of purposeful instruction, realigning language, content, and cognitive development (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). CLIL fosters flexibility and cognitive development through constructivist approaches, acknowledging a language as a fundamental tool

in language learning (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Lyster 2007). CLIL can also lead to a greater intercultural understanding and prepares learners better for internationalisation (Coyle et al., 2009). In essence, CLIL can be regarded as a dynamic unit providing language instruction that goes beyond language and subject teaching and learning (Coyle et al., 2010).

CLIL involves two main pedagogical principles: (1) making content comprehensible with understandable language input and (2) encouraging learners to use the target language productively (Escobar Urmeneta, 2019). CLIL often links its political and cultural frame of reference to the program's actual features (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). English is the dominant language in CLIL, reflecting the belief that English proficiency is a key global literacy skill. Classroom content usually covers academic subjects or disciplines (e.g., biology, engineering, geography, math, music, etc.), while the target language remains a subject in the form of foreign language instruction taught by language teachers (Wolff, 2007). Any subject can fit into CLIL instruction. CLIL is characterised by its dynamism, flexibility, and versatility (Papaja, 2014). Meyer et al. (2015) argue that CLIL not only enables learners to acquire knowledge but also to take ownership of it.

Authentic materials play a crucial role in CLIL for several compelling reasons. CLIL is an educational approach that integrates the teaching of content from various subjects with language learning. In CLIL, authentic materials provide learners with real-world content, such as newspapers and multimedia, which relate directly to the subject matter being taught (Coyle, 2007). This contextual relevance makes the content more engaging and meaningful to students. Furthermore, authentic materials expose learners to genuine language use including language registers, accents, and dialects in specific contexts, helping them develop both their language skills and subject knowledge simultaneously (Harrop, 2012).

However, there are some pitfalls in CLIL that language teachers should be aware of. Escobar Urmeneta (2019) identified several. First, CLIL may not always produce the expected results in terms of language or content gains. Second, academic standards in the content area may need to be lowered due to learners' poor command of the target foreign language. Third, teachers, institutions, or even students themselves may assume that students must possess above-average intellectual abilities, prior knowledge of the subject matter, and high levels of communicative competence to meet the communicative and cognitive demands of a CLIL class (Escobar Urmeneta, 2019). Despite the challenges, teachers can help EFL learners develop their academic, cognitive, and linguistic skills with patience. Learners need time to improve and see progress in their daily academic performance (Nunez Asomoza, 2015).

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed accidental ethnography to investigate the effective use of authentic materials for EFL learners in a vocational high school. Accidental ethnography refers to a systematic analysis of prior fieldwork, which examines past

experiences in academic discourse and uses existing data “accidentally” collected to offer insight into phenomena, culture, and/or lifestyles (Levitan et al., 2017). Accidental ethnography is “a reflexive, reflective, and praxical method of inquiry” (p. 2) in which the researcher explores and gathers data from daily routines in the workplace or research context to reveal significant findings and offer insights into educational practice (Levitan et al., 2017). The accidental ethnography method provides a way to explore the researcher’s prior learning or teaching experiences and reflections (Levitan et al., 2017). Accidental ethnography involves unplanned moments that occur outside structured methods, such as interviews or surveys (Fujii, 2015). The researcher may overlook ordinary scenes that appear to become surprising or momentous data.

There are six practices in the process of accidental ethnography: (1) initiation, (2) reflection, (3) re-examination, (4) data collection, (5) coding, and (6) recursive consultations. Merriam (2014) maintains that accidental ethnography ensures quality and trustworthiness through the systematic research process with these six practices. The first practice of initiation generates a connection between research and the researcher’s previous experiences in the field. Reflection as the second practice is relevant to reflexivity, which induces an in-depth reflection of the researcher’s experiences based on power, positionality, and learning moments (Merriam et al., 2001). The third practice of re-examination is based on re-evaluating literature to find a gap that can improve theory and/or practice connected to theory testing or theory building. The fourth practice is data collection. It is essential to include extant data. Newly found data may also be added as part of the same research. The fifth practice of coding involves the use of emergent coding grounded on emic understandings of the context. The last practice is recursive consultation. This suggests that it is critical to co-create meaning through a regular circuit of research and reflection to practice so that the findings can be conveyed directly into action (Levitan et al., 2017). These practices can make accidental ethnography more rigorous and enlightening to the field.

Context and Participants

This study was conducted in a specialised vocational high school located in an urban area of Korea. The population of this school consists of a homogeneous group of Korean male students. The school has five different departments: Electrics, Electronics, Food Processing, Machine, and Manufacturing. Each department has two classes, with approximately 40 students in each class, totalling 400 tenth graders. This study focused on English language instruction in two departments: Food Processing and Manufacturing. The students in these departments were the primary participants in the study. Their English proficiency level was intermediate-low. While innovative career-related instruction with authentic materials was implemented with all students in all departments, most of the data was extracted from the two departments mentioned. The study took place in one semester, which comprised 17 weeks. During the lessons, English was taught twice a week.

The Description of Teacher-Made Authentic Materials

The participants at the vocational high school were learning Business English with the aim of pursuing careers after graduation. Thus, it was practical to focus on teaching practical expressions and vocabulary related to communication and business. Taking this purpose into account, I developed authentic materials specifically for students majoring in Food Processing and Manufacturing. Given that the students had a low-intermediate level of English proficiency, learning English vocabulary would benefit them. Samples of the authentic materials are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Authentic Materials Focusing on Career-Related Terms

Food Processing

Look at the words below and match the English words with the appropriate meanings in Korean.

Picture	Word in Korean	Word in English
	1. 삶기	
	2. 데치기	
	3. (끓는물 아래에서 물에) 끓여기	
	4. 볶기	
	5. 튀기기	
	6. 튀기	
	7. 찌김구이	
	8. 삶김구이	
	9. 찜을 가하여 굵게 삶는 조리 방법	Gratin
	10. 오븐 구이	
	11. 리프	
	12. 존데	

Baking
Frying
Steaming

Blanching
Grilling
Smoking

Boiling
Poaching
Steaming

Broiling
Roasting
Steaming

Automatic Installation System

Look at the words below and match the English words with the appropriate meanings in Korean.

Picture	Word in Korean	Word in English
	1. 전자용접	
	2. 가스용접	
	3. 배선	
	4. 자동제어	
	5. 공장자동화	
	6. 컨트롤러	
	7. 자동제어	automation
	8. 자동화	
	9. 자동화	
	10. 자동화	

gas welding
pipe work
factory automation
industrial installation

electrical welding
circuitry
automatic control
freedom installation


After completing basic English lessons, I implemented more advanced instruction using authentic materials, as shown in Figure 2. The first material was developed for Food Processing students, whose main interests were cooking and baking. I had the students create their own recipe for an assigned food item using the vocabulary they had learned in the previous lesson. The second material was designed for Manufacturing students, who were familiar with gadget-related terms. Through the activity, I encouraged them to consider the function and use of the given gadgets and to write the appropriate expressions or words on the worksheet.

Figure 2

Authentic Materials Focusing on the Individual Department

How do we cook... ?

Date : May 14, 2012
Name: _____



How do we cook _____ ?

First, _____
Second, _____
Third, _____
Fourth, _____
Fifth, _____
Sixth, _____
Seventh, _____
Eighth, _____





Taste	_____
Color	_____
Art	_____
Creative Recipe	_____

Project for Manufacturing Department

Class : _____ Group members : _____

Be prepared for your project showing page 131 with your group members

A well-known scientist Dr. John has been kidnapped by a monster in a rough area. Let's come up with a plan to rescue the scientist. The following gadgets are ready to rescue the scientist.

1. You can bring only two of the gadgets above. You may add one more function of each gadget.

(1) What two gadgets did you choose ?

(2) Which function do you want to add to each gadget ?

Gadget	Function
_____	_____
_____	_____

3. You have to make one more gadget which is needed in order to save Dr. John.

(1) What gadget do you want to make ?

(2) How are you going to use the gadget ?

Data Collection and Analysis

The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Institutional Review Board (or Ethics Committee) of the Ohio State University (Protocol Code: 2016B0642 (approval date: 12 Dec 2017)).

Several data sources were collected to report on pedagogical experiences, practices, and significant contributions to the field of education. These sources included semi-structured interviews with participants, teacher reflection logs, and artifacts such as lesson plans, pictures, and teacher-made materials. Four participants were interviewed, with each interview lasting approximately 20 to 30 minutes. The interview questions focused on the participants' learning experiences and perceptions of the authentic materials used in class. For example, one of the interview questions asked about their overall perception of the instruction with authentic materials and whether the use of the materials was helpful for their language learning. The interviews were transcribed verbatim in Korean, and then translated into English. Teacher reflection logs were written after each instruction, noting down reflections on whether each class had accomplished its learning goals.

Document analysis was used to analyse interview transcripts and other relevant data. Document analysis is a type of qualitative research that involves interpreting and analysing documents to discover the meaning of certain subjects. According to Bowen (2009), document analysis is "a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents" (p. 27). This ensures that the researcher is not affected by changes to the data or external influences during the research process (Bowen, 2009).

Results and Discussion

Authentic Materials Used in the English Language Instruction in CLIL

The first research question asked about the type of teacher-made authentic materials. Implementing content and language integrated instruction (CLIL) was appropriate for the language instruction in this study. Two types of authentic materials were developed and utilised using English instruction: One about the students' careers and the other about daily life. Food Processing students were especially interested in the lessons related to food. I had them brainstorm their favourite recipes that they could introduce and make, and they paid attention to the instruction with interest and excitement. Samples of their work are shown in Figure 3. Manufacturing students were also given English instruction along with teacher-made authentic materials. They seemed to have difficulties filling out the worksheet by matching the pictures with relevant terms in English but gave full cooperation in completing the task. Samples of their work are shown in Figure 4.

Figure 3

Authentic Materials: Recipes from Food Processing Students

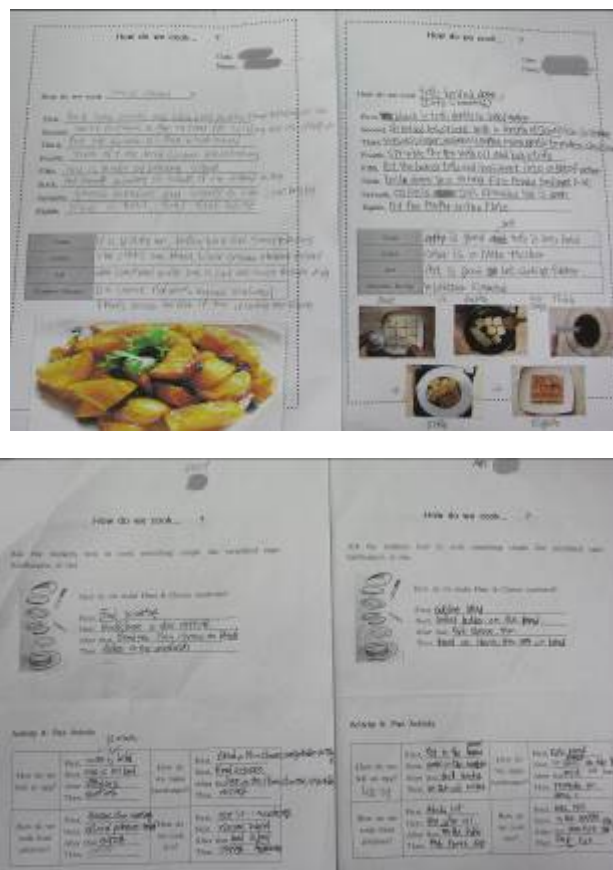
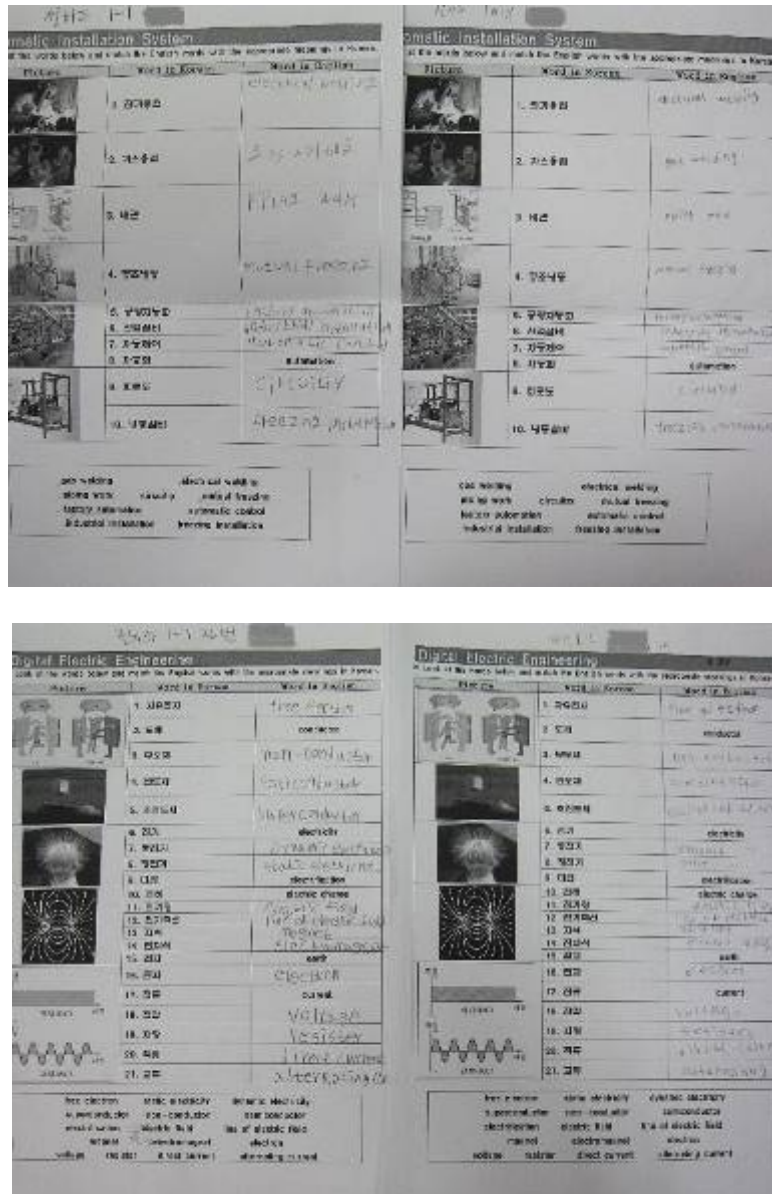


Figure 4

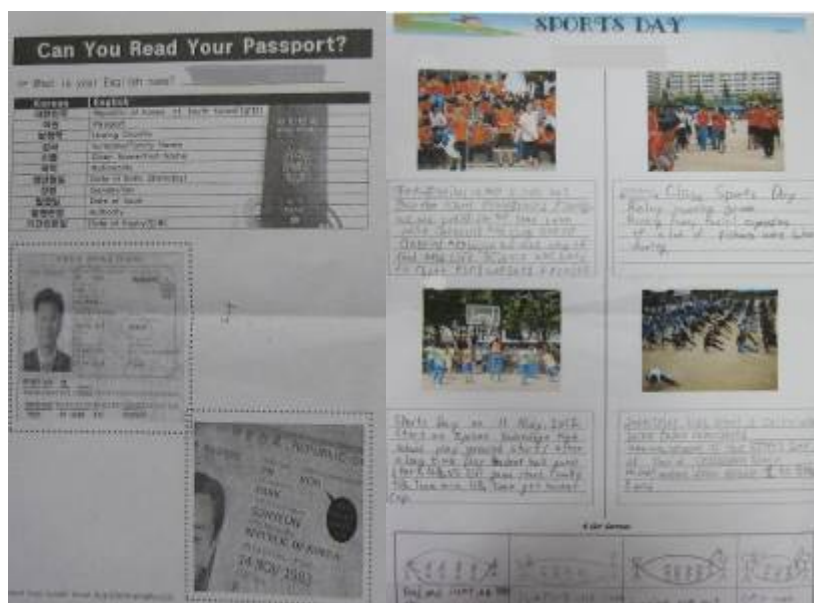
Authentic Materials: Technical Terms from Manufacturing & Electrics Students



The second type of authentic materials was related to the students' daily lives. With international borders consistently opening post-pandemic, it has become common to visit other countries for sightseeing or business. It would be useful to know what components are included in a passport. To introduce this topic, I used my own passport and developed a lesson about familiarising oneself to a passport. The students seemed delighted with the passport activity because many of them actually wanted to go abroad.

Another authentic material used was pictures of Sports Day. I utilised pictures of the students' activities on Sports Day and had them describe what happened in the given pictures. Both the passport and Sports Day materials are shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5
Authentic Materials: Passport and Sports Day



Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010) asserted that authentic materials should lead learners to actually produce and use language, emphasising authenticity. Authentic materials are one of the necessary conditions in CLIL. The materials suggested in this study, as shown in Figures 3 through 5, illustrate how authenticity can be achieved in the classroom context.

Vocational High School Students' Perceptions of Using Authentic Materials

The second research question is to find out vocational high school students' perceptions of using authentic materials. Most students mentioned that the instruction was positive, and the materials were intriguing. Several students shared their opinions as follows:

I enjoyed the English class. The content was useful and relevant to my career. Even I didn't know some cooking terms before and learned them from this class. In the future when I become a baker, these words may be used. So, I liked the class. (S1, interview translated)

In fact, I don't like English at all. I have some negative feelings on English. But, when the English teacher taught us cooking terms, I was interested. The

words were about cooking or baking, which I didn't learn before. I may forget the terms, but this class was better than other general English classes. (S2, interview translated)

Food Processing students mentioned that learning cooking-related terms and expressions were useful, and they completed the given task enthusiastically, as illustrated in Figure 6. The Food Processing students especially liked the instruction about designing their own favourite ice cream:

Among the lessons, I particularly favoured the ice cream design one. I like ice cream and it was an interesting experience to think about differently shaped ice cream with various flavours. I want to become a baker, so I may open a bakery and make ice cream someday. (S3, interview translated)

It would be a rewarding moment for teachers if students discussed their career related to the well-designed instruction. I perceived S3's comment as a compliment. It shows the potential outcome from using authentic materials for EFL students' language development and progress as well as their potential career.

Figure 6
Authentic Materials: Designing Favourite Ice Creams



Despite the positive feedback on the use of authentic materials, some other students had different opinions and mixed feelings. For example, several Manufacturing students, in fact, did not pay attention to the instruction because English itself was challenging and daunting to them. One student from Manufacturing commented:

To me, English itself is too difficult. I'm going to get a job related to manufacturing or installation. So, I don't know why I should study English. I haven't learned English properly from the beginning. Even if the materials

are relevant to my future job, I still have a lot of difficulty in focusing on the English subject. (S5, interview translated)

I found S5's comment critical to develop English instruction for EFL vocational high school students. Some students choose to attend a vocational school because they want to pursue specialised career, while others have no academic interest. EFL teachers need to be able to understand the reason for this divergence. Although teachers strive to make their instruction fulfilling, they should also realise that discrepancies that occur in the real classroom context would influence students' perceptions and interest.

The role of authentic materials has been emphasised in language teaching in two ways: linguistic and non-linguistic merits. Firstly, authentic materials help EFL learners develop their language skills (Harmer, 1994; Richards, 2001). Richards (2001) maintained that learners can be exposed to real language use and contexts connected to learners' academic needs. Furthermore, authentic materials boost intrinsic motivation (Berardo, 2006; Gilmore, 2007; Kilickaya, 2004) and cultural awareness (Sherman, 2003). Authentic materials can affect language learning positively by scaffolding learners with sufficient exposure (Guariento & Morley, 2001). For these reasons, EFL teachers should have a clear pedagogic and instructional goal and implement innovative instruction with authentic materials in the classroom.

Suggestions by Vocational High School Students and the Teacher

The last research objective is to obtain suggestions concerning the use of authentic materials in EFL teaching and learning from vocational high school students and the English teacher. The participants' responses were helpful in answering Research Question 3. Several students were inquired to about their recommendations for the improvement and development of authentic materials:

I hope we can learn more career-related words or expressions. If I become a baker or chef, I may meet foreign customers and may have to communicate with them. In this regard, I would like to learn more about cooking-related words and expressions. (S3, interview translated)

Writing sentences is very hard. I wish there was no sentence writing because I cannot make any English sentences. But, knowing and learning cooking-related words was a good part. I think it would be beneficial for us to learn about cooking-related words. Also, if there's a chance, I also want to learn about the expressions that may occur in a bakery shop or a restaurant. (S4, interview translated)

These comments were all connected to the students' career and jobs. Compared to general English instruction, the specialised English lessons with authentic materials appeared to work well. It can be said that the curriculum for

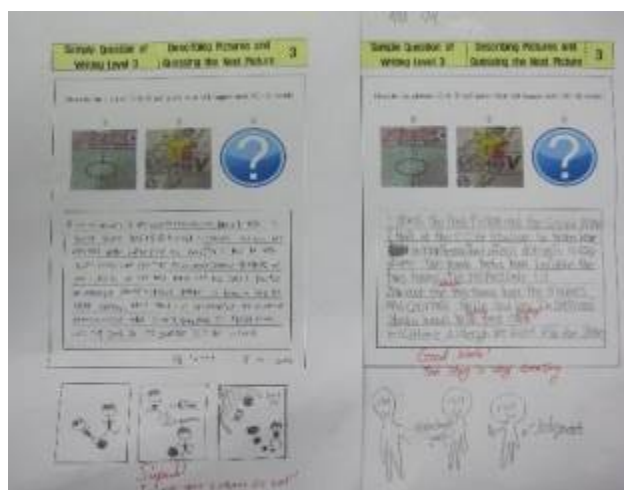
vocational high school students should be flexible in order to meet students' needs and interest.

In addition to the students' opinions, teacher reflection logs were resourceful in exploring suggestions for improvement of authentic material use. Two ideas emerged from the document analysis: (1) continuous development of career-related authentic materials and (2) authentic material use as an interactive channel. The first suggestion sounds obvious, but this requires the teacher's determination and consistent effort. Here is one part of the teacher reflection log:

It is quite time-consuming for an individual teacher to generate authentic materials. But, it's worth doing so because students are more interested in the career-related materials. Normally, technical high school students may not focus on academic work. Similarly, they don't like the English subject. Often, English teachers have difficulty encouraging students to pay attention to the class. If the content is not relevant, students are less likely to be engaged in the class. So, I decided to develop more career-relevant materials and utilize them whenever I have extra time in my English class. (Teacher reflection log)

The second idea is that authentic materials can function as an interactive channel between the teacher and students. The size of a vocational class with 40 students is relatively bigger than general class size. Therefore, it is normally impossible to interact with each individual student in class. Authentic materials can become a means of interactions with students. Figure 7 shows teacher feedback on students' work.

Figure 7
Teacher Feedback on Students' Written Products



I believe that my teaching practice to give comments to students might have started from this moment. Even if the comment was short, some students thought

of it as valuable. After implementing this lesson, I wrote about how I performed and perceived it as presented below:

I thought many students enjoyed the lesson. I can tell this from their completed worksheets. So, I decided to give small comments to them this time. Usually, it's very hard for me to offer comments because I teach more than 100 students. But, they also worked hard and deserve getting compliments and feedback. Maybe, I can use the materials as a dialog journal.
(Teacher reflection log)

Research on authentic materials provides useful suggestions. Thomas (2014) suggested using locally relevant materials for EFL learners with surface culture topics such as arts, customs, holidays, and traditions that are relevant to local contexts. Locally relevant materials boost learner engagement in critical thinking and cross-cultural understanding, and deepen attitudes and societal values (Thomas, 2014).

Conclusion and Implications

This study explored the types of authentic materials used in the EFL language classroom setting and the perceptions of both the teacher and students regarding their implementation. The participants considered the use of authentic materials as a practical means of arousing interest and motivation and exposing them to authentic English language use. Guariento and Morley (2001) also supported the effectiveness of using authentic materials in instruction as these can motivate learners to learn and expose them to the use of language outside of classroom. It is essential for EFL teachers to be able to not only develop authentic materials but also adjust their use according to learners' needs, interests, and levels of language proficiency.

CLIL can be an effective instruction method when using authentic materials. This study demonstrated that integrating authentic materials into CLIL instruction can enhance EFL students' language development and understanding of career-related content.

For research, accidental ethnography should be promoted as it is a useful way to bridge research and practice (Fujii, 2015; Levitan et al., 2017; Poulos, 2009). This study attempted to use existing data to generate new knowledge and data for educational research (Bensimon, 2007; Levitan et al., 2017; Zeichner, 2007). Accidental ethnography empowers teachers and practitioners to make their instruction more effective and participate actively in communities of practice (Levitan et al., 2017).

Despite the benefits of accidental ethnographic research, several limitations need to be addressed in future studies. Observations of a single EFL classroom may not be representative of the entire population, so research in diverse contexts would be valuable. Accidental ethnography can produce messy data as it allows for unstructured perspectives, and determining effective and useful data can be challenging. Researchers need to carefully analyse the collected data and examine as much data as possible to find significant results.

In English language education, the most important thing is the student engagement in the process of language learning and development. Using authentic materials enables teachers to reflect on their teaching skills and materials and encourage students to interact and communicate using different language skills, improving their language proficiency. It is crucial to explore innovative ways to create an authentic environment where students can use the target language actively and freely.

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