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VARIATIONS AND INSERTIONS OF SCHWA: EARLY TEENAGE L2 LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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Abstract

This study examines variations and insertions of schwa observed in the speech of 200 early teenage pre-intermediate second-language learners of English. The respondents were third-year students of a junior high school located in an urban setting in Ghana, a multilingual post-colonial African country south of the Sahara. The respondents read aloud sections of familiar texts they themselves chose. The reading sessions and subsequent oral interaction sessions were video-taped, transcribed verbatim, and analysed. The respondents' articulation of schwa, as captured in the recordings, was compared with corresponding forms in the Ghanaian school variety of English. This variety served as the reference point for the comparisons made. Variations recognised were categorised and described focusing on their plausible sources. The findings indicate that all the unpredictable variants of schwa observed in their speech are traceable to their mother tongues. This has implications for second language theory, second language research, and second language pedagogy.

Keywords: Variations of schwa, Ghanaian school variety of English, teenage L2 learners of English, schwa epenthesis, mother tongue.

Introduction

Different varieties of English are spoken and heard across the globe. These include both native and non-native varieties. Native varieties of English are spoken in communities where English is generally used by the majority as first language. These include the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the Caribbean. Non-native varieties of English are spoken by the literate population in communities where English is used as a second language. Second language communities of English include areas in the Indian sub-region and Anglophone Africa where Britain established trade links leading to their colonisation and implantation of the English language there. In these second language communities, the English language has acquired some peculiar characteristics that are indigenous to the respective communities. The process by which a transplanted language "loses some of its native-speaker characteristics and takes on those of the new community" is known as nativisation (Owusu-Ansah, 1997:24). Kachru (1987) refers to second language communities as outer circle.

Some linguists, however, reject the concept of nativisation on several grounds. One of the reasons given for rejecting the legitimacy of non-native varieties of English is the fear that encouraging second language varieties will lead to corruption of the language and this, they assert, will eventually create unintelligibility of English. For example, Quirk (1990:4) claims that "interest in varieties of English has got out of hand and has started blinding both teachers and the taught to the central linguistic structure from which the varieties might be seen as varying". Fortunately, this description does not apply to the Ghanaian school variety of English which serves as the standard and yardstick for measuring the respondents' oral production in English. Long before Quirk's fear was articulated, the authorities of the Republic of Ghana, anticipating the possibility of an aspect of the situation characterised above, had constituted the Ghanaian school variety of English and institutionalised it in all public schools in the country as the standard variety to be taught, learnt, and acquired. The purpose for which the Ghanaian school variety of English is promoted in Ghanaian schools is not just for achieving intelligibility among speakers but more importantly for creating an enabling linguistic environment that will equip learners of the school system with knowledge, skills, and attitudes to acquire an ethnically neutral accent.

With this in view, it is expected that the respondents in the current study, who were third-year students of junior high school, would have their articulation of schwa similar to the variations realised in the spoken form of the Ghanaian school variety as they progressed in the learning of English as a second language. The aim of this study, therefore, is to find out whether or not the respondents' oral production in English contains variations of schwa that are not predictable variants of that phoneme. The purpose is to trace the sources of observed unpredictable variations in their oral production. To realise the aim and the purpose of the study, the following three research questions were formulated. First, what are the variations observed in the respondents' oral production of schwa using the Ghanaian school variety of English as the measure? Second, what accounts for each variation of schwa recognised? Third, what are the sources of instances of schwa insertion in the respondents' oral production?

Literature Review

This section presents a short review of the literature on schwa. It also gives an exposition of the Ghanaian school variety of English which serves as the standard and yardstick for measuring the respondents' oral production in English. The status of schwa in the Ghanaian school variety of English is briefly reviewed, and the section closes with a review of three empirical studies on second language learners' oral production in English.

What is Schwa?

The term schwa has a long history spanning many centuries. It is generally accepted that the term was introduced into German linguistics from Old Hebrew. Catford (1977:178) confirms this by indicating that schwa is the "German form of the name of the obscure [ə]-like Hebrew vowel". This view is also shared by Crystal (2008:424) who writes that "the term schwa comes from the German name of a vowel of this central quality found in Hebrew". The term schwa entered German linguistics in the early 19th Century mainly through the works of Jacob Grimm (1785-1863). The prominence of schwa in German linguistics is evident in the inclusion of the form *schwa* in many German words. For example, *schwach*, *schwank*, and *schwanken* are German words that mean "weak", "varying" and "unstable" respectively. Each of these words begins with the form *schwa-* and the meanings of the words clearly reflect what we know in English linguistics about schwa; it occupies weak positions, it is subject to slight variations, and it has an intermediate quality. What is quite unclear is how the schwa symbol [ə] came into English usage. Some researchers agree that it was the English mathematician and Philologist, Ellis (1845), who first introduced schwa into English. Subsequently, the schwa symbol was included in the draft version of the International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA) in 1887; and from 1888 onwards, the symbol became part of all official versions of the International Phonetics Alphabet.

In English linguistics, *schwa* is known to be a short, mid-central, neutral, lax vowel. It has been described as the most frequently used vowel sound in spoken English. It has several labels. It is called schwa "because the German name of the symbol [ə] is schwa" (Ladefoged and Johnson 2015:43). Jones (1960:91-97), however, distinguishes three main variants of the English phoneme [ə] and refers to only one of the three variants as schwa. According to Jones (1960:91), schwa has "an intermediate quality and is often called the neutral vowel". The label *neutral vowel*, probably, derives from the fact that the symbol [ə] may be used to specify a range of mid-central vowel qualities. So, the vowel /ə/ does not have one exact pronunciation. It is subject to slight variations depending on the individual speaker and on the nature of the adjoining sounds. Expressing the same idea, Ladefoged and Johnson (2015:104) indicate that "some accents have slightly different qualities … but all are still within the range of a mid-central vowel that can be symbolised by [ə]". Chomsky and Halle (1968:110) had earlier asserted that "for any particular dialect, the feature specification and the appropriate phonetic rules of the exact phonetic realisation of [ə] can be established". Furthermore, schwa /ə/ is also known as *reduced vowel*. It is used in unstressed environments where the quality of vowels diminishes in terms of duration or clearness. Ladefoged and Johnson (2015:104) explain that the symbol /ə/ is often produced when vowels have a central, reduced vowel quality. The primary purpose of schwa, therefore, is to allow unstressed syllables to be uttered more quickly so that the main beats of spoken words are easier to place on the stressed syllable.

The Ghanaian School Variety of English

Several varieties of English are spoken in Ghana, but the variety that serves as the point of reference for evaluating the spoken language of the respondents in this study is what is known as the Ghanaian school variety of English (henceforth: the school variety). The school variety is the standard for all educational institutions in the country. For example, it is the variety of English used by the West African Examinations Council, by the National Board of Professional and Technical Examinations, by all public and private universities in the country, and by all other examination boards operating in the country. The school variety is the most prestigious and the most enviable in Ghana; it is spoken without any identifiable ethnic accent.

The Ghanaian school variety of English is the standard variety deliberately chosen on attainment of independence in March 1957 to be taught, learnt, and acquired in the school system in Ghana. It is the same variety currently being promoted among recipients of formal education throughout the country by the Ministry of Education, the Ghana Education Service, the National Board of Professional and Technical Exanimations, and by the West African Examinations Council. For example, the Ministry of Education, on behalf of the Government of Ghana, endorses the teaching, the learning, and the acquisition of the school variety in three main ways. First, it upholds the school variety through the contents suggested to be taught, learnt, and acquired in school in the form of English syllabuses designed for use at the pre-tertiary levels. Second, the Ministry sponsors the training of Ghanaian citizens (English teachers) to be equipped with knowledge, skills and attitudes to confidently teach the school variety of English wherever they are stationed in the country. The Ministry of Education also ensures that books it procures and supplies to schools throughout the country reflect the school variety of English,

On its part, the Ghana Education service promotes the teaching of the school variety by posting teachers trained in the teaching of English as a second language to all public schools in the country to teach the Ghanaian school variety of English so that products of the school system will be able to use this variety with facility. This is determined through the examination results school leavers obtain in English. The West African Examinations Council is not left out in the agenda of promoting the teaching, the learning, and the acquisition of the Ghanaian school variety of English. This council does so through the contents of English examination papers set and administered at the high school levels: junior high school and senior high school. Notwithstanding this agenda, the high school English syllabuses mandate the teaching of certain aspects of specific varieties of English including the United Kingdom Standard English, the General American English, and the Educated Ghanaian English although these labels are not explicitly used. This inclusion is necessary for making products of the school system able to communicate not only with Ghanaian citizens but also with all native and non-native speakers of English.

With this understanding, most Ghanaian citizens expect every product of the school system to be able to use the Ghanaian school variety of English with a certain level of proficiency. Consonant with this expectation, Oral English has constituted a prominent component of the high school curriculum since 1990, and is externally examined by the West African Examinations Council as Core English Paper 3 at the senior high school level since 1999. Core English is a compulsory subject studied at all the pre-tertiary levels and externally examined at the junior and the senior high school levels. Before 1999, Oral English was taught as an elective subject. So, key players in the Ghanaian school system have always ensured that products of the school system are orally proficient in the Ghanaian school variety of English.

Because the Ghanaian school variety of English is the national norm, it is commonly referred to as the Ghanaian Standard English, a label that corresponds with that found in many first language communities of English. For example, in the United Kingdom, the norm is called the United Kingdom Standard English; and in Scotland, the standard variety is called Scottish Standard English. In the United States of America and in Australia, however, the standard spoken is referred to as the General American English and the General Australian English respectively. The Ghanaian Standard English, the school variety, is not exactly the same as the variety referred to as Educated Ghanaian English (Sey, 1973) which is also known as Ghanaian Variety of English (Asante, 1997:36) because certain variations of language features that are encouraged in Ghanaian Variety of English are considered unsuitable in the Ghanaian school variety.

The spoken form of the Ghanaian school variety was modelled on British Received Pronunciation, and this was to be expected. Received Pronunciation is the term that describes the regionally neutral accent used by many middle-class speakers in the United Kingdom, particularly in England. It is concerned exclusively with pronunciation and is widely used as a reference point in dictionaries and as a model for teaching English as a second language. It is the accent usually described as typically British. The term Received Pronunciation (RP) was introduced by Ellis (1869) and popularised in the 20th century mainly by British phoneticians including Jones (1917; 1918). The origins of RP are traceable to the public schools and universities of 19th-century Britain. Jones (1917) originally referred to RP as Public School Pronunciation because it was the variety promoted by the public schools and the universities. During its heydays, RP enjoyed high social prestige in Britain, being thought of as the accent of those with power, money, and influence. No wonder, it was adopted by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), it was referred to as Oxford English, it was described as posh accent, and above all, it was called the Queen’s English.

Although RP could be heard from educated native speakers throughout England and Wales, it was defined by Soanes and Stevenson (2011: xv) as “the standard accent of English as spoken in the south of England”. The prestige enjoyed by RP began to be undermined in the 1960s and the 1970s particularly through the works of British sociolinguists. Their promotion of regional and dialectal varieties resulted in a drastic reduction of the status enjoyed by RP. For example, the British dialectologist, Trugill (1974), estimated that only 3% of people in Britain were RP speakers but this rough estimate was immediately questioned and rejected by British phoneticians including Lewis (1975). The works of advocates of non-native varieties have further reduced the status of British Received Pronunciation. Indeed, the Ghanaian school variety currently plays in Ghana the role that RP played between the 1920s and the 1970s in the British public-school system, the British civil service, and in the British Empire as a whole.

Schwa in the Ghanaian School Variety of English

Like British Received Pronunciation, the Ghanaian school variety of English also recognises variations of schwa. One realisation is always extremely short such that its exact value is difficult to observe or describe. This variation usually occurs in initial and medial positions in disyllabic and polysyllabic words. The initial letter ‘a-’ of the words *about*, *above*, *abroad*, *accept*, and *away*, for example, is realised in the Ghanaian school variety of English as the extremely short variation of schwa, and these words are transcribed as /ə'bout/, /ə'bʌv/, /ə'brɔ:d/, /ək'sept/, and /ə'wei/ respectively. A combination of letters such as ‘ae’ beginning a word may also be heard as the extremely short variation of schwa. For example, the initial sound of aesthetic /əs'θetik/ is realised as this variation of schwa. When it is heard in word-medial position in the Ghanaian school variety of English, schwa may be represented in writing by various letters and combination of letters as illustrated below.

Table 1. Medial post-tonic schwa

	Letter(s)	***Word***	***Sound***		***Letter(s)***	***word***	***Sound***
1.	a	vitamin	/'vaitəmin/	2.	e	paten	/'pætən/
3.	i	horrible	/'hɔrəbl/	4.	o	lemon	/'lemən/
5.	u	chorus	/'kɔːrəs/	6.	ai	portrait	/'pɔːtrət/
7.	au	restaurant	/'restərɔ□/	8.	ar	forward	/'fɔːwəd/
9.	er	modern	/'mɔːdən/	10.	ei	foreign	/'fɔrən/
11.	oi	porpoise	/'pɔːpəz/	12.	or	effort	/'efət/
13.	ou	famous	/'feiməz/	14.	ui	circuit	/'səːkət/
15.	are	hovered	/'hʌvəd/	16.	oar	cupboard	/'kʌbəd/

The sixteen orthographic forms listed above are used in the Ghanaian school variety of English to represent the schwa [ə] vowel when it occupies word medial position. Another variation of schwa observed in the Ghanaian school variety of English occurs in word-final position only. This realisation of schwa appears to be slightly lower in height than when the vowel occupies word-initial or word-medial position. Orthographic forms that represent this variety of the vowel in the Ghanaian school variety of English include the following.

Table 2. Final post-tonic schwa

Letter(s)		***Word***	***Soud***		***Letter(s)***	***word***	***Sound***
1.	*a*	fauna	/'faunə/	2.	*ar*	scholar	/s'kɔlə/
3.	*er*	teacher	/'tiːʧə/	4.	*ir*	tapir	/'teipə/
5.	*or*	doctor	/'dɔktə/	6.	*ough*	borough	/'bʌrə/
7.	*our*	colour	/'kʌlə/	8.	*re*	metre	/'miːtə/
9.	*ur*	murmur	/mə:mə/				

The most common orthographic form that represents word-final schwa in English is *-er,* followed by *-or,* and then by *-ar*. The least common way of spelling the schwa sound on the end of a word is *-ough.*

Studies on L2 Learners' Oral Production in English

To put the current study in perspective, the rest of this section reviews three studies on second language learners' variations of the English monophthong. Using twenty native English speakers, twenty early Miami-based Spanish-English bilinguals and twenty late Miami-based Spanish-English bilinguals as research respondents, Byers and Yavas (2016) investigated the durational variability of schwa in early and late Spanish-English bilinguals. The purpose of the study was to find out whether bilingual learners categorically displayed shorter or longer schwa durations between fixed word pairs where one pair contains a droppable syllable and the other does not. A three-way mixed model ANOVA was applied to the data to determine the relationship between schwa duration on the one hand and language group, word root, and droppable/non-droppable category on the other hand. Pairwise t-tests were also performed on individual categories to determine if semantically related pairs differed in duration. The findings show that native English speakers produced significantly shorter durations of schwa in droppable positions than in non-droppable positions. The study also indicates that early bilingual productions of schwa are very similar to those of monolingual English speakers, whereas late bilinguals display much longer durations in both droppable and non-droppable schwa positions. The findings imply that length of second language acquisition is a predictive factor in determining non-native speakers' oral production of schwa in droppable and non-droppable positions.

Wong, Dealey, Leung, and Mok (2019) investigated connected speech phonological processes (continuous oral production) of Cantonese learners of English as a second language. The researchers' motivation for the study derived from the fact that, although English was a core and compulsory curriculum course in their undergraduate programme, many students had difficulty speaking in that language. The purpose of the study was to determine the sources of challenges that Cantonese learners of English as a second language encounter when orally authoring connected speech in English. Three different groups of participants served as respondents. The first group was made up of 60 Cantonese ESL learners who were undergraduate students in four different universities in Hong Kong and were majoring in a variety of fields. The second group consisted of 10 native speakers of General American English, and the third group comprised 10 British Received Pronunciation (Standard Southern English) speakers. Results from post-hoc comparisons indicated that the General American speakers and the British Received Pronunciation speakers scored significantly higher marks than the Cantonese second language learners. Also, there was no significant difference in scores between the two native speaking groups. The study reveals that difficulties second language learners encounter when dealing with connected speech phonological processes are heavily influenced by differences between the learners' first language and their second language. The study recommends that second language educators be specially trained to be able to diagnose phonological errors more effectively in order to address difficulties learners face in the second language learning process.

Engaging early teenage pre-intermediate second-language learners of English as respondents, Agor (2019) investigated authoring unpredictable variants of the English monophthongs in the oral production of second language learners of English. The aim was to find out whether or not the respondents' oral production of English was converging toward the standard set in the Ghanaian school variety of English and to recommend theoretical, practical, and pedagogical solutions that would directly and indirectly help accelerate the process of convergence. The respondents were final-year students of two basic schools located in two different regions in their home country Ghana, and were between ages 14 and 16 years. They read aloud sections of familiar texts they themselves chose. The reading sessions and subsequent oral interaction sessions were video-taped, transcribed verbatim, and analysed. The respondents' oral production of the English monophthongs, as captured in the recordings, was compared with corresponding forms in the Ghanaian school variety of English. This variety served as the reference point for the comparisons made. Differences observed were categorised and described. These included intrusion of the approximant /j/ preceding the front vowel /e/, replacement of the central vowel /ʌ/ with the back vowel /ɔ/, and confusion in the use of the short front vowel /i/ and its long counterpart /i:/. The findings indicate that all the differing forms recognised in the respondents' oral production were mother tongue induced. Agor (2019) recommends that teachers of English as a second language should be empowered to deploy techniques and strategies in their teaching such that learners would be systematically deconditioned to auditorily perceive the difference between their own oral productions and their equivalences in the school variety.

The contents reviewed in this section, though chartered territories, have been very inspiring and can be described as "pleasant hours with the masters". The sub-sections on schwa, for example, reminded the researcher to expect variations but variations that are predictable variants of schwa in the oral production of the respondents as found in the Ghanaian school variety of English. The British Received Pronunciation section served as impetus for the use of the spoken form of the Ghanaian school variety of English as the standard and yardstick for measuring the respondents' oral production of the vowel under discussion. Also, the empirical studies reviewed provided guidance on the conceptual issues discussed and the research methods deployed. So, the literature reviewed has been very instructive in guiding the current study.

Method

Setting

The general setting of the study is junior high schools in Ghana. These are three-year educational institutions established to admit graduates who have successfully completed the six-year primary school course of study and to prepare them to enter second cycle institutions such as senior high, technical, commercial, and vocational schools. The three-year junior high school course may occur as part of the basic school. Indeed, the last three years of the nine-year basic school programme in Ghana constitutes the junior high school. Specifically, the data for this study were obtained between October 2016 and April 2018 from final-year students of the junior high section of La-Bawaleshie Presbyterian Basic School at East Legon, near Accra, the capital city of Ghana. The school is accommodated in standard classroom buildings.

Participants and their Linguistic Background

Two hundred respondents were involved in this study. They were all born in Ghana and were between ages 14 and 16. They were functionally multilingual in English and two or three indigenous Ghanaian languages. They had varying degrees of proficiency in English. They were instructed in two different languages during their first five years of formal education. Usually, the two languages were the dominant Ghanaian language spoken in the community where the school is situated and English. The amount of the two languages used as medium of instruction during the first five years is approximated in percentages as follows. In Kindergarten One, 90% of academic instruction was transmitted in a Ghanaian language and 10% in English. In Kindergarten Two, the percentages changed to 80% conveyed in a Ghanaian language and 20% in English. This systematic variation of the amount in percentage of the two languages used as medium of instruction continued up to class three where the approximations were 50% communicated in a Ghanaian language and 50% in English. From class four onward, the respondents were instructed through the medium of English. It is also worth noting that, right from kindergarten one to form three in junior high, the pupils were taught English as a curriculum subject through the medium of English and were taught Ghanaian language as a curriculum subject through the medium of that Ghanaian language. The linguistic arrangement implemented in the school mirrors the national language policy for education.

Actually, two Ghanaian languages are mounted and taught as curriculum subjects in the school and each student is required to study only one. The two languages studied are Ga and Akwapim Twi. Ga is taught because it is the language of the community in which the school is located, and Twi is taught because most of the learners are Twi speakers. These two languages form part of eleven indigenous Ghanaian languages approved by the Ministry of Education to be studied at the basic school level. The rest are Asante Twi, Dagaare, Dagbani, Dangme, Ewe, Fante, Guruni, Kasim, and Nzema. One observation about the participants relates to the languages they used on the playground. There were numerous languages of the playground. These included Ga, Dangme, Twi, Fante, Ewe, Dagbani, Guruni, Dagaare, Nzema, and Guan. These numerous indigenous languages spoken in this school clearly reflects the multilingual nature of the country. According to Dakubu (1988:10), Ghana is linguistically heterogeneous with about forty-five different indigenous languages. The actual number of languages in Ghana has been variously given ranging between thirty-four and sixty depending on the individual linguist's perception of what constitutes a language. While Bamgbose (1976:14) talks about thirty-four distinct, mutually unintelligible indigenous languages in Ghana, Hall (1983:6) names forty-four languages as indigenous to Ghana. Criper (1971:6) had earlier put the figure at sixty.

Negotiation of Objectives and Procedures

Data for this study became accessible following a meeting held in the school in September 2016 where the tasks to execute and the procedures to follow were negotiated. These were to:

1. videotape reading sessions of 200 final-year students in a public junior high school in order to source their oral production in English.
2. videotape interaction sessions between the respondents and the research team.
3. compare elements of the respondents' oral production with corresponding elements in the Ghanaian school variety of English.
4. suggest sources of the respondents' variations of schwa and to discuss implications for theory, research, and pedagogy.

One teacher was nominated to assist the researcher in sourcing the data required. The nominee was primarily to ensure that the respondents were available and active during data collection sessions. She was essentially to create a conducive atmosphere for the data to be collected from the respondents. The respondents and their parents were supplied relevant consent forms to complete. They were taken through the various sections of the forms and the contents were fully understood. In all the parents of all the 200 pupils signed and returned the consent forms. Many visits were made to the school during the data collection phase of the study and the needed data for the study were successfully sourced.

Tasks Designed and Data Collected

The study sought to investigate the respondents' oral production of schwa. In order to do so, the respondents graciously agreed to choose any four familiar texts and to read aloud three paragraphs from any two of the chosen texts. They also agreed to interact with the research team on individual basis. Both the reading and the interaction sessions were to be videotaped. These recorded video sessions were played back and transcribed verbatim to determine the actual realisations of the mid-central vowel /ə/ in the speech of the respondents. Additionally, the actual words containing the unpredictable variants of /ə/ uttered by the respondents have been categorised and analysed. All these were done in order to provide adequate grounding for discussing plausible sources of the respondents' variations and misuse of the mid-central vowel /ə/. These tasks were executed also to suggest theoretical and pedagogical implications of the findings.

Findings and Discussion

The Ghanaian school variety of English promotes oral productions whose segments are predictable variants of the English phonemes. The term "unpredictable variants of schwa" refers to any realisation of the phoneme [ə] which is not a predictable variant of that phoneme. The term misuse of schwa refers to a deployment of a form of /ə/ in environments where that vowel is unexpected. This is referred to as schwa epenthesis. Unpredictable variants of schwa and schwa epenthesis lead to word pronunciation deviations. In all, two categories of unpredictable variants of the mid-central vowel /ə/ and one category of schwa epenthesis were observed in the speech of the respondents. These are listed in Table 3 below. Each category of variation was observed in more than one word. In other words, each unpredictable variant of schwa recurred in different words and involved all the 200 respondents. But schwa epenthesis recurred in only five different words and involved 32 respondents. Corresponding to each differing type on the list is the number of different words whose pronunciation has been inadvertently modified by the respondents.

Table 3. Schwa variation type

SN	Schwa Type	Words	Learners
1.	Replacement of initial pre-tonic schwa /ə/ with a foreign vowel /a/	11	250
2.	Replacement of final post-tonic schwa /ə/ with a foreign vowel /a/	10	250
3.	Schwa /ə/ epenthesis (between a cluster of consonants)	5	32
Total		**61**	**250**

The actual words mispronounced by the respondents have been categorised and included rather as an appendix to this article. Corresponding to each mispronounced word on the list finds the phonetic transcription of how the respective respondent or respondents pronounced the word. Also accompanying each word on the list is the Ghanaian school variety of English transcription of the respective word.

The Ghanaian school variety of English was institutionalised over seven decades ago in the country as the standard variety to be taught, learnt, and acquired in all public schools. From the outset, it was envisaged that this variety would help learners of the school system to become intelligible to both Ghanaian and non-Ghanaian users of English. But the purpose for which the Ghanaian school variety of English is promoted in Ghanaian schools is not just for achieving intelligibility among speakers but more importantly for creating an enabling linguistic environment that would equip learners of the school system with knowledge, skills, and attitudes to acquire an ethnically neutral accent. With this in view, the research team expected that the respondents in the current study, who were junior high school students, would articulate the mid-central vowel /ə/ predictably as encouraged in the Ghanaian school variety of English. However, the results of the data analysed indicate three specific areas where the respondents' realisation and use of schwa is not consonant with what the Ghanaian school variety promotes. This section discusses the sources of the schwa-related issues raised and how these challenges could be resolved.

The first variation of schwa investigated has to do with replacement of initial pre-tonic schwa with a modification of the long back vowel /a:/. This modified back vowel, as heard in their oral production, is not a clear member of the phonological inventory of English. Its realisation is equivalent to the first half of the production of the English vowel /a:/. For the purpose of this discussion, the resultant back vowel, as heard in their speech, is represented in this paper with the symbol /a/. None of the 200 respondents produced predictable variants of schwa orally when it occupied word initial position. For example, the words *about*, *above*, *afraid*, and *again* were heard in the respondents' oral production as /'a'baut/, /'a'bav/, /'a'freid/, and /'a'gein/ respectively. Meanwhile, in the Ghanaian school variety of English, these four words are pronounced as /ə'baut/, /ə'bav/, /ə'freid/, and /ə'gein/. The respondents also pronounced the words *allow*, *apart*, *avoid*, and *away* as /'a'lau/, /'a'pa:t/, /'a'vɔid/, and /'a'wei/ instead of /ə'lau/, /ə'pa:t/, /ə'vɔid/, and /ə'wei/ respectively.

In word-final position too, the short central vowel /ə/ was replaced by all the respondents with the same non-English vowel sound /a/. For example, the words *father*, *mother*, *brother*, and *sister*, which are pronounced in the school variety as /'fa:ðə/, /'mʌðə/, /'brʌðə/, and /'sistə/ were heard in the oral production of the respondents as /'fa'da/, /'mɔ'da/, /'brɔ'da/, and /'sis'ta/ respectively. Also, *doctor*, *teacher*, *farmer*, and *driver* which are produced in the school variety as /'dɔktə/, /'ti:ʧə/, /'fa:mə/, and /'draivə/ were pronounced as /'dɔkə'ta/, /'ti'ʧa/, /'fa'ma/, and /'drai'va/. This unusual shift in their realisation of instances of final post-tonic schwa is a feature observed in the speech of some educated Ghanaian speakers of English. The respondents stressed every syllable. This tendency to stress every syllable is a transfer from the indigenous Ghanaian languages and is referred to as syllable timed rhythm as opposed to stress timed rhythm inherent in the school variety. Indeed, the spoken form of the school variety observes both stressed and unstressed syllables, and it is this stress placement feature that defines the melody of an English word. The oral English contents, which are based on the Ghanaian school variety of English, should resolve the challenge if taught and learnt as required.

The final schwa-related phenomenon observed in the oral production of the respondents is schwa epenthesis. This is where a second language learner is aware of an L2 consonant cluster which is phonologically impermissible in the L1, and which he is unable to perform because the L1 syllabus structure inadvertently surfaces in the learner’s oral production. Davidson et.al. (2004) explain that an epenthetic vowel is a lexical vowel that occurs to satisfy lexical syllabification. In the current study, thirty-two of the respondents inserted the short central vowel in environments where that vowel does not belong. Thirty-two of the respondents varied the pronunciation of the words *belt*, *film*, *milk*, *valco*, and *Volta* during the interaction sessions. They consistently split a sequence of two consonants – the lateral /l/ and a succeeding consonant – and inserted the short central vowel /ə/ between the two consonant sounds. This category of respondents pronounced the words *belt*, *film*, and *milk* as /'belət/, /'filəm/, and /'milək/ respectively, but these words are pronounced in the school variety as /belt/, /film/, and /milk/. Also, *valco* and *Volta* were heard as /'vʌləko/ and /'vɔləta/ instead of /'vʌlkə/ and /'vɔltə. Even though the 32 respondents heard the school variety pronunciation of these words regularly in the input, they were unable to auditorily perceive the sounds involved; they could not distinguish between what they regularly heard in the input and what they themselves produced in their speech. This pronunciation challenge is known as perception blind spot. The 32 respondents spoke Dagbani, Dagaare, Kasem, or Gurune as their home language. They spoke these languages on the school playground with their siblings whenever they did not want a third person to understand the contents of their conversations. Respondents whose home languages were Akwapim Twi, Asante Twi, Dangme, Ewe, Fante, Ga, and Nzema did not exhibit this schwa intrusion challenge in their spoken English.

There are implications of this finding for theory. In tracing the underlying source of this misuse of schwa, some revelations emerged. First, the four home languages of this category of respondents are spoken mainly in the northern part of the country where Arabic schools are popular. The usual practice in the north is that most parents enrol their children in an Arabic school first before signing them up in the formal English school system. It is also the case that some families make their young ones attend both Arabic and English schools concurrently. So, is this differing type traceable to Arabic? Second, all these four languages belong to the Gur language family. So, is the Gur language family influencing the respondents' spoken English in this way? But the absolute revelation is that this monophthong differing category is traceable to the respondents' mother tongue. This revelation essentially questions the validity of Error Analysts' refutation of the statement of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Fries, 1945:9; Lado, 1957). Further research conducted in different second language contexts is needed to help unravel these questions. There are also implications for research. The current finding corroborates the results of Nogita and Fun (2012) who reported that "Mandarin and Japanese ESL learners with a relatively short length of residence in Canada ocassionally inset schwa in English consonant clusters when they immediately repeated sound stimuli".

This specific challenge displayed by the 32 respondents could be eliminated from their speech by deploying pedagogical interventions to systematically decondition them in order to auditorily perceive the difference between each pair: /'belət/ and /belt/, /'filəm/ and /film/, /'milək/ and /milk/ for example. The guarantee that this strategy would yield results is amply demonstrated in the second language literature. Corder (1967) asserts that second language learners' deviations provide the language teacher with information about how much the learner has learnt; they equip the researcher with evidence of how language is learnt; and they serve as devices by which the learner discovers the rules of the target language. This idea is supported by Broughton et.al. (1978:120) who declare that, "certainly, unless the learner is made aware of his errors, he cannot learn from them". Yankson (1994:1), expressing the same opinion, concludes that "the student must also be made aware of his systematic and recurrent errors, otherwise he cannot learn from them.

Conclusion

The Ghanaian school variety of English is taught, learnt, and acquired in all Ghanaian schools. This paper, however, makes three observations where the respondents' oral production of words containing the mid-central vowel /ə/, schwa, does not conform to what the school variety promotes. First, all the 200 respondents stressed every syllable in their speech; and this feature is traceable to their mother tongues. Second, as a result of the first observation, the respondents' oral production in English was characterised by both replacement of initial pre-tonic schwa and final post-tonic schwa rather with a non-English vowel whose production is close to the back vowel /a:/. Third, schwa epenthesis involving five words featured prominently in the speech of thirty-two respondents because this phenomenon is phonotactically permissible in their source languages.

It is therefore clear that the three deviation types observed are traceable to the mother tongue; the L1 is the underlying source of both the unpredictable variations of schwa and the misuse of that vowel in the oral production of the respondents.

This conclusion is consonant with current thoughts held by practitioners and researchers (including Wong et.al., 2019; Agor, 2019) in second language communities about the role of the first language in the acquisition of the second language, and this confirms Ellis's (2015:139) assertion that "the effects of L1 transfer on L2 learning are extensive, varied, and persistent". One indispensable pedagogical implication in this regard is that the English language teacher should have the students systematically deconditioned to auditorily perceive the difference between their own oral production and the equivalence in the school variety. The motivation for this suggestion comes from what we already know about second language learning. Second language learners' deviations are good learning, teaching and research material (Corder, 1967).

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Appendices

Replacement of Initial Pre-Tonic Schwa /ə/ *with a foreign vowel* /a/.

1. *about* was heard as /ˈaˈbout/ instead of /əˈbout/
2. *above* was heard as /ˈaˈbav/ instead of /əˈbout/
3. *abroad* was heard as /ˈaˈbroad/ instead of /əˈbrɔːd/
4. *accept* was heard as /ˈaˈsept/ instead of /əkˈsept/
5. *afraid* was heard as /ˈaˈfreid/ instead of /əˈfreid/
6. *again* was heard as /ˈaˈgein/ instead of /əˈgein/
7. *allow* was heard as /ˈaˈlau/ instead of /əˈlau/
8. *apart* was heard as /ˈaˈpat/ instead of /əˈpaːt/
9. *around* was heard as /ˈaˈraund/ instead of /əˈraund/
10. *avoid* was heard as /ˈaˈvɔid/ instead of /əˈvɔid/
11. *away* was heard as /ˈaˈwei/ instead of /əˈwei/

Replacement of Final Post-Tonic Schwa /ə/ with a foreign vowel /a/.

12. *brother* was heard as /ˈbrɔda/ instead of /ˈbrʌðə/
13. *doctor* was heard as /ˈdɔkəta/ instead of /ˈdɔktə/
14. *driver* was heard as /ˈdraiva/ instead of /ˈdraivə/
15. *farmer* was heard as /ˈfama/ instead of /ˈfa:mə/
16. *father* was heard as /ˈfada/ instead of /ˈfa:ðə/
17. *marker* was heard as /ˈmaka/ instead of /ˈma:kə/
18. *master* was heard as /ˈmasta/ instead of /ˈma:stə/
19. *mother* was heard as /ˈmɔda/ instead of /ˈmʌðə/
20. *sister* was heard as /ˈsista/ instead of /ˈsistə/
21. *teacher* was heard as /ˈti:ʧa/ instead of /ˈti:ʧə/

Schwa Epenthesis (Between a Cluster of Consonants)

22. *belt* was heard as /ˈbelət/ instead of /belt/
23. *film* was heard as /ˈfiləm/ instead of /film/
24. *milk* was heard as /ˈmilək/ instead of /milk/
25. *valco* was heard as /ˈvaləko/ instead of /ˈvæ:lkə/
26. *volta* was heard as /ˈvoləta/ instead of /ˈvoultə/

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INTEGRATING ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS THROUGH READERS' THEATRE TECHNIQUE FOR READING COMPREHENSION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KENYA

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Abstract

Proficiency in reading skills requires a multifaceted technique which incorporates all English language skills. Techniques such as readers' theatre assimilates other language skills through adapting and performing scripts which engages learners actively in the reading process for fluency and comprehension. The study explored influence of integrating English language skills to enhance comprehension among learners in secondary schools through an intervention of readers' theatre technique. The study adopted socio constructivism in a quasi-experimental pretest posttest design. 426 form three learners and 19 teachers in Kisumu country participated in the study conducted within eight weeks. Participants' achievement in reading comprehension was measured using reading skills achievement test to ascertain effect of the intervention. The findings of the study, based on statistical analysis of t-test revealed participants in experimental groups performed better than those in control groups. The study revealed that engaging learners in adapting and performing scripts promoted active interaction with the text resulting in effective comprehension. The study concluded that incorporating language skills in the reading process creates a learner centered class and would be beneficial for enhancing reading comprehension.

Keywords: Adapting scripts, integration of language skills, learner centered, performing scripts, reading comprehension

Introduction

Readers' theatre technique is a collaborative learning encounter which incorporates integration of other English language skills through adapting and performing scripts to enhance fluency and comprehension of subject matter. According to Pettersen (2013), readers' theatre technique facilitates readers to use prosody to make story elements real. Furthermore, Lopes, Silva, Moniz, and Speaar-Swerling (2015), posited that fluent readers access prosodic features in texts to aid in comprehension. Readers' theatre technique involves learners to read a text, adapt a script and perform the script to class members. Thus, incorporating language skills through writing and performance implies that learners are engaged in interactive reading strategies which involve progressive interaction of conversation at both lower levels and upper levels. However, Klinger, Urbach, Golos, Brownell and Menon (2010), observed teachers placed a lot of emphasis on phonological awareness and decoding but little attention was put on strategies that would enhance comprehension. Ideally, proficiency in reading is attributed to learner's ability to read fluently and arrive at the author's intended meaning by utilizing appropriate strategies during instruction.

According to Rahman (2014), readers' theatre technique is collaborative and creates an active learning atmosphere. On the other hand, Young and Nageldinger (2014), assert that readers' theatre technique involves learners in dramatic reading of a script in groups during class activities. The script may either be adapted from a text or created from learners' own experiences. In conceptualizing readers' theatre technique to entail adapting and performing scripts, it should be perceived as engaging learners in varied reading strategies that would build fluency and comprehension. However, Piper, Shcroeder and Trudell (2016), observed learners were able to read fluently but failed to understand the information. Maingi (2015), attributes failure to achieve comprehension among learners to teachers not engaging learners in active reading strategies. On the other hand, Merga (2017), posited that utilization of appropriate strategies in the reading classroom facilitates effective comprehension. Effective strategies would enable activation of background knowledge, word recognition and decoding skills and comprehension. In essence, adapting scripts would present opportunities for deep interaction with the text to arrive at meaning and performing scripts would build fluency. This study explored influence of integrating English language skills through readers' theatre technique to enhance comprehension skills among learners in secondary schools.

Literature Review

Adapting Scripts

Adapting scripts from written material involves intensive reading, after which learners adapt a script. This provides an opportunity for learners to produce what has been read in own language through writing. Writing scripts in own words indicates proper understanding of language structures and information. On the other hand, it provides a purpose for reading which results in retention of information (Al-Haq& Al-Sobh, 2010). According to Adams, Farris, Patterson, Santiago and Secrist (2007), learners use metacognitive skills when adapting scripts. Utilizing higher levels of metacognition requires engagement in collaborative strategies such as brainstorming when learners question and monitor understanding of the text. This would enable activation of schemata which is essential in comprehension. Kabilan and Kamaruddin (2010), posited that brainstorming enables learners to envisage and integrate information as a result generating a better understanding of the text. In essence, adapting scripts as a classroom activity in the reading process would result in effective comprehension, because it provides learners with varied perceptive of interpreting information by group members.

Abdelaal and Sase (2014), argued that during adapting scripts, critical thinking is triggered which enables learners relate and discover information in the text. According to Visser (2013), relating with the text involves activation of background knowledge to understand events, characters' emotions and roles represented in the text. This would be successful if the teacher facilitated appropriate activities in the classroom such as discussion in groups. Holt (2015), established that activating background knowledge was enhanced by discussions in the classrooms. In the same vein, author (2019), observed that discussions enabled learners participate freely in class which enhanced comprehension through sharing of ideas. During discussions, learners bring own experiences to relate with events in the text. Therefore, teacher support for learner's active involvement in the reading process would connect learners' personal experiences with events in the text for effective comprehension.

Performing Scripts

Performing scripts as an activity in reading instruction classroom builds fluency through the several rehearsals when teachers model correct intonation in sentences and pronunciation of words. According to Sinambela (2017), reading with prosody which is characterized by voice inflection, appropriate speed and phrasing facilitates accuracy and automaticity in reading. In agreement with Sinambela (2017), Yildirim, Rasinski, and Kaya (2017), asserted that voice inflection and proper phrasing correlated with fluency in reading. Performance of scripts requires accurate clustering of words into meaningful phrases and proper voice inflection for meaning. According to Kabilan and Kamaruddin (2010), using correct intonation and phrasing while reading, brings thoughts and emotions of characters alive through the reader and subsequently enabling the listener follow the discourse. In essence, performing scripts makes reading sound like everyday conversation which facilitates effective comprehension.

Jeon and Lee (2013), observed that inability to cluster phrases into meaningful units interfered with comprehension during reading. In the same vein, Karanja (2015), revealed that inappropriate phrasing while reading contributed to low comprehension. Practically, weak readers skip or regress on difficult words or sentences misrepresenting the information to listeners during read aloud. However, good readers ought to read the same print severally in order to familiarize themselves with words and phrasing for effective comprehension through repeated reading. Read aloud would ensure proper voice inflection when learners endeavour to articulate words correctly. On the other hand, Tsou (2011), asserted that performing scripts as a group activity provides interest in reading. In support, Karabag (2015), observed that secondary school learners enjoyed participating in performing scripts adapted from texts because of the cooperative nature of classmates. This is attributed to the fact that performing scripts is a group activity and therefore a learner is not burdened with reading a whole paragraph alone but rather a line assigned to individuals. The fact that reading is shared makes the whole activity pleasurable for the learners. Besides, the lines are not memorized which could be an extra burden. According to Protacio (2012), group reading activities should integrate other language skills such as speaking and listening with reading and writing. Shared reading which is a group reading activity enhances comprehension when teacher guide learners on appropriate strategies that integrate all language skills.

Statement of the Problem

Instructional strategies for teaching reading skills ought to integrate other language skills to ensure active participation of learners for effective fluency at the same time support comprehension. Reading instruction has been observed to be a hurried activity whereby learners are not engaged actively in the reading process. On the other hand, reading instruction should not be an isolated activity but rather other language skills such as oral and writing should be incorporated to process reading at both higher level and lower level. Oral skills would guarantee reading fluency through performing scripts and writing skills would enable learners delve deep in the text by understanding information. Based on this, the study investigated influence of adapting and performing skills as an integrated approach to enhance comprehension among learners in secondary schools in Kisumu country, Kenya.

Theoretical Perception

The study was anchored on social constructivism theory. Social constructivism espouses on engaging learners actively in the learning instruction through social interaction. Adapting and performing scripts as classroom group activities is interactive and socialized in nature when teachers guide learners to interact deep with the text for meaning. Adapting scripts would enable learners discuss and brainstorm which activates background knowledge. On the other hand, learners act as scaffold for one another when they share reading while performing scripts. It was perceived that performing scripts would build fluency through proper voice inflection, and phrasing practiced through repeated reading and read aloud strategies.

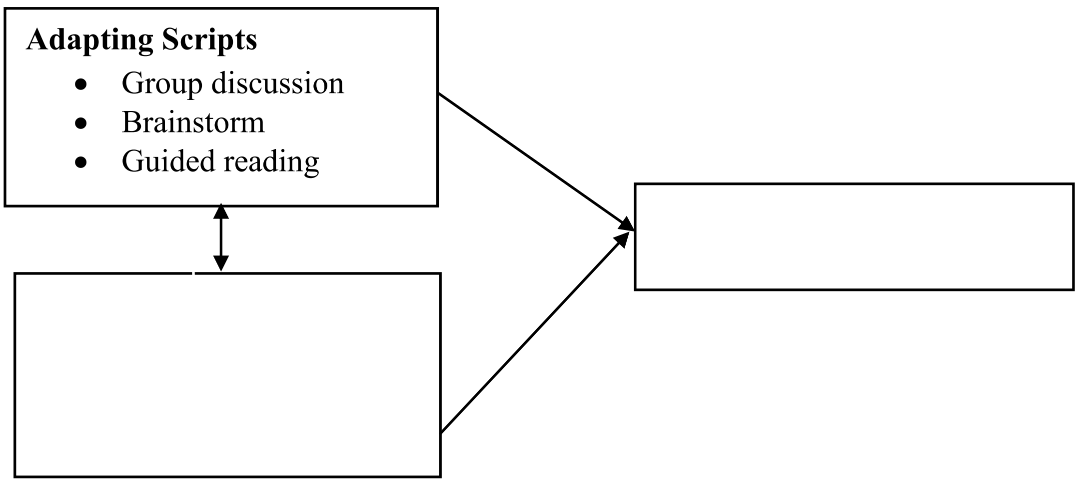

Figure 1. Adapting and performing scripts for comprehension

Method

The study implemented quasi-experimental pre-test post-test control group design. Form three secondary school learners in four schools with a sample of 221 participants were randomly assigned to control groups and four other schools with a sample of 205 participants to experimental study groups. The participants in experimental study groups were engaged in adapting and performing scripts during reading instruction for a period of eight weeks. Group discussion, brainstorming, repeated and shared reading were controlled in the control study groups. Participants in experimental groups worked in groups after reading the text to adapt scripts and perform them. During rehearsals of script reading, repeated reading was practiced as the teacher modelled prosody. Both the study groups were subjected to a pretest and a post test.

The reading skills achievement test had three sections, section one was comprehension skills with items on literal, identifying main ideas and inferencing, the second section tested vocabulary on words and phrase level, and third had items on prosodic features which included intonation at sentence and word level, and punctuation on phrases. The pretest was conducted before the intervention and the post test in the last week of the intervention. Teachers filled self-administered questionnaires that had both close and open items on usage and importance of adapting and performing scripts. The teachers made use of the novel Blossoms of the Savannah (2017), a class text used by form three learners in secondary schools in Kenya as the instructional text during the study period. The study ensured ethics in research was observed by acquiring a research permit, and informed consent was sought before the intervention. Participants were also informed of the purpose of the study.

Findings and Discussion

Adapting Scripts and reading comprehension

The study sought to establish if teachers used adapting script strategy during reading instruction. The findings are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Teachers rating of use of adapting scripts

Strategy	Occasionally	Frequently
Group discussion	2 (10.53%)	17 (89.47%)
Brainstorm	1 (5.26%)	18 (94. 75%)
Guided reading	6 (31.58%)	13 (68.42%)

The study findings in Table 1 show 89.47% (n=17) teachers frequently engaged learners in group discussion during reading instruction. On the other hand, 95.75% (n=18) engaged learners in brainstorming and 68.42% (n=13) guided learners on appropriate strategies. The findings indicate that comprehension was achieved when learners were engaged in group discussion, brainstorm and when teachers guided on appropriate strategies. The findings are supported by the teachers who reported that adapting scripts was interactive and enabled learners understand varied sentence structures. This participant echoed the views of many other teachers.

TEG 4: ‘‘I think adapting scripts is a good way of making the students read and get to understand the text. Since they are expected to come up with their own script, then it means they will be more keen on getting the details of the text. Writing these scripts also helps them learn how to write a variety of sentences because they have to rephrase the sentences in the novel and put them in dialogue form.’’

Group discussions facilitate active interaction and cooperation among learners when they bring varied experiences to what is written in the text. As learners discuss on what areas to adapt the script, they engage in deep interaction with the text which enables effective comprehension. This enabled activation of background knowledge and experiences which enabled them relate with information in the text. Similar results were observed by Alshehri (2014), who excelled in comprehension by connecting own experiences with events in the text. The findings of the study are in tandem with Mwoma (2017), who acknowledged the importance of discussions.

On the other hand, brainstorming on the text being discussed facilitated active interaction as learners were able to monitor comprehension from various points of views. Guided reading enabled participants remain active in all the three phases of reading when teachers provided appropriate activities. The findings reveal that learners applied appropriate strategies at pre reading, while reading and post reading stage for effective comprehension. Similar findings were observed by Sattar and Salehi (2014), who observed proficiency in reading comprehension when participants were exposed to specific strategies. Therefore, explicit strategies if executed well during reading instruction would facilitate effective comprehension.

Performing Scripts and reading comprehension

The study established if teachers engaged learners in performing scripts adapted from the text to build fluency for effective comprehension. The findings are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Teachers’ rating of use of performing scripts

Strategy	**Occasionally**	**Frequently**
Shared reading	7 (36.84%)	12 (63.16%)
Read aloud	5 (26.32%)	14 (73.68%)
Repeated reading	4 (21.06%)	15 (78.94%)

The findings show 63.16% (n=13) teachers frequently engaged learners in shared reading, 73.68% (n=14) frequently engaged learners in read aloud and 78.94% (n=15) frequently engaged learners in repeated reading. The findings reveal that participants were able to recognize and decode words when engaged in read aloud. On the other hand, fluency was perfected through repeated reading and comprehension supported when engaged in shared reading. The findings are in tandem with what teachers reported that prosodic reading would build fluency, however, sentiments from teachers also revealed lack of teaching resources. The following were views from the teachers.

TEG 9: "For students to read fluently, they must know how to vary their voices for meaning. Correct expression helps so much in building fluency and general understanding of what is being read. However, more exposure to proper intonation can be realized if we have relevant resource materials.. like audio tapes...videos... you know, they get to grasp the proper intonation on sentences and words. Or maybe if we had language labs in resource centers for practice."

TEG4: "When students pronounce words correctly, it means they have achieved reading fluency. And this means that the students have to engage in a lot of practice to know how to pronounce words correctly. Some students have difficulty in putting stress on the right syllable in words to convey meaning, and encouraging them to practice reading when they rehearse scripts has really helped in the area of pronunciation."

Read aloud strategy promotes active listening and speaking skills because learners listen attentively to information being read resulting in comprehension. Moreover, fluency is developed when learners verbalize words. Read aloud shows relationship between printed words and meaning when proper pronunciation relates to sounds represented. In tandem with the findings of this study, Yildrim et.al, (2017), found learners who had developed word recognition skills arrived at comprehension. Word recognition skills are crucial in developing fluency in reading which enhances comprehension because learners do not regress on words or phrases.

When learners rehearse scripts to be performed in the classroom, repeated reading is frequently used resulting in proper inflection in sentences and words. In addition, learners practice to phrase read and pause appropriately for meaning. Exposure to same reading several times enables learners familiarize with words and sentence structures resulting in fluency. Similar results were observed by Chang and Millett (2013), whereby learners achieved comprehension due to increase in fluency. Furthermore, comprehension is enhanced when learners share reading during performance and teachers model accurate reading. Shared reading facilitates development of fluency because learners repeat what has been observed in other similar readings. Furthermore, comprehension is achieved when teacher models reading and provide appropriate reading strategies. Provision of reading strategies enable learners activate background knowledge. The findings support observations by Karabag (2015), when learners arrived at comprehension because they enjoyed group reading of scripts. This implied that learners developed interest reading which was not a hindrance to understanding information relayed by the author.

Reading Skills Achievement Test Results

The study established pre-test and post test results in descriptive statistics illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for pre-test and post test

	Pre-test				Post test			
	Mean	Std. deviation	95% confidence interval level for mean		Mean	Std. deviation	95% confidence interval level for mean	
			Lower	Upper			Lower	Upper
Experimental	38.6	10.625	18	68	46.0	7.226	32	70
Control	37.8	10.141	15	67	43.3	7.833	26	66

The study findings illustrated in Table 3 reveal that the experimental group scored a mean M= 38.61 % (n=205), in the pre-test and M= 46.0 (n=205) in the post test. On the other hand, the control groups scored a men M= 37.87% (n=221), and a M= 43.3 (n=221) in the post test. Since the mean for experimental groups was higher than control groups, the study further sought to establish significant differences among the two study groups by conducting a t test. The findings are illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4. T-Test for Posttest

		t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	3.738	424	0.000	2.743	0.732

Notes p=.05

The t test results revealed a statistically significant difference between experimental and control groups. The null hypothesis was rejected because t (424) =3.738, p= 0.00 portraying that adapting and performing scripts enhanced comprehension.

Conclusion

The study revealed a statistically significant difference in the post test scores indicating adapting and performing scripts contributed to the better scores in the post test. Integration of English language skills such as oral and writing skills during reading instruction should be viewed as a valuable strategy. Adapting scripts triggers active learning when learners read deep in the text to come up with the information to be written in scripts. Interacting deep with the text guarantees comprehension. On the other hand, fluency is enhanced when scripts are performed because of repeated reading from teacher modelling. These activities facilitate a learner centered class through active engagement in the reading process. In agreement with the findings of the study, adapting and performing scripts integrates language skills in the reading classroom and should be practiced to enhance comprehension among secondary school learners. Besides curriculum developers should provide adequate materials for building fluency during reading instruction. Furthermore, a similar study may be conducted to establish other language skills strategies to be integrated with reading skills during instruction.

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COMPOUND WORDS IN ENGLISH

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Abstract

Language is a means of communication which is used by living beings to communicate with each other. There are many important components in language to create a successful communication, such as sound, sentence, meaning, and etc. One of the components is word. Word can be considered as a complex part in language since it has many different forms. Compound word, for example, is a word which is formed through one of the word-formation processes by combining one lexical item with another and thus produces a new word with a new meaning. This paper investigates the types of English compounds and the lexical categories which are resulted from the process of compounding. The first results showed that the types of English compounds are endocentric, exocentric, and copulative compounds. The second results showed that the lexical categories resulted from the process of compounding are noun compound, verb compound, and adjective compound. Based on the results, the researcher hopes that readers can gain deeper insight and knowledge on English compound words.

Keywords: compound, compounding, English, word

Introduction

Language is defined as a medium which can be used to have a communication to each other. Without language, it will be impossible to make any interractions, express feelings and emotions, and build a society. Fromkin (2014) says, “We talk to our friends, our associates, wives and husbands, lovers, teachers, parents, rivals, and even enemies” (p. 1). Such a statement means that we always use language in any situations and conditions, no matter to whom we have an interraction. Also, Emmitt and Pollock (1991) stated that “the limits of one’s language are the limits of his or her world” (p. 3). This means that understanding the world is set by the limits of one’s language. Therefore, it is very crucial to learn and understand language since it plays a major role in building a communication for living beings to each other.

Every living thing has at least one language for the purpose of communication. It allows living things to learn and adapt to changing circumstances far more quickly than would be achieved by evolution (Poole, 1999). In language, there are many important components which are used to make the communication successful, such as sound, grammar, meaning, and etc. One of the components is called word.

In linguistics, there are several different branches which study about different aspects in language. Mainly, there are phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. The branch which focuses on the study of word is called morphology, which deals with the internal constituent structure of words (Booij, 2005). It is similar to Lieber (2009), who states that morphology is the study of word formation, as well as the way new forms of words are coined in the languages of the world, and the way forms of words are varied depending on how they are used in sentences. Thus, it is simply defined that morphology is a branch of linguistics which examines or studies the theory of word.

Word is defined as the smallest free form which has a meaning in language. It is considered as the basic meaningful units that every language has (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). As stated by O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, and Katamba (1996) that word is "the smallest free form found in language" (p. 735). Words which are used to communicate by people in daily lives commonly exist within sentence chains and they consist of various forms. Some examples of the word-formation processes in language are affixation, infixation, suffixation, conversion or zero-derivation, reduplication, clipping, blending, backformation, and acronym. One of the processes which is oftenly discussed is the process of compounding. Then, the word which is resulted from the process is called a compound word.

In terms of the process of compounding, there are two types of words, namely compounds and non-compounds (Matthews, 1991). However, the one which will be discussed in this research is compound word. Compound word is formed by combining two words through the process of compounding. A simple definition is by Plag (2003), who defines "compounding (sometimes also called *composition*) as the combination of two words to form a new word" (p. 133). Aronoff (2011) defines the compound word as "a derived form resulted from the combination of two or more lexemes, e.g. space + ship > spaceship". The lexeme space can mean 'the area outside the earth's atmosphere where all of the other planets and stars are', while ship means 'a large boat that carries people or goods by sea'.

Previously, there were several examples of the research which discussed about compound words. First, the research was conducted by Budiarta (2016) in his research entitled Compound Words in Dawan Language. The research was aimed to identify the structure of compound words and the types of compound words in Dawan language. The results of the analysis showed that the compound words in Dawan language were structured by combining two different words whether the words were in the same or different category. The structures were built by combining the noun (N) with noun (N) like in the word mais-oni 'sugar', which was built by the noun mais 'salt' and the noun oni 'sweet'; noun (N) with verb (V) as in the word poni-hauno 'propose', which was built by the verb poni 'hang' and the noun hauno 'leaf'; verb (V) with verb (V), like in the word fua-tulu 'worship', which was built by the verb fua 'see', and the verb tulu 'give', and noun (N) with adjective (Adj) as in the word ume-kbubu 'kitchen', which was built by the noun ume 'house' and the adjective kbubu 'circle'. Also, the further analysis showed that they can also be classified into compound noun, compound verb, and compound adjective.

Second, the research was conducted by Altakhaineh (2016) in his research entitled What is a compound? The main criteria for compoundhood. The research aimed to find out the main cross-linguistic criteria for compound hood discussed in the related literature, with a special focus on English, ranking them from the most reliable to the least. The criteria such as orthographic, phonological, syntactic, and semantic in nature had been proposed to make a distinction between compounds and phrases. The results showed that the most reliable cross-linguistic criteria to distinguish between phrases and compounds were adjacency and referentiality. Also, the research proposed a definition for compounds which may be the most widely applicable. At last, the research concluded by ranking the main criteria for compound hood which was discussed in the study.

Third, the research on compound words was done by Rahadiyanti (2013) in her undergraduate thesis entitled *Compound Words in Political Articles of Strategic Review Magazine*. The research was aimed to analyse two problems, namely the ways of compound were formed and the meanings which were distributed in *Strategic Review* magazine. The first results of the research showed that there were three types of compound words, mainly compound nouns, compound verbs, and compound adjectives. The researcher employed sample study to collect the data from *Strategic Review* magazine. The second results showed that there were two classifications of compound word meanings, namely endocentric and exocentric compounds. Based on the analysis, it was found that endocentric compound was more frequent that exocentric compound in the magazine.

Fourth, the research was conducted by Bauer and Renouf (2001) in their research article which was entitled *A Corpus-Based Study of Compounding in English*. The research aimed to demonstrate the validity of the corpus-based study of English compounding patterns. The researchers used a large collection of journalism, from the U.K. daily broadsheet newspaper the *Independent*, which covered the period from 1988 to 1998. The results showed that the detailed analysis of corpus material can expose some unexpected trends even in a well-explored area such as compounding in English.

Fifth, the research on compound words was conducted by Cahyanti (2016) in the article entitled *Compound Words Used in Stephanie Meyer's Twilight*. The research was aimed to describe the types, functions, and meanings of the compound words in Stephanie Meyer's Twilight. The researcher employed qualitative methodology and content analysis method in analysing and interpreting the data. The results showed that there were 253 compound. Based on the types, there were 5 compound words categorised as open form, 65 compound words categorised as hyphenated form, and 183 compound words categorised as closed form. Based on the functions, there were 173 compound nouns, 13 compound verbs, and 67 compound adjectives. Last but not least, based on the meanings, there were 140 words of the exocentric compounds and 113 words of the endocentric compounds.

Sixth, the research was by Noumianty (2016) in her undergraduate thesis entitled *An Analysis of Compound Words on Culinary Terms in Masterchef U.S. Season 7*. There were two formulated research questions, namely (1) "How is the compound words process of the culinary terms in the *Masterchef U.S. Season 7*?" and (2) "What are the types and meanings of compound words that occur to the culinary terms in the *Masterchef U.S. Season 7*? The researcher used 15 food terms which were used in the cooking competition *Masterchef U.S. Season 7*. The results of the analysis showed that there were 12 attributive compounds, 2 subordinative compounds, and 1 coordinative compound. The researcher also classified the meanings of the compound words which have transparent and opaque meaning. The compounds which had a transparent meaning were 13 data while the compounds which had opaque meanings were 2 data.

Seventh, the research was conducted by Marqueta (2019) which was entitled *The Syntactic Structure of Pelirrojo Compounds*. In the study, the researcher aimed to argue that the structure of lexical compounds like *pelirrojo* was syntactic. The structures could be differentiated with different categorial projections and variable degrees of complexity. Also, she argued that the existence of an inalienable-only compound pattern showed that Spanish *pelirrojo* compounds contained a relational head which established an inalienable possession relationship between a possessee located inside the compound (*pelo* ‘hair’), and a possessor located outside (e.g., *Juan* in *Juan es pelirrojo*. ‘John is red-haired’).

Eight, the research was by Mata (2014) who wrote an article entitled *Compounding and Variational Morphology: The Analysis of Inflection in Spanish Compounds*. The research analysed the morphological variation related to gender and number in Spanish compounding, such as plural nouns in $[V+N]_N$, compounds (*el lavaplatos*, not *el lavaplato*; *el cazamariposas*, not *el cazamariposa*), gender and number asymmetries between the actual compound and its parts, the presence of inflectional markers inside compounds, and the variation that takes place in many plural compounds (*casas cuartel* or *casas cuarteles* ‘house quarter’, *coches cama* or *coches camas* ‘car and bed’).

From the discussion above, the researcher formulated two questions to be discussed, namely (1) “what are the types of compound processes in forming English compound words?” and (2) “what lexical categories are resulted from the process of compounding?” To answer the questions, the researcher referred to some different sources, including books, journals, and online sources.

Based on the formulated questions, there are two objectives to be discussed in this research. The first one is to find out the types of compound processes in forming English compound words. The second one is to identify the lexical categories which are resulted from the process of compounding.

Through this research, the researcher hopes that it can be beneficial to readers, particularly English learners, who are seeking to find out the words which are formed through various processes of compounding. Also, it is expected that readers can enrich their English compound words vocabulary knowledge.

Method

The researcher employed Qualitative Research to analyse and interpret the data. According to Grix (2004), qualitative research is “characterised by the use of methods that attempt to examine ‘inherent traits, characteristics, and qualities of the political objects of inquiry” (p. 173). This means that qualitative research attempts to examine data which is in the forms of written documents or phenomena. Such a characteristic is empowered by Merriam (2002), who highlights that qualitative research uses "words and pictures rather than numbers to convey what the researcher has learned about a phenomenon" (p. 5). Therefore, it can be concluded that this research used documents and the data were interpreted in the forms of descriptions, instead of numbers.

Library Study methodology as a way to collect and analyse the data of this research. Library study can be defined as "a step-by-step process used to gather information in order to write a paper, create a presentation, or complete a project" (Adasiak, 2014). The researcher collected the data by using several sources such as books, journal articles, and online websites. Some theories were used to analyse the data gathered, mainly Bauer (2003), and O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, and Katamba (1996). Besides, the researcher also created and used tree diagrams in interpreting the data to make the analysis easier to understand.

Findings and Discussion

This study intends to answer two questions, namely (1) what are the types of compound processes in forming English compound words? and (2) what lexical categories are resulted from the process of compounding? The results and discussion are as below.

Types of Compound Processes in Forming English Compound Words

There are three types of compound processes in forming English compound words which were found by the researcher, namely Endocentric Compound, Exocentric Compound, and Copulative Compound.

1. Endocentric Compound

Endocentric Compound is a type of compound whose meaning is a hyponym. Haspelmath and Sims (2010) states that endocentric compound is "a compound that consists of a head and a dependent (or several dependents) where the meaning of the semantic head is a hyponym of the meaning of the entire compound" (p. 327). Also, Bauer (2003) has the same definition as Haspelmath and Sims (2010). That is, "endocentric compounds are those where the compound denotes a hyponym of the head element in the compound" (p. 326). Below are examples of endocentric compound words.

Table A. The examples of endocentric compound words

Example	Meaning
air field	a field where airplanes land
air hose	a hose that carries air
airplane	a conveyence that travels through the air
bath towel	a towel used after bathing
bath tub	a place in which to bathe
fire drill	a practice in the event of a fire
fire truck	a vehicle used to put out fires
steamboat	a boat powered by steam

(O'Grady et al, 1996, p. 155)

From the examples above, it can be seen that the headwords of the endocentric compounds are on the right. Katamba (1993) says "it has been recognised for a long time that most English compounds are endocentric, with the head normally is located on the right" (p. 305). It means that the words are considered endocentric when the first word serves as the modifier of the second word or the head which specifies the meaning of the head more precisely.

2. Exocentric Compound

Exocentric (Bahuvrihi) Compound is one of the types of compounds which does not contain a headword and dependent word (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010). Bauer (2003) states that exocentric compound "denotes something which is not a sub-class of either the elements in the compound, that is they are not hyponyms of either of their elements" (p. 42). In Exocentric Compound, the interesting fact is that it can use an irregular plural marker, or plural suffix *-s* in the headword (O'Grady et al, 1996).

Table B. Some examples of exocentric compound words using suffix *-s*

Example	Meaning
Big<u>foot</u><u>s</u>	members of an extinct tiger species
Maple Leaf<u>s</u>	Toronto's National Hockey League team
Sabre t<u>oo</u>th<u>s</u>	extinct species of tiger
Walkm<u>a</u>n<u>s</u>	a type of portable audio cassettee player

3. Copulative Compound

Copulative or Dvandva compound is a type of compound which "denotes an entity made up of the various parts listed in the form" (Bauer, 2003, p. 327). The word Dvandva comes from Sanskrit, which means "pair". In other words, this type of compound has two semantic heads.

Copulative compound words are formed when two or more words which have a coordinate relationship are put together to form a new word with a new meaning. This means that in order to form a copulative compound, two nouns must be able to be connected by *and* and they are joined together. In English, there are not so many copulative compound words since the productivity of the process is limited. There are a few examples of English copulative compound words, such as *bittersweet*, *sleepwalk*, *player-manager*, *secretary-treasurer*, *father-daughter*, *mother-son*.

Lexical Categories Resulted from the Process of Compounding

So far, the researcher has found that there were three lexical categories which were resulted from the process of compounding, namely the compound noun category, the compound verb category, and the compound adjective category. The categories are resulted from the process of combination of different lexical categories which are united into one category (O'Grady *et al*., 1996). Below is the explanation of each type of the category.

1. Compound Noun Category

Compound noun category is a compound noun word which is formed by combining at least two or more words to which the head serves as a noun. Mostly, the compound noun category in English is formed by a noun which is modified by other nouns or adjectives. Some examples of the structures of the noun compound words and their categories are as below.

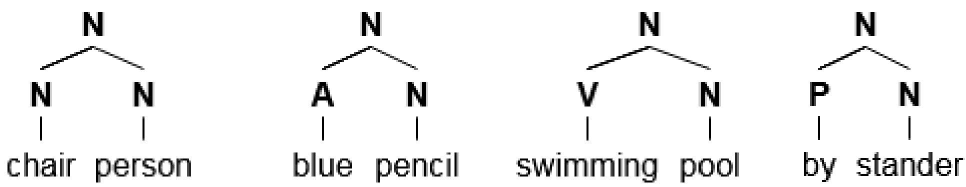

Figure A. The structures of Compound Nouns

From the figure, it can be seen that each compound noun has a noun which serves as the head. The structure of the first diagram is *chair* (N) + *person* (N) = *chair person* (N), which means "people in charge of or controlling other people". The second diagram shows that *blue* (A) + *pencil* (N) = *blue pencil* (N). It means "a pencil which has a blue colour". The third one is *swimming pool* (N), which is formed from *swimming* (V) + *pool* (N). This means "an area of water which has been created for people to swim in. Last but not least, there is also *bystander* (N) which has been formed by combining *by* (P) and *stamder* (N). *Bystander* means "a person who sees something but is not involved". Overall, it can be concluded that compound noun is a type of compound whose head is a noun and it can be joined with several categories, such as *Noun* (N), *Verb* (V), *Adjective* (A), and *Preposition* (P).

2. Compound Verb Category

Compound verb category can be defined as a compound verb word which is formed by combining at least two words to which the head word serves as a verb. Scientifically, there are two definitions of the compound verb. In *traditional grammar*, verb phrase is a main verb category as well as the auxiliary verb, or it can also be a linking verb. In *generative grammar*, verb phrase is a predicate in a sentence which include main verb, auxiliary verb, and modifier. Below is several examples of the compound verbs structures and their categories.

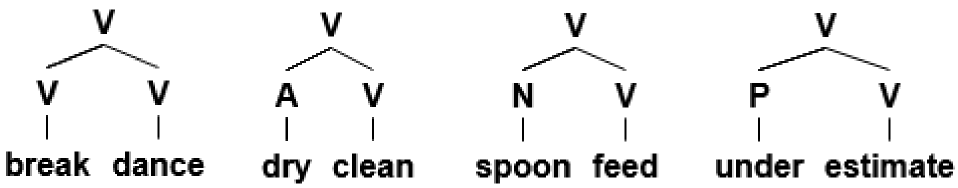

Figure B. The structures of Compound Verbs

Based on the diagrams above, it is described that compound verb structures contain *Noun* (N), *Verb* (V), *Adjective* (A), and *Preposition* (P) with *Verb* (V) as the head. The first one is *break-dance*, whose meaning is "to dance with acrobatic movements". The composition of this word is *break* (V) and *dance* (V). The second one is *dry-clean* ("to clean clothes using chemicals instead of water"), which is formed through the combination of *dry* (A) and *clean* (V). The third one is *spoon-feed* ("to teach people something in a way that gives them too much help and does not make them think for themselves"). This word is the result of the combination of *spoon* (N) and *feed* (V). The fourth one is *underestimate* (V) whose meaning is "to not realise how good, strong, determined somebody really is. In short, it can be seen that the compound verb category contains the *Verb* (V) category as its head and can be combined with several other different categories.

3. Compound Adjective Category

Compound adjective is formed when two or more adjectives are joined together to modify the same noun. The researcher found that there were three lexical categories which could be combined with the adjective to form the compound adjectives, namely *Adjective* (A), *Preposition* (P), and *Noun* (N). The examples of the structures of the compound adjectives are shown below.

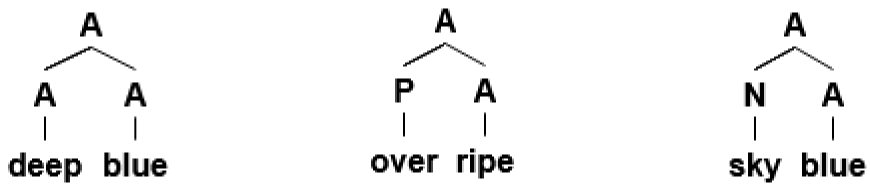

Figure C. The structures of Compound Adjectives

The first diagram showed that combining two adjectives could produce a compound adjective. The word *deep* (A) + *blue* (A) became *deep blue* (A), which means "*the blue colour which is as blue as a sea*". The second diagram showed the compound adjective which was produced by combining the words *over* (P) and *ripe* (A). Thus, it created *over-ripe* (A), which means "*too ripe*". The last diagram was the combination between *sky* (N) and *blue* (N). Hence, it produced the compound adjective *sky-blue*, whose meaning is "*bright blue like the sky on a clear day"*.

Conclusion

In this research, there were two research questions which had been formulated by the researcher, namely (1) "what are the types of compound processes in forming English compound words?" and (2) "what lexical categories are resulted from the process of compounding?". The first results showed that there were three types of compound processes in forming English compound words, mainly Endocentric Compound, Exocentric Compound, and Copulative or Dvandva Compound. Several examples of Endocentric compound words were air field, bath towel, firetruck, and steamboat. In Exocentric Compound, the examples were Bigfoots, Maple Leafs, Sabre Tooths, and Walkmans. Last but not least, in Copulative Compound, the examples were bittersweet, sleepwalk, player-manager, secretary-treasurer, father-daughter, mother-son.

The second results showed that there were three lexical categories which were resulted from the process of compounding, namely Compound Noun Category, Compound Verb Category, and Compound Adjective Category. In Compound Noun Category, it was found that some lexical categories such as Noun, Adjective, Verb, and Preposition could be combined with the noun category to produce compound nouns, like chair person, blue pencil, swimming pool, and bystander. In Compound Verb Category, there were four examples of lexical categories which could be joined with the verb, namely Verb (V), Adjective (A), Noun (N), and Preposition (P). The compound verbs were breakdance, dry clean, spoon feed, and underestimate. Last, in Compound Adjective Category, there were three lexical categories which were able to be combined with the adjective, mainly Adjective (A), Preposition (P), and Noun (N). The examples of the words were deep blue, over-ripe, and sky-blue.

Through this research, the researcher hopes that this topic, compound words in English, can be beneficial to readers, such as linguists, language teachers, and language learners. To linguists, especially morphologists, this research can be used as a source of reference in researching language words in the field of morphology. To language teachers, it is hoped that this research is applicable in teaching vocabulary to students in classrooms. To language learners, particularly those who wish to be able to enrich the vocabulary, this research is useful since the compounding process is productive enough in creating or producing new words and meanings.

Aside of that, the researcher also hopes that there will be more researchers who conduct research in compound words. Besides English, there are still many languages whose compounding processes have not been researched yet. It will be a good idea to research and analyse deeper the interface between compound words and meanings. Furthermore, the researcher wishes that there will be a research which discuss and analyse compound words qualitatively.

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IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS AND THEIR INDONESIAN SUBTITLES IN *THE GOOD DOCTOR* TV SERIES

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Abstract

Idiomatic expressions are used to describe things or conditions that cannot be described by plain words. They carry more impacts than non-idiomatic expressions due to their close identification with a particular language and culture. This research investigates idiomatic expressions and their Indonesian subtitles in *The Good Doctor* TV series. Two research questions are addressed in this study, namely (1) what types of idiomatic expressions are found in *The Good Doctor* TV series? and (2) how are the idiomatic expressions in the TV series translated into Indonesian? The researchers employed content analysis. The steps of data collection and analysis included taking the transcript and identifying the idiomatic expressions, identifying their meanings and validating them, and comparing the meanings of the two idiomatic expressions. The results revealed that, first, *The Good Doctor* TV series contained five types of idiomatic expressions, namely substitutes, proper names, English phrasal compound, figure of speech, and slang. Abbreviation was not found in the TV series. Second, there existed six translation strategies to translate idiomatic expressions in English into Indonesian.

Keywords: types of idiomatic expressions, translation strategies

Introduction

Nowadays, learning English is needed to survive in this era of globalization (Tochon, 2009). As English consists of fixed expressions, it is important to understand them. Idiomatic expression is one of the fixed expressions, which is also called ‘idioms’, ‘idiomatic phrase’, ‘fixed phrases’, and ‘phraseological units’ (Dąbrowska, 2018). The expression is important to be learned due to several reasons. First, it represents different reality, different sources, and components (Poshi & Lacka, 2016). It means that idiomatic expressions have a double meaning; they have a literal meaning and an idiomatic meaning. Second, according to Gaines (1986, p. vii), “Idiomatic expressions give English its color and vitality. They are crucial to the daily speech of the people and the language of newspapers and books, television and movies.” Third, idiomatic expressions add grace and exactness to the language (Dixson, 1983). Idiomatic expressions are used to describe things or conditions that cannot be described by using plain words. Lastly, idiomatic expressions are also important in communication in order to learn a new culture (Tochon, 2009).

Idiomatic expressions can be defined as a number of words which have different meaning from the individual meanings of each word (Siedl & McMordie, 1988). They are considered as multiword expressions whose meanings are not predictable from their component parts (Makkai, 1972). The meaning of the idiomatic expressions is different from the words when they are taken separately. The sentences containing idioms do not get their meanings from the usual compositional rules to the usual meaning of their constituents (Egan, 2008).

Idiomatic expressions are used in daily conversations. They can also be found in movies and TV series. For non-native speakers, subtitles are usually available when a series is played. According to Coelh (2003), a subtitle is an audio-visual translation where one language as a source language is transferred into another language. Through the daily conversation that is in the TV series, idiomatic expressions become a part of the subtitle translation.

According to Shojaei (2012), the processes of translating idioms and fixed expressions from one language into another are a fine work which obliges a good knowledge of the languages and cultures that are being shared. Idioms and idiomatic expressions also cannot be neglected when translating a set expression from one language to another because they deal with the notion of fixness from linguistic and cultural perspectives (Horvathova & Tabackova, 2018). It means that the translation of idiomatic expressions is based on the translators' understanding about the idiomatic expressions which later leads to different expressions.

Studies on the translation of idiomatic expressions have been conducted so far. Shojaei (2012) analysed the strategies and difficulties in the translation of idioms and fixed expressions. The results showed that there were four problems which were encountered in different situations, namely no TL idiomatic expressions equivalence, similar counterpart but different meaning, the usage of idiomatic expressions' literal and idiomatic senses, and different contexts usage of idiomatic expressions. Second, Jabbari (2016) analysed the translation strategies which were employed by the Persian translator of the selected rendering idiomatic expressions. He also analysed the Persian translations of English idiomatic expressions rendering the exact degree of idiomaticity. The results showed that only 6 strategies were more frequent than the others, namely expansion, literal translation, functional equivalents, reduction, cultural equivalent, and descriptive equivalent.

Another study was conducted by Poshi and Lacka (2016). They analysed the problems and explored the methods, strategies and techniques related to the translation of idioms and fixed expressions. The findings showed that in order to translate idiomatic expressions as correctly as possible, a number of factors should be taken into consideration, such as culture, translator's understanding about the language, and use of neologism by employing paraphrase techniques. Fourth, Ren and Yu (2013) analysed whether translating English idioms into Mandarin can employ literal translation only or not. The findings showed that in order to translate English idioms, the culture had to be taken into full consideration. Lastly, Ali and Sayyiyed Al-Rushaidi (2016) analysed the difficulties encountered by Omani undergraduate students majoring in English language teaching and literature when translating idiomatic and culturally-bound expressions from English to Arabic. The findings showed the difficulties that the students faced included their inability to find a suitable equivalence, misinterpretation of the meaning of the idiom, usage of literal translation which did not convey the meaning, and omission of the whole or some parts of the idioms.

The researchers find idiomatic expression as an interesting issue to be investigated further because idioms "carry more impact than non-idiomatic expressions because of their close identification with a particular language and culture" just as Nida (2001, p. 28) stated. This study focuses on the translation of idiomatic expressions in The Good Doctor TV series. The researchers use the TV series because it contains both common and uncommon idiomatic expressions in daily life. The Good Doctor itself is a TV series which is taken from Park's Good Doctor (2013). The Good Doctor was published on 25 September 2017 by Sony Pictures Television. It is a medical drama which focuses on the main character, Shaun Murphy, who has autism. The subtitles of the series contain an unusual and unique form of translation because of its cohabitation with the original text and "its asymmetric endeavour of rendering original speech into written target text" (Diaz-Cintas, 2008, p. 186). Besides, according to Díaz Cintas (2008), the subtitles help to travel across linguistic borders which increase the number of viewers.

Idiomatic expressions have several meanings which make them difficult for translators to translate. Since they are colloquial or slang, idiomatic expressions cannot be translated using word by word strategies. It is difficult to find the equivalence in the target language. In order to translate idiomatic expressions, several factors must be considered by the translators. The research questions addressed in this research are:

1) What types of idiomatic expressions are found in The Good Doctor TV series?
2) How are the idiomatic expressions in the TV series translated into Indonesian?

Method

This research employed content analysis. Content analysis is a method that identifies categories by selecting utterances from a text, which are then classified and grouped together (Heigram & Crocker, 2009, p. 307). According to Weber (1990), content analysis is a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from texts. The data used in this study were idiomatic expressions in the utterances. The utterances mean specific events, the intentional acts of a speaker at certain times and places, typically involving language (Silalahi, 2016). The utterances refer to sentences and phrases. The utterances were from the subtitles of *The Good Doctor* TV series. The subtitles were taken from *isubtitles.info*. It was created on June 5th, 2016 and has a global traffic rank of #5, 906 in the world.

To gather the data, the researchers followed the steps proposed by Cacciari and Tabossi (1993). The first step was taking the transcripts from *isubtitles.info*. After that, the researchers identified the idiomatic expressions. The researchers verified the idiomatic expressions by using the theories from Hockett (1958) and crosschecked them with Gaines' (1986) *Idiomatic American English* and

Hornby's (2010) *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (8th Edition). The second step was identifying the meanings of the words of both variant and original idioms and validating them. The third step was comparing the word meanings of the two idiomatic expressions. Fourth, the researchers inputted the translation of the subtitles taken from the subtitles into Table 1.

Table 1. List of idiomatic expressions

No	Idiomatic Expressions	Source Validator

The researchers made two tables; one table contains Hockett's (1958) types of idioms and the other table contains Vinay and Darbelnet's (2000) strategies of translation. In the process, the researchers did coding. Coding means to label or give names to passages within the text which express a particular idea or refer to an event (Heigram & Crocker, 2009).

Table 2. List of Types of Idioms

Utterance	Episode duration	Types						Justification
		Sub	PN	Abb	EPC	FoS	Sla	

Abbreviations:

Sub : Substitutes

PN : Proper Names

Abb : Abbreviations

EPC : English Phrasal Compounds

FoS : Figure of Speech

Sla : Slang words

Table 3. The Strategies of translation

Utterance		Episode, duration	Strategies							NT	Justifi-cation
SL	TL		Bo	Ca	Lit	Tra	Mo	Eq	Ad		

Abbreviations:

Bo : Borrowing
Ca : Calque
Lit : Literal Translation
Tra : Transposition
Mo : Modulation
Eq : Equivalence
Ad : Adaption

Findings and discussion

Types of Idiomatic Expressions in *The Good Doctor* TV series

Based on the findings, there were 253 idiomatic expressions. One utterance could be included in more than one type. Table 4 shows that there were 265 types of idiomatic expressions from *The Good Doctor* TV series. The most frequent type of idiomatic expressions found in *The Good Doctor* TV series was English phrasal compound with 37.35% of the total percentage. It was followed by figure of speech and substitutes with 31.69% and 26.41%. The next types were slang words and proper names with only 3.39% and 1.13% of the total percentage.

Table 4. Types of idiomatic expressions in *The Good Doctor* TV series

No	Types of Idiomatic Expressions	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Substitutes	70	26.41%
2.	Proper Names	3	1.13%
3.	Abbreviations	0	0%
4.	English Phrasal Compounds	99	37.35%
5.	Figure of Speech	84	31.69%
6.	Slang words	9	3.39%
TOTAL		265	100%

Substitutes

Substitutes have to do with the replacement of one item by another (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). According to Hockett (1958), substitutes are divided into anaphoric substitutes and numbers. Anaphoric substitutes mean an expression that refers to something mentioned earlier in the context. The numbers in substitutes also show a similar variation of a specific reference. In this research, 70 utterances were included in substitutes. The example is as follows:

1) We're gonna cut your chest open, we're gonna stop your heart, repair **it** and restart it. (Episode 1, duration 09:35-09:39)

Doctor Browne was explaining how the procedure of the surgery to her patient by saying, "We're gonna cut your chest open, we're gonna stop your heart, repair **it** and restart it." The bold word 'it' is idiomatically a noun that refers to the heart that was going to be stopped, then repaired. Therefore, it is counted as anaphoric substitutes.

Another example is from Episode 4:

2) We're gonna assist Andrews when **he** drains it first thing in the morning. (Episode 4, duration 12:01-12:03)

There were 2 major surgeries that Doctor Melendez's team handled. The first one was a surgery for a pregnant woman with a tumour next to her unborn child. The second one was a surgery on a young lady who had a tumour on her genital which made the surgeons needed to cut the nerve on the genital area. Doctor Browne told Doctor Melendez that she and Doctor Murphy would assist Doctor Andrews in the surgery since it was not the usual STD. In this utterance, Doctor Browne said, "We're gonna assist Andrews when **he** drains it first thing in the morning." The word 'he' is idiomatically a noun which refers to Doctor Andrews. Thus, this idiomatic expression counted as an anaphoric substitute.

The next example is from Episode 5:

3) Yeah, **911**? (Episode 5, duration 01:41-01:42)

There were two patients that Doctor Melendez's team took care of. One of the patients was an old man who had tapeworms in his body. The old man's son who found out his father had collapsed called 911, "Yeah, **911**?" There was no further explanation of '911' in the conversation, but '911' itself refers to American emergency telephone number. The vagueness of the idiomatic '911' makes '911' counted as numbers in substitutes.

The last example is from Episode 6:

4) Can I have four pancakes instead of **three**? (Episode 6, duration 42:07-42:09)

The story began when several patients came into the E.R. from the bus wreck. Melendez's team had the opportunity to handle the patients by themselves. By the end of the hectic day, Murphy was in the cafeteria with Doctor Glassman. He asked, "Can I have four pancakes instead of **three**?" There was no further elaboration from Murphy of what 'three' means. However, 'three' here refers to the pancakes that was mentioned before. In order to not have repetition on the word 'pancakes', it could be omitted so the word 'three' does not necessarily need a follow-up explanation. It makes the word 'three' counted as numbers in substitutes.

Proper Names

Proper Names is idiom-creating events called naming. The naming can be used for people, places, individual animals, spirits, or vehicles (Hockett, 1958). Proper names are a symbol which designates an entity of which there is only one. 3 utterances were included in Proper Names. The example is presented below.

5) I'm in pain, **28**, all the time. (Episode 7, duration 16:40-16:43)

Doctor Kalu had to take care of an old grumpy man who kept running away from the medication. Some ups and downs made Kalu feel devastated yet at the same time he learnt something new. The old grumpy man said to Doctor Kalu, "I'm in pain, **28**, all the time." In the conversation before this, Doctor Kalu mentioned his age when the old man asked. He did not believe that Doctor Kalu could be a resident surgeon at his young age. Then, the old man started using Doctor Kalu's age instead of his name to call Doctor Kalu. The word '28' itself is idiomatically a noun that refers to Doctor Kalu's age.

English Phrasal Compound

A phrasal compound is the use of two or more words to form a single thought (Jorgensen, n.d.). Phrasal compound is divided into phrasal verbs and phrasal adjectives. Phrasal verbs, which are commonly known as compound verbs, can be formed by combining a verb with a preposition, with an adverb, or with both. Meanwhile, phrasal adjectives, known as compound adjectives, come from multiple types of combinations. They are nouns and participles, adjectives and participles, or nouns and adjectives. There were 99 utterances with English phrasal compound as their type of idiomatic expressions. The example is presented below.

6) Not only that, I think he **looks up** to you. (Episode 7, duration 20:11-20:12)

Doctor Browne consoled Doctor Murphy about his autistic patient. She tried to boost Doctor Murphy's confidence in his patient by saying, "Not only that, I think he **looks up** to you." The words 'looks up' mean to admire (Hornby, 2010). It is counted as a phrasal verb with the formula: look (verb) + up (adverb).

The second example is from Episode 8:

7) It is and you're gonna **make sure** he stays that way. (Episode 8, duration 12:20-12:22)

The story started when Murphy accidentally got in the middle of robbery which ended up with a girl being shot and the gunman getting hit on his head. Murphy and Melendez did surgery on the girl and took care of her since there was a complication. On the other side, Doctor Browne assisted Doctor Lim to take care of the gunman. Doctor Lim made Doctor Browne keep an eye on the gunman by saying, "It is and you're gonna **make sure** he stays that way." The words 'make sure' means to see something yourself (Gaines, 1986). 'Make sure' is counted as phrasal verb with the formula: make (verb) + sure (adverb). The words 'make sure' means to "ensure that something is done". Some synonyms include "make certain, confirm, check."

The third example is from Episode 16:

8) When you lose their respect, no matter what you do, no matter how many wins you **chalk up**, you'll never get it back. (Episode 16, duration 16:36-16:41)

The story focused on two surgeries. The first one was Doctor Murphy and Doctor Browne's patient who was paralyzed from waist to below. The second one was Doctor Kalu and Doctor Reznick's patient who suffered from an infection in her plastic surgery. Doctor Reznick told Doctor Kalu, "When you lose their respect, no matter what you do, no matter how many wins you **chalk up**, you'll never get it back." 'Chalk up' here is the idiomatic expression of to score (Gaines, 1986). In this case, 'chalk up' is counted as a phrasal verb with the formula: chalk (verb) + up (adverb).

Another example is from Episode 16:

9) Sometimes, it's tough to actually **get out of** those doors. (Episode 16, duration 22:27-22:30)

The story focused on Doctor Murphy and Doctor Browne's patient and also Doctor Kalu and Doctor Reznick's patient. Doctor Murphy and Doctor Browne's patient was paralyzed from the waist to below. Doctor Melendez was consoling the disabled man's wife when he said, "Sometimes, it's tough to actually **get out of** those doors." 'Get out of' is idiomatically a phrasal verb with the formula: get (verb) + out (adverb) + of (preposition). 'Get out of' means to withdraw or leave (Gaines, 1986).

Figure of Speech

Figure of speech corresponds to mental "figures" that are grounded in cognition (Gibbs, 1994). Figures of speech can be found in primitive oral literature, such as prose and poetry, and everyday speech. In everyday contexts, most figures of speech are formed by extending the vocabulary of what is already familiar and better known to what is less known. There were 84 utterances which used figure of speech as the type of idiomatic expressions. The example is as follows.

10) Is this the chairman's version of a **pep talk**? (Episode 3, duration 04:30-04:32)

The story focuses on three events. One of them is Doctor Andrews' patient who had irritation from her plastic surgery. Doctor Andrews was about to perform surgery when suddenly Allegra Aoki came to talk to him about his 4 pm patient. She wanted to access this since the patient was close to making the foundation his tax relief. She wanted the surgery to go well and referred to Doctor Melendez as

Doctor Andrews' second man by saying that it would help the hospital. Doctor Andrews got offended and asked whether it was the chairman's version of **pep talk**. The keyword of ‘Pep talk’ is the word ‘talk’. ‘Pep talk’ itself refers to an expression of a talk to arouse enthusiasm (Gaines, 1986).

The second example is from Episode 3:

11) Without the rules, we’re **playing God**. (Episode 3, duration 32:56-32:57)

The story was about a patient who needed a new liver. There were several complications, for example the liver patient who was not supposed to drink decided to drink a glass of wine at his daughter's graduation party. It postponed the surgery. The board had a meeting about whether or not they should perform the surgery since it would be very dangerous due to the alcohol the man drank. Doctor Andrews had a heated argument with Doctor Melendez who claimed that the man's alcohol level was low and he could still perform the surgery. Then, Doctor Andrews replied by saying that there are rules for a reason. He said, "Without the rules, we're **playing God**.” The idiom ‘playing God’ refers to the figure of expression to behave as if you control events or people’s life. In this context, if they perform the surgery, it means they are playing with the man’s life.

The third example is from Episode 9:

12) So, what was the point of this **dog and pony show**? (Episode 9, duration 18:33-18:34)

Doctor Melendez and Doctor Murphy met with the hospital’s vice president. They presented Murphy’s idea to her. When the vice president asked about the risks, Doctor Melendez told her that the surgery might not work. She then asked them the point of the ‘dog and pony show’. ‘Dog and pony show’ is an expression of selling an idea in order to impress people and get their support.

Another example is from Episode 11:

13) In one day, I taught you how to **play hooky** from work, how to drive, how to drink, and how to totally rock the house in karaoke. (Episode 11, duration 28:09-28:16)

One story was about Murphy’s trip where he needed space from Doctor Glassman who was being pushy. On the night after Murphy and his roommate finished their drink, they walked back to their motel. His roommate, Leah, told him, “In one day, I taught you how to **play hooky** from work, how to drive, how to drink, and how to totally rock the house in karaoke.” The keyword of ‘play hooky’ is the word ‘play’. ‘Play hooky’ itself refers to an expression that means missing school or work without permission (Gaines, 1986).

Slang words

Slang words are a very informal words and expressions that are commonly used by young people (Hornby, 1995). Their nature is clear. Slang words depend on the effect of the striking and far-fetched nature of their semantic overtones and their secondary associations. There were 9 utterances which used slang as the type of idiomatic expressions.

14) But, if you want to tell people that **you're screwing me**, go for it. (Episode 1, duration 08:05-08:10)

Doctor Browne, a surgical resident, was disagreeing with Doctor Melendez, her mentor. Doctor Kalu, another surgical resident, brought up the topic that he and Doctor Browne were sleeping together. It made Doctor Browne offended. She said by the end of the argument, "But, if you want to tell people that **you're screwing me**, go for it." The word 'you're screwing me' refers to a slang expression of having sex with someone (Hornby, 2010). In this case, 'you're screwing me' means that Doctor Kalu had sexual intercourse with Doctor Browne.

The second example is from Episode 6:

15) **Kiss ass**. (Episode 6, duration 00:56-00:57)

It was the first time for Doctor Melendez' team to have a night shift. They were introduced to Doctor Lim. By the beginning of their night shift, Doctor Kalu gave his hand-made coffee to his subordinates. When he gave the last one to Doctor Lim, she replied, "Oh. **Kiss ass**." The term 'kiss ass' refers to a slang expression of being very nice to someone in order to persuade them to help or give you something (Hornby, 2010). In this case, Doctor Lim thought Doctor Kalu was trying to make a good first impression by giving the coffee to her.

Another example is from Episode 7:

16) Tell them to go **screw themselves**. (Episode 7, duration 25:35-25:37)

The story was about two patients, namely a boy with autism and an old man who did not want to live any longer. Murphy had to take care of the boy and Kalu had to take care of the old man. The story became more complicated when the patients did not comply with the treatment. Doctor Murphy was the one who found out what was wrong with Liam, the autistic boy. However, Liam's parents did not want Murphy to be on the team that would perform the surgery for their son. They thought that there was no way an autistic person could perform surgery. Doctor Melendez was upset about this and asked for Doctor Glassman's advice. Doctor Glassman then gave him advice to either let (them stomp on his shoes and everything went smooth?) or tell them to go **screw themselves** and gave a recommendation for another hospital. 'Screw themselves' here refers to a slang expression of an offensive way of showing that you are extremely annoyed by someone and you want them to go away. "Screw it" can also mean that the person who say that does not care about something. Since Doctor Melendez was upset, he was annoyed with the parents for deciding who should or should not be on his team.

Strategies of Translation in *The Good Doctor* TV Series

Based on the findings, there were 253 utterances gathered by the researchers. One utterance could have more than one translation strategy. Table 4.2 shows that there were 256 utterances strategies of translation from The Good Doctor TV series. The most frequent strategy of translation which could be found in The Good Doctor TV series was Equivalence with 72.65% of the total percentage. Then, it was followed by literal translation with 16.40%. There are other findings with 6.64%. These other findings are counted as not translated. The next one is borrowing and adaptation with 1.56%. The last two are transposition and modulation with 0.78% and 0.39%. Table 5 shows the strategies of translation found in *The Good Doctor*:

Table 5. Strategies of translation in *The Good Doctor* TV series

No	Strategies of Translation	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Borrowing	4	1.56%
2.	Calque	0	0%
3.	Literal Translation	42	16.40%
4.	Transposition	2	0.78%
5.	Modulation	1	0.39%
6.	Equivalence	186	72.65%
7.	Adaption	4	1.56%
8.	Not Translated	17	6.64%
TOTAL		256	100%

Borrowing

Borrowing means borrowing a word or expression from Source Language (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000). Borrowing is applied in two situations: either discussing a new technical process where the term does not exist in the Target Language or maintaining a word from Source Language for stylistic effect. There were 4 utterances which used borrowing as the translation strategy. The example is presented below.

17) Episode 5

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Yeah, **911**?	Ya, **911**?

There were two major surgeries that Doctor Melendez's team took care of. The first one was an old man who had tapeworms in his body. He was found unconscious by his son. Then, his son called **911** immediately. 911 itself is the American emergency telephone number. In this example, the translator used the

American emergency telephone number instead of using Indonesian emergency telephone number which is 119. The act of keeping the original term, which in this case is the American emergency number, is called Borrowing.

Literal translation

Literal translation is translating the Source Language literally (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000). Translating word by word to maintain the original meaning is considered acceptable in literal translation. There were 42 utterances which used literal translation. The example is as follows:

18) Episode 4

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
We're gonna assist Andrews when **he** drains it first thing in the morning.	Kami akan mendampingi Andrews saat **dia** menyedotnya besok pagi.

Doctor Melendez's team was split into two to handle two major surgeries. Doctor Browne was explaining to Doctor Melendez their current patient's situation. In this case, **'**dia' is the literal meaning of 'he'.

The second example is presented below.

19) Episode 4

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
And if either of you needs anything, even just to talk, **my door's always open**.	Jika kalian butuh sesuatu, atau mau bicara, **pintuku selalu terbuka**.

Doctor Browne and Doctor Murphy successfully assisted Doctor Andrews in surgery. Doctor Andrews praised them while mentioning that he knew Doctor Melendez rarely praised them. He also mentioned that 'his door's always open' for both of the residents. In this case, 'my door's always open' was translated literally into 'pintuku selalu terbuka'.

The third example is presented below.

20) Episode 8

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
I know your behaviour is not completely in your control, but I also know it's not completely **out of your control**.	Sikapmu tidak benar-benar ada dalam kendalimu, tapi sikapmu juga tidak benar-benar ada **di luar kendalimu**.

Doctor Murphy was at the crime scene where a robbery happened. Unfortunately, a girl was shot because of his action. Doctor Glassman was lecturing Doctor Murphy on his behaviour, but Doctor Murphy denied that it was his fault. Getting angry, Doctor Glassman told Doctor Murphy that his action was not completely 'out of his control'. In this case, 'out of your control' had been translated literally into 'di luar kendalimu'.

Another example is presented below.

21) Episode 9

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Good for you.	**Bagus untukmu**.

Doctor Andrews and Doctor Browne were handling the woman who might have cancer. In order to know for sure, they took a sample to test it. However, the sample went missing. The hospital did not want to apologize because the woman could take it to the court. Doctor Browne was sorry for her, so that she decided to follow her heart and apologize to the woman. Doctor Melendez witnessed this event and told her, "Good for you." In this case, "bagus untukmu" is the literal translation of "good for you".

Transposition

Transposition is changing the word class or grammatical structure without changing the meaning of the message (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000). It is counted in oblique translation. Based on the findings, there are two types of transposition. They are adverb-verb and verb-noun. There were 2 utterances which used transposition. The example is as follows:

22) Episode 5

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
We've just never been **on the same page**, you know.	Kami cuma tidak pernah **sependapat**.

The man with tapeworms in his body was prepared for surgery. His son was seeking comfort from Doctor Kalu. He said that his father was a good man, it was just that they had never been 'on the same page'. 'On the same page' is an adverb phrase that turned into 'sependapat' (verb) when it was translated. This transposition used the adverb-verb type.

Another example is presented below.

23) Episode 9

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Because I will be damned if I'm gonna have my voice box removed just because **somebody screwed up**.	Karena aku akan marah jika pita suaraku diangkat, cuma karena **kesalahan orang lain**.

The woman who might have cancer got mad at Doctor Andrews and Doctor Browne because they did not want to apologize for losing the sample for the test. She said, "because I will be damned if I'm gonna have my voice box removed just because **somebody screwed up**." 'Somebody screwed up' is based on verb phrase which translated to 'kesalahan orang lain' (noun phrase). This transposition used verb-noun type.

Modulation

Modulation changes the point of view or cognitive category in relation to the source language (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000). Based on the findings, there is one type of modulation. It is a negative contrast in explanatory modulation type. There was an utterance that used modulation as the strategy of translation. The example is presented below.

24) Episode 1

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
The day that the rain smelled like ice cream, my bunny went to heaven in front of my eyes. The	Hari di mana hujan berbau seperti es krim, kelinciku pergi ke surge di depan mataku. Hari di mana pipa

day that the copper pipes in the old building smelled like burnt food, my brother went to heaven in front of my eyes. I couldn't save them. It's sad. Neither **one** had the chance to become an adult.	tembag di Gedung tua berbau seperti makanan panggang, adikku pergi ke surge di depan mataku. Aku tidak bisa selamatkan mereka. Menyedihkan. **Mereka** tidak dapat kesempatan untuk menjadi dewasa.

The board of the hospital had an argument related to the acceptance of Doctor Murphy in the hospital. The vice president of the hospital then asked Murphy the reason he wanted to be a doctor. He replied by telling the story where he lost both of his brother and his rabbit at a young age. Neither of them had the chance to grow up. ‘Neither of them' is a negative construction which then rendered into ‘mereka'. The word ‘mereka' is a positive one. Therefore, this case is counted as the negative contrast of modulation.

Equivalence

Equivalence means finding the words from the target language which have the same equivalence with the source language (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000). Equivalence is also counted as oblique translation. 186 utterances used equivalence as the translation strategy. The example is presented below.

25) Episode 2

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
I went **out on a limb** for him.	Aku mengambil **resiko** untuk dia.

Doctor Murphy had to work with his nurse assistant as Doctor Melendez did not want to be disturbed by Doctor Murphy's behaviour. He had to check on the lab result that Doctor Kalu and Doctor Browne's patient had. The patient had a Leiomyosarcoma. Doctor Kalu and Doctor Browne felt devastated since they could not think of a way to help him. However, Doctor Murphy had an idea and Doctor Kalu presented the idea to Doctor Melendez. Doctor Kalu then took the credit for the successful surgery they performed. Doctor Browne did not like that, and Doctor Kalu defended himself by saying that he went out on a limb for Doctor Murphy. ‘Out on a limb' itself means that the person is in a dangerous, exposed position when one's ideas are openly known (Gaines, 1986). It is equal to ‘resiko’.

The second example is presented below.

26) Episode 5

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Just tell him to “**come clean**,” “honesty is the best policy,” “a lie is a stone in your heart.”	Suruh saja dia untuk **jujur**, “kejujuran adalah kebijakan terbaik,” “kebohongan bagaikan batu dalam hatimu.”

When Doctor Kalu and Doctor Browne were taking care of the man with tapeworms, Doctor Kalu told Doctor Browne that the man’s son was hiding something from his father. He did not think helping him was relevant medically, but Doctor Browne lectured him by saying that Doctor Kalu had to tell him to ‘come clean’. ‘Come clean’ means telling the truth (Gaines, 1986). In this case, ‘come clean’ equals to ‘jujur’.

The third example is presented below.

27) Episode 5

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Coast is clear?	**Tidak ada orang**?

Doctor Murphy's patient, Evan Gallico, looked exactly the same as his late brother. Murphy felt attached to Gallico and decided to help him diagnose his sickness. It turned out Gallico had cancer and could not be cured. Murphy felt horrible, but the decision to not perform a surgery on the boy was on Gallico's parents. By the end of Gallico's last day in the hospital, Murphy visited him. Gallico smiled at him and asked whether the coast was clear or not. When Gallico said ‘coast is clear’, he referred to his parents who opposed Murphy’s attempt to heal him. In this case, ‘coast is clear’ equals to ‘tidak ada orang’.

Another example is presented below.

28) Episode 7

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
The minute I **catch my breath**, I’m gonna walk out of here, so you can just leave.	Saat **pernapasanku normal**, aku akan pergi dari sini, jadi kau boleh pergi.

Doctor Kalu's patient was an old man who needed surgery to save his life. Unfortunately, the old man did not like the idea of living any longer and kept escaping his room. When Doctor Kalu found his patient, the old man told him to leave. He said that he would walk away after ‘catching his breath'. In this case, ‘catch my breath' equals to ‘pernapasanku normal'.

Adaptation

Adaptation is a shift in cultural environment when something specific to one language culture is unknown in the target language. The cultural shift usually is expressed in a totally different way that is familiar or appropriate to other language culture. 4 utterances used adaptation as the translation strategy. The example is presented below.

29) Episode 8

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Thank God for that.	**Puji Tuhan** untuk itu.

Lea Dilallo was Murphy's neighbour. She came to his flat early in the morning whining about Armen who cut her electricity power the night before. She expressed that if she was in ventilation, she would be suffocated. Murphy stated that she was not in ventilation, and Dilallo sarcastically answered by saying ‘thank God for that'. In Indonesia, ‘thank God' becomes ‘Puji Tuhan'.

Another example is presented below.

30) Episode 9

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Good luck.	**Semoga beruntung**.

Doctor Melendez and Doctor Murphy were practicing for heart surgery. After several attempts, they did well in the simulation. Doctor Murphy said good luck to Doctor Melendez so he would perform successfully. In this case, ‘good luck’ becomes ‘semoga beruntung’ in Indonesian.

Not translated

Idiomatic expressions are often omitted in the target text. It happens because it has no equivalence in the target language, the meaning of the idiom cannot be paraphrased easily, or for stylistic reasons (Baker, 1991). According to Newmark (1988), the translator is likely to under-translate, to use general words in the interest of clarity and simplicity, which makes him omit the translated words altogether. Newmark also states that the purpose of omitting is partly phatic. They are used partly to maintain reader's or listener's interest. Seventeen utterances were not translated.

31) Episode 1

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
We're gonna cut your chest open, we're gonna stop your heart, repair **it** and restart it.	Kami akan membelah dada anda, menghentikan jantung anda, memperbaiki dan menjalankannya.

Doctor Browne was explaining the procedure of the surgery to her patient. There is a repetition in the usage word 'it' as in "repair 'it' and restart 'it'". In order to make it simpler, the translator omitted the first 'it' word and combined the verbs together.

The second example is presented below.

32) Episode 5

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
Uncle Jim, if he **figure out** how to stop swearing.	Paman Jim, jika dia berhenti bersumpah.

Gallico was having a moment with his parents after his failed surgery. He was encouraging his parents that he would not be alone after he died. He still had his family, and also his uncle, Jim, if the man figured out how to stop swearing. The expression 'figure out' was not translated because its meaning cannot be paraphrased easily into Bahasa Indonesia.

The third example is presented below.

33) Episode 6

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
That is **sort of** what I was going for, yeah.	Itu yang kupikirkan.

Doctor Kalu was visited by a woman with some third-degree burns on her body. She was too frustrated with her condition, so Doctor Kalu brought her movies to pick. She got offended and sarcastically said that she could relax by watching a movie. Kalu then answered her by saying, "That is **sort of** what I was going for, yeah." The expression 'sort of' was omitted because it has no equivalent in the target language and rather hard to translate. Another example is presented below.

34) Episode 9

Transcript	Indonesian Subtitle
And we were probably gonna **wind up** coming to you anyway.	Karena kami mungkin akan tetap mendatangimu.

Doctor Melendez and Doctor Murphy were consulting with the hospital's vice president about Murphy's idea When Doctor Melendez explained that the idea might not work, the vice president started to protest, but Melendez cut her off by saying that they were probably going to 'wind up' coming to her anyway. The expression 'wind up' was omitted because it is rather hard to paraphrase into Bahasa Indonesia.

Conclusions

In this research, 253 idiomatic expressions utterances were taken from The Good Doctor TV series. Then, the data were classified into the types of idiomatic expressions and the strategies of translation. Five out of six types of idiomatic expressions from Hockett's (1958) theory, namely substitutes, proper names, English phrasal compound, figure of speech, and slang, were found in the TV series. English phrasal compounds were the most frequently used idiomatic expressions. Then, it was followed by figure of speech, substitutes, slang words, and proper name. The researchers found that six out of seven translation strategies proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000) were used in the TV series. Equivalence was the most frequently used translation strategy. The least strategy used was modulation. The researchers also found that literal translation was often used in the subtitle of the TV series. The researchers also found that some idiomatic expressions did not fit in any translation strategies. The idiomatic expressions within the utterances were not translated.

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EFL TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES ON THE PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTED LANGUAGE LEARNING: CONFLICT OR CONSENSUS?

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Abstract

The developmental nature of second language acquisition research has resulted in various and at times seemingly contradictory theories, methods and approaches. In 2005, Rod Ellis published his "Principles of Instructed Language Learning," which he considered to be a set of teaching "generalisations" that could stimulate debate and reflection among teachers in the "post-methods era" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The purpose of this study was to investigate Ellis's principles in terms of their perceived relevance and applicability in an adult EFL learning environment. In order to achieve this aim, a mixed methods research approach was utilised. Separate questionnaires were administered to seventy-one students and eight teachers employed in the English Language Department of a Training Institute in Doha, Qatar. Additionally, thirteen students participated in two – single sex – focus group sessions. The results revealed consensus between students and teachers regarding the importance they placed on some principles, but not others, particularly the contentious issue of *meaning* vs. *form*. Furthermore, while both groups emphasised the importance of *interaction*, many students nonetheless felt uneasy interacting in English with other Arabic speakers. A further key finding was that neither party clearly understood the concept of the learner's *built-in syllabus*. The principal conclusion is that the best way to deal with the aforementioned anomalies involves experimentation with task-based approaches as these allow for a focus on meaning, opportunities for interaction, and a retrospective focus on form via corrective feedback, which takes into account the learner's built-in syllabus.

Keywords: Instructed language learning; meaning; form; interaction; built-in syllabus; task-based approaches

Introduction

The field of second language acquisition (SLA) has always stimulated heated debate, not only among theorists themselves, but also, and arguably more importantly, among the front-line practitioners who attempt to actualise these theories, methods, and approaches. Language learners do not make up a homogeneous group; instead, they are individuals affected and shaped by different variables including age and culture as well as their previous language learning experiences, which often influence their present language learning preferences. Accordingly, what works for one group of learners, or indeed one individual, might not work for another. Yet, historically, we have witnessed a succession of "one size fits all" teaching models, including the Grammar Translation and Audio-lingual methods, which have attempted to universally address the age old question of how best to teach a language.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the early 1970s, resulting in a shift in focus from purely linguistic competence to the broader concept of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972), which consists of both grammatical and sociolinguistic competence, and thus emphasises the importance of both a focus on form and meaning. Although CLT can be considered a hybrid approach as it incorporates some of the better elements of the methods that preceded it, its staunchest proponents, in a similar vein to those of its predecessors, have had a tendency to be dogmatic. This false "our way or the highway" dichotomy has arguably led us towards post-method thinking (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), and ultimately the post-methods era (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), one that recognises teachers' freedom not only to select, reject and adapt the various methods and approaches, but also to develop their own.

It is against such a backdrop that Rod Ellis formulated his ten Principles of Instructed Language Learning (2005a). The rationale behind these principles was "to provide teachers with a basis for argument and for reflection, and not as a set of prescriptions or proscriptions about how to teach" (Ellis, 2008, p.1). The principles, therefore, attempt to go beyond specific theories and methods, and the debates which have arisen from them, to offer an over-arching set of guidelines. In the process, they aim to influence and encourage debate about instructive practices, as opposed to demanding rigid compliance. The principles are discussed in detail in following section.

Literature Review

In order to better understand Ellis's principles, it is important to consider the theories, methods and approaches that have influenced them as well as the previous studies that have been conducted regarding them.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT is a conundrum in own right, and it has left many struggling to define it accurately. Howatt (1984, p. 279) distinguishes between weak and strong versions of CLT, noting that the former is primarily concerned with "learning to use English" while "the latter entails using English to learn it." Task-Based Learning (TBL), therefore, which is described as an approach that engages with "language as a meaning-making tool" rather than an as object to be taught and learnt (Ellis, Skehan, Li, Shintani, & Lambert, 2020, p. 1), is clearly more aligned with the strong version. Cook (2016) outlines a similar division using different terms, namely the mainstream EFL style (weak) and the communicative style (strong). The former is eclectic in nature and uses the rationale that "if the student doesn't benefit from one part of the lesson, then another part will help" (Cook, 2016, p. 294). An important aspect of the difference, therefore, is seemingly one of flexibility versus rigidity in interpretation, which in turn is often related to whether CLT is considered an approach or a method. Ellis et al. (2020, p. xiv) make a distinction between the two by stating that an approach, contrary to a method, is "based on a set of general principles," "not prescriptive," not monolithic, and adaptable to diverse learning and teaching contexts. Likewise, O'Neill (1999) alludes to the fact that once pedagogical thinking becomes fixed within an institution, the opportunities for individual interpretation and expression can be stifled. Yet, this should not be the case with CLT as it has no fixed methodology (Berns, 1990). Instead, it requires "pragmatic" (Harmer, 2001, p. 97) or "principled eclecticism" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 352) on the part of the teacher.

According to Ellis et al. (2020), TBL grew out of the strong version of CLT, and he specifically mentions this approach in principle 2 as being "perhaps the best way of achieving" a focus on meaning (Ellis, 2008, p.1). Indeed, the whole concept of TBL is based on the assumption that "out of fluency comes accuracy" (Willis, 1996, p. 45). TBL, therefore, essentially turns the PPP model (Presentation – Practice – Production) on its head with its alternative three stage procedure (Pre-Task – Task Cycle – Language Focus). In doing so, it allows greater freedom to use and explore language, while offering opportunities for peer and teacher-led corrective feedback, all of which should help teachers and students achieve the ultimate goal of communicative competence.

Ellis's (2005) Principles

Ellis's (2005) principles are influenced by a number of different theoretical perspectives, and it seems that he attempts to find a balance between them in order to arrive at what he refers to as his list of "generalisations." However, as Ellis (2005a) himself acknowledges, the principles are primarily based on the computational model (Lantolf, 1996), which as the name suggests, "views language learning as analogous to the way a computer processes information; that is in terms of input processing, an internal programme and output" (Ellis, 2005b, p. 47). The computational model not only "provides a solid foundation for developing a set of principles," but "also constitutes a metaphor that teachers can easily relate to" (Ellis, 2005a, p. 222). At the heart of this process, as will be highlighted in the principles that follow, is the student's *built-in syllabus* (principle 5), which determines the rate and manner of their "interlanguage" development (Selinker, 1972).

1. **Principle 1**
   Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.

In this principle, Ellis highlights the importance of "formulaic expressions" and the potential that they have for wider language development. This principle seems to have been influenced by the Lexical Approach, which believes that fluency results from a large store of lexical chunks that are "available as the foundation for any linguistic novelty or creativity" (Lewis, 1997, p. 15). Moreover, as Racine (2018, p.1) highlights, "communicative competence is the ultimate goal" of this approach. Yet, according to Thornbury (1998, p.12), the potential pitfall of a solely lexical approach is that it may result in "all chunks, but no pineapple." Thornbury, like Ellis, appears to be alluding to the point that if learners do not also develop a rule-based competence, fossilization will occur in respect of their interlanguage development.

2. Principles 2 and 3
Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning. Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.

The predominant focus on meaning outlined in these principles is representative of the movement from solely linguistic competence to the broader concept of communicative competence. Ellis argues that a focus on meaning, and in particular pragmatic meaning, allows learners to develop not only their grammar and vocabulary, but more importantly their overall fluency.

In order to deal with meaning effectively, Ellis advocates a task-based approach, which gives learners the opportunity to focus on appropriate language in appropriate contexts. This same approach also allows learners to focus on form (Long, 1988) via corrective feedback, which mirrors their interlanguage development and is therefore more in line with their built-in syllabus. An interlanguage is a student's "developing language system" (Cook, 2016, p. 276) and should therefore be respected by the teacher, rather than considered flawed. Consequently, in order for it to develop – or in other words to stop it from fossilizing – meaning and form should be considered as interdependent rather than independent elements. This relationship is summarised by Ellis (2016, p. 423) when he suggests we should "view focus on form as a set of procedures for attracting attention to form while learners are engaged in meaning making."

3. Principle 4
Instruction needs to focus on developing implicit knowledge of the second language while not neglecting explicit knowledge.

Ellis believes that fluency results from the development of implicit (unconscious) knowledge and that this should consequently be the target of our instruction. Krashen (1981, 1985) links principles 2 and 4 by theorising that implicit knowledge is the natural outcome of a focus on meaning. Moreover, he claims that explicit (conscious) knowledge is only of value as a monitor and can neither be accessed readily during the act of communication itself, nor transformed into implicit knowledge (non-interface position). Yet Krashen's view on the role of explicit knowledge, as Ellis goes on to highlight, is just one of three interface positions. De Keyser (1998) claims that with ample communicative practice explicit knowledge becomes implicit (interface position), while Ellis (1993) maintains that the acquisition of implicit knowledge has a greater chance of occurring if the learner also has explicit knowledge (weak interface position).

4. Principle 5
Instruction needs to take into account the learner's built-in syllabus.

Corder (1967) coined the term *built-in syllabus* to describe the systematic way that students learn grammar as implicit knowledge. Studies, such as Pienemann (1989), similarly conclude that learners go through different stages of learning (or interlanguage). The point being asserted in this principle is that students will only learn a specific point when they are developmentally ready to do so. Ellis concludes by offering suggestions about grammar teaching methods that take into account a student's built-in syllabus, including, once again, a task-based approach.

5. Principles 6, 7, and 8

Successful instructed language learning requires extensive second language input.

Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.

The opportunity to interact in the second language is central to developing second language proficiency.

These principles, by acknowledging the validity of three different hypothesis – the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981, 1985), the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), and the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) – spotlight the eclectic yet overlapping and complementary nature of Ellis's guidelines.

Principle 6 calls for extensive input and works on the assumption that by maximising exposure, learning opportunities are also maximised. Krashen's Monitor Model (1981, 1985), and in particular his input hypothesis, theorises that comprehensible input 'i + 1' leads to language acquisition, which manifests itself in the emergence of speaking. Ellis (2005a) stresses that there is universal agreement that input is an essential element in the development of implicit knowledge. Additionally, he highlights the fact that L2 must be "the medium as well as the object of instruction" (p. 217).

In principle 7, Ellis highlights the need to also provide opportunities for output. The output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) centres around two key concepts: *pushed output* and *auto input*. The former advocates using communicative tasks to stretch the learner and thus aid interlanguage development, while the latter argues that output becomes a form of input as learners have the opportunity to notice gaps in their interlanguage (Swain, 1995). A logical outcome of a learner's need for both input and output is to find ways in which students can interact in the second language, with peer interaction often considered the "primary participant structure for interaction to occur" (Loewen & Sato, 2018, p. 295). Ellis points out that interaction (principle 8) is considered by computational and sociocultural theories of SLA as "the matrix in which acquisition takes place" (Ellis, 2005a, p. 219). These theories stress the importance of two similar concepts, *negotiation for meaning* (Long, 1996) and *scaffolding* (Vygotsky, 1978), which take place during interaction and allow noticing, mediation and restructuring to take place.

6. Principle 9

Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.

In order to keep intrinsic motivation levels high, this principle calls for a teaching approach that is inherently flexible in nature, one that takes into account differences in respect of students' motivation, aptitude, personalities, and previous learning experiences. Accordingly, alternative approaches or new styles of teaching should not be forced upon students, but rather introduced gradually, and with respect for their existing learning style preferences. Specifically, as Ellis (2005a, p.

220) indicates, this calls for learner training in respect of experiential approaches such as TBL, as learners may have had no previous exposure to such methods.

7. **Principle 10**
   In assessing learners' second language proficiency, it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.

This principle espouses the need for a free production element in assessment arguing that free-constructed responses such as those found in communicative tasks are "the best measure of learners' L2 proficiency" (Ellis, 2005a, p. 221). Moreover, free production brings together some of the main threads running through these ten guidelines, namely a focus on meaning, the importance of implicit knowledge, the opportunity to interact, and the use of task-based approaches.

Previous Studies

The principles have themselves become the focus of research in recent years. Ellis himself was involved in case studies aimed at showing how the principles could assist teachers working for the New Zealand Ministry of Education (Ellis, Erlam, & Sakui, 2006), while others have been carried out by Chen and Wang (2008), Howard and Millar (2009), and Bagheri and Mehrnoush (2013).

Ellis, Erlam and Sakui's (2006) case studies involved four teachers who were observed five times each after completing an initial background questionnaire. The researcher's observation notes were then compared with the questionnaire and subsequent interview data to establish the extent to which expressed beliefs matched teaching and learning practices witnessed in the classroom. This research found that the teachers were having difficulty implementing a number of the principles, primarily principles 2 (meaning), 6 (input), 7 (output), and 8 (interaction). On the other hand, the use of various interface positions was observed, and there was consensus on the importance of a focus on form (principle 3). Finally, it was noted that participants did not seem to have a clear understanding of the concept of the student's built-in syllabus (principle 5).

Chen and Wang's (2008) study concentrates on five of the ten principles (2, 3, 6, 7, and 8) and considers their application in a distance-learning context, one that was supported by an online Synchronous Learning Management Systems (SLMS). The tutorials of seven adult students were recorded, transcribed, and then examined using Conversation Analysis methods in order to establish how and to what extent "negotiation for meaning" (Long, 1996) took place. The study concluded that it was possible to apply all of the five principles examined in a cyber-classroom.

Howard and Millar's (2009) study, on the other hand, concerned itself with the perceptions of South Korean school teachers as to the applicability of the principles in their given context. This study involved fifteen South Korean middle and high school English language teachers who, after being introduced to Ellis's (2005) principles, completed a questionnaire and rated the extent to which they were currently using them, and also ranked them in respect of how important they considered them to be in their given teaching context. The most significant outcome of this study was that teachers did not prioritize principle 3 (form) as they felt it was already being adequately implemented in class. Otherwise, the results were broadly similar to those in case studies (Ellis, Erlam, & Sakui, 2006), with confusion once more apparent in respect of principle 5 (the learner's built-in syllabus), especially as some teachers assumed that all course books automatically considered this.

Bagheri and Mehrnoush (2013) studied the perceptions of 40 Iranian EFL teachers as to the applicability of the principles in their workplaces, namely language institutes and high schools. In this study, which utilised Howard and Miller's (2009) questionnaire (see above), teachers ranked principle 8 (interaction) as the most important, primarily because they recognised the lack of opportunities for Iranian learners to interact and practice outside of the classroom.

Research Objectives and Questions

This study aims to examine the perceived relevance and applicability of Ellis's principles in a Qatari adult EFL learning context. In doing so, it hopes to bridge the gaps of previous studies by eliciting the opinions of both teachers and adult learners regarding the principles. This being the case, the research question is as follows:

1. Is there consensus among EFL educators and adult learners in Qatar as to the relevance and practical application of Ellis's (2005) "Principles of Instructed Language Learning"?
2. What are the possible implications of the findings within a specific adult EFL learning environment?

Method

This section centres on a description of the institution where the research was carried out, the participants, the data collection tools, and the data collection and analysis procedures.

The Institution and the Participants

The study was conducted in the English Language Department of a Training Institute in Doha, Qatar. The primary objective of this state-run institute, which provides general English, ESP, and IELTS preparation courses, is to ensure that government employees have the English language skills needed to carry out their jobs effectively while interacting with the expatriate community.

This study involved the entire student body and teaching faculty of the institute. 71 adult students completed a questionnaire, out of whom 13 volunteers subsequently participated in two gender-specific focus group sessions. The student participants were Qatari and enrolled in ongoing classes at the time of the study, namely two beginners classes, one elementary, one pre-intermediate, and two IELTS preparation courses. The student population included three male and three female classes, students of different levels, students with and without a university education, and respondents in each of the listed age groups (see Table 1). A separate questionnaire was completed by the multi-national teaching staff, which consisted of instructors from the UK, America, Canada, Tunisia, Lebanon and Ukraine (see Table 2). It is felt that both groups of student and teacher participants are representative of the general population in the country. Furthermore, as all students and teachers available at the time participated in the study, it is believed that this can be considered a representative sample.

With regards to research ethics, following the suggestions of Kumar (2019), written and verbal informed consent was gained from the management of the institution, the teachers and students, and in order to ensure anonymity and confidentiality, the participants were not asked to identify themselves at any point during the data collection procedures.

Table 1: Student demographics

Age:	24 and under	32%
	25-35	51%
	36 and above	17%
Gender:	Male	58%
	Female	42%
Have you ever studied abroad?	Yes	13%
	No	87%
Have you ever studied at university?	Yes	39%
	No	61%
Which level are you presently studying?	Beginner	41%
	Elementary	15%
	Pre-Intermediate	17%
	IELTS	27%

Table 2: Teacher demographics

Age:	40 and under	37%
	41 and over	63%
Gender:	Male	50%
	Female	50%
Are you a native speaker of English?	Yes	37%
	No	63%
How long have you been teaching/ working in EFL/ESL?	0-7 years	25%
	8-15 years	37%
	16+ years	38%
Have you ever worked in the following types of institutions?	University	75%
	Secondary school	75%
	Primary or middle school	75%
	Private language school	75%

Data Collection Tools and Procedures

A mixed methods research approach was adopted to collect data and to compensate for the likely disadvantages of purely quantitative or qualitative research. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 4), this method of inquiry "yields additional insight beyond the information provided by either the quantitative or qualitative data alone." Similarly, Cohen, Manion and Morrison

(2018, p. 31) argue that mixed methods approaches help to study phenomena from more than one standpoint by making use of both quantitative and qualitative data. In brief, a mixed methods approach was applied to ensure multiple perspectives and the enhancement of the validity of the inferences (Molina-Azorin, 2016, p. 37).

The seventy-one students who participated in the research completed a quantitative questionnaire (see Appendix A) which was designed to elicit their opinions about Ellis's (2005a) Principles of Instructed Language Learning. However, given the technical wording of the principles, the fifteen Likert items were written to make them as lucid and accessible as possible. A further ten items were then included to elicit their opinions on the areas in which they felt it was most important to receive instruction. Given the mixed levels of the students involved, the questionnaire was also translated into Arabic by a professional translator.

The teachers' questionnaire (see Appendix B) included both closed and open question types. After reading Ellis's (2005a) article outlining the principles, the eight teachers were asked to highlight which they were currently applying in their teaching, which they would like to apply in the future, and which they would be interested in receiving professional development on. They were also asked to rank the principles from one to five in terms of how beneficial they felt they were for Qatari adult EFL learners, and which they felt were the most difficult to apply in a Qatari classroom with adult learners. Finally, they completed ten open-ended questions which allowed them to expand on the reasons behind their initial selections.

The two focus groups (see Appendix C) were held six days after the initial student questionnaire. To minimize any unintentional influence or directionality by the interviewer and to maximize participants' self-disclosure (Krueger & Casey, 2015), the interviewer did not lead the discussion; instead, he simply asked the questions and allowed students to "spark" (McDonough & McDonough 1997, p. 185) each other into conversation. Ten questions were put to separate male and female groups that consisted of six and seven volunteer participants respectively. The focus groups were recorded and conducted in line with standard accepted practice for such activities as suggested by Krueger and Casey (2015).

Data Analysis

The quantitative data of both questionnaires was analyzed using the following procedure. First, the data was entered onto an Excel spreadsheet, which allowed individual questions to be looked at in terms of frequencies and percentages. Cross-tabulation was then used to search for significant trends before presenting the results graphically. The qualitative data, namely the teachers' open-ended questionnaire responses and the focus group transcripts, was analyzed as follows: First, all participants' responses were noted next to each individual question; second, the collective responses for each question were summarized by using a key word analysis, thus generating categories; and finally, the categories were condensed to highlight the main trends.

Findings and Discussion

This section will focus on the principles which elicited the most illuminating responses regarding relative consensus, or lack thereof, between teachers and students. The remaining principles (1, 4, 9 and 10) lacked detailed qualitative responses.

Principles 2 (Meaning) and 3 (Form)

The results indicated significant disagreement between teachers and students regarding principles 2 (meaning) and 3 (form). The teachers were asked to select the five most beneficial principles for Qatari adult learners (figure 1). While teachers deemed form the least beneficial principle for Qatari adult learners, students ranked it the second most important principle (figure 2). Indeed, in response to the questionnaire Likert item on this principle (figure 3), of the 71 student respondents, 44 strongly agreed and 25 agreed, “it is important to be taught grammar.” Meaning, on the other hand, was considered the joint most beneficial principle by teachers (together with principle 8 – interaction), and it was also the only principle they universally applied in their teaching (figure 4). Notably, while most teachers stressed the importance of principle 2 (meaning), they also acknowledged having difficulty in attempting to implement it (figure 5). Comparatively, students placed significantly less emphasis on this principle, with an aggregated total of 285 compared to 326 for form.

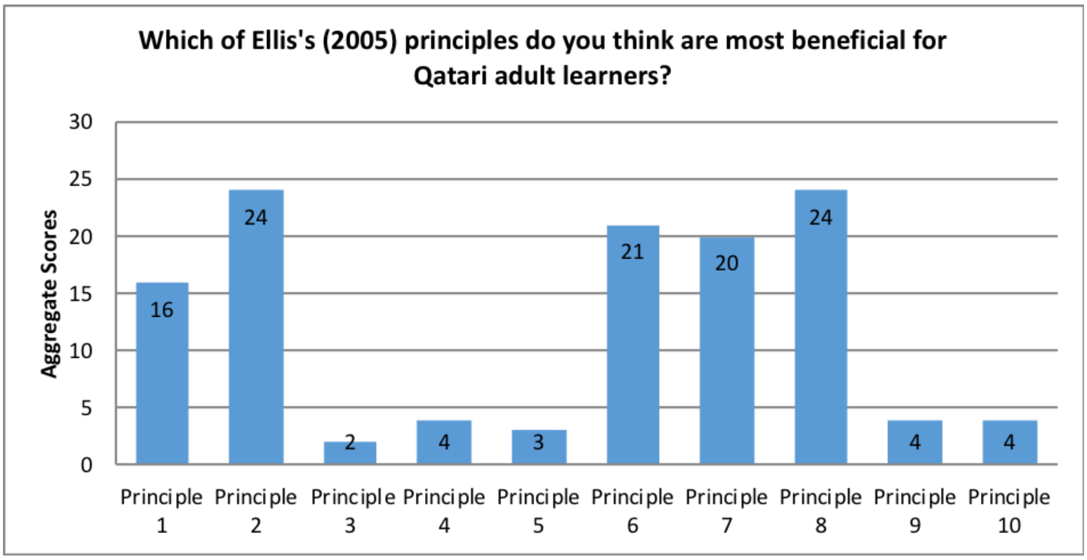

Figure 1. Teachers’ aggregated rankings of the principles (in respect of how beneficial they believe them to be for Qatari adult learners).

Aggregate scores were calculated by awarding 5 points for the principle they ranked number one, going down to one point on a sliding scale for the principle they ranked number 5.

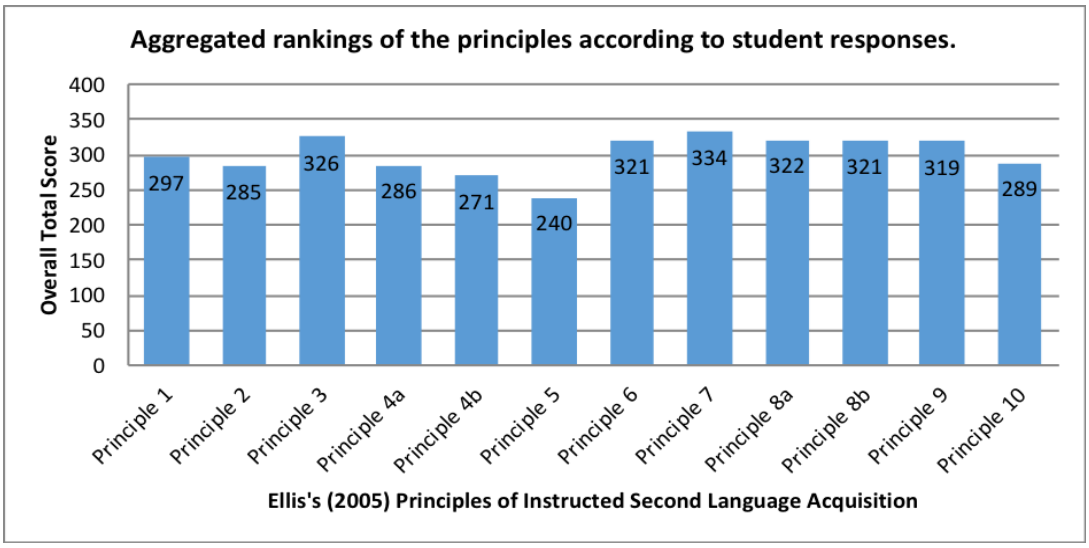

Figure 2. Students' aggregated rankings of the principles.

The aggregated rankings were arrived at by awarding the same Likert scale score for each principle related response given by all students.

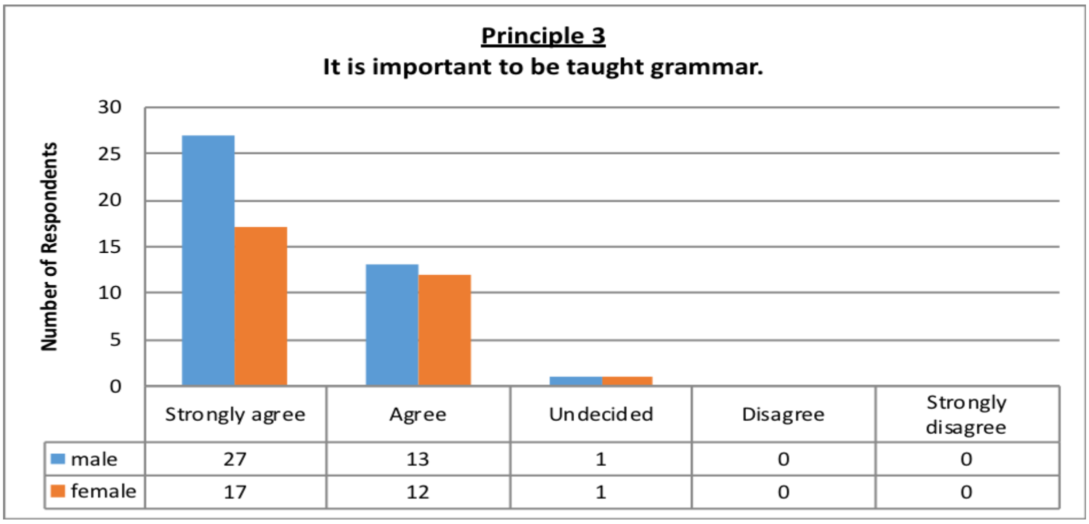

Figure 3. Students' Likert responses regarding the importance of being taught grammar (Principle 3).

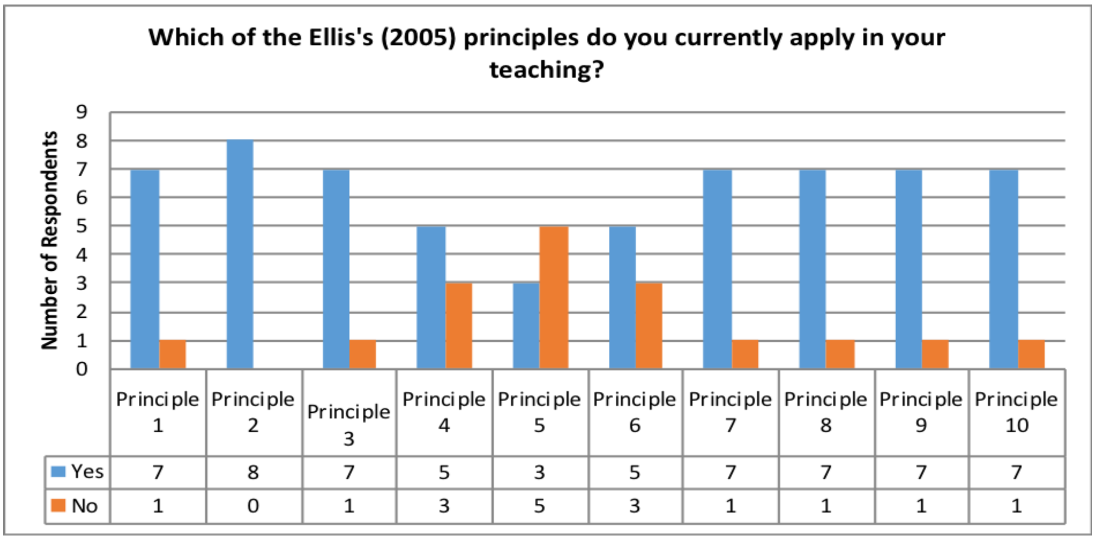

Figure 4. The principles teachers currently apply in their teaching.

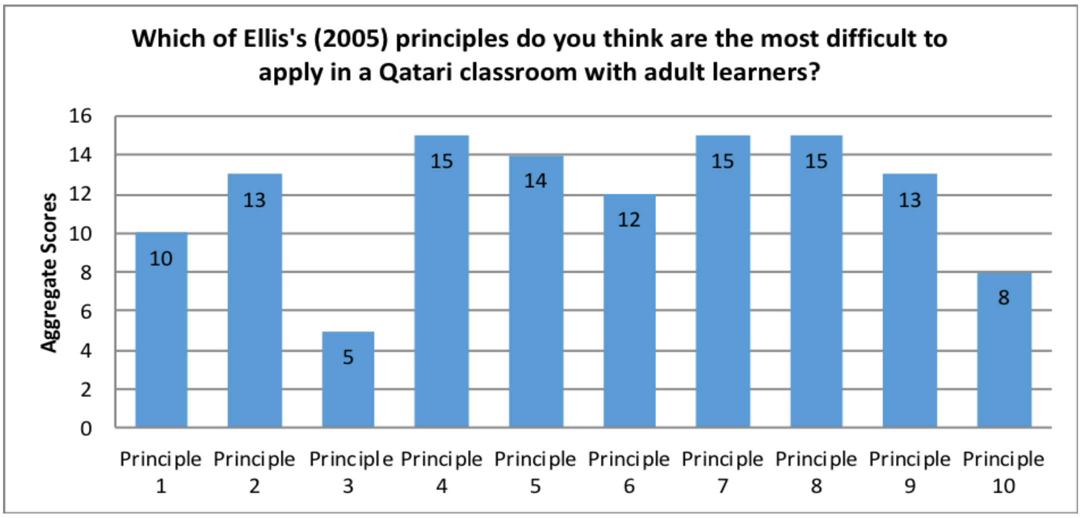

Figure 5. Teachers' perceptions regarding which principles are most difficult to apply.

Aggregate scores were calculated by awarding 5 points for the principle they ranked number one, going down to one point on a sliding scale for the principle they ranked number 5.

The qualitative data generally reinforced these contrasting standpoints. When students were asked during the focus group sessions if it was more important to be understood or to be (grammatically) correct, the consensus was that both were important. However, male student C, who favoured being correct, made the following unequivocal comment: "If you're correct, you can always send your information. If you're not correct, people might laugh at you. Better not to learn English if you don't speak correctly!" When asked directly if grammar was important, there was unanimous agreement among the students. Female student F emphasised, "If we don't understand the grammar rule, we won't be able to speak correctly. Understanding grammar rules is essential if you want to speak correctly." This student viewpoint was acknowledged by teacher 3, who stated, "Qatari adult learners come to class expecting grammar explanation; not taking the students' expectations into consideration might result in resistance and frustration."

Principle 5 (Built-in syllabus)

Meanwhile, principle 5, which considers the learner's *built-in syllabus*, was one that left both groups somewhat confused. As figure 4 highlights, the majority of teachers were using most of the principles on a regular basis, yet only three of the eight, based on their understanding of principle 5, were implementing it at the time. Figure 6 demonstrates that students were similarly uncertain about this principle and its potential impact on their second language learning. Although the majority of students agreed on its importance (41 from 71 surveyed), this principle received the greatest spread of Likert responses, and it was consequently ranked the lowest of all the principles by students (figure 2). Overall, both parties appeared uncertain about the concept of the learner's *built-in syllabus*, and this was reflected in their responses. Nevertheless, teachers' qualitative responses singled out this principle when asked about how informative they had found Ellis's principles. Its importance is summarised by teacher 7, who stated, "It is a natural mechanism of learning that the students already have and we as teachers should use to introduce what they can grasp first."

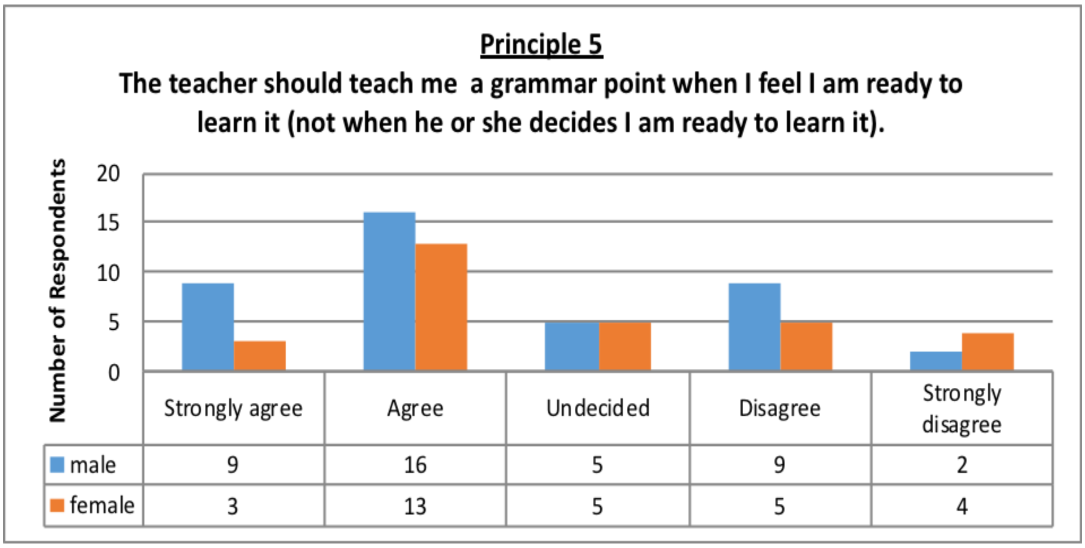

Figure 6. Students' Likert responses regarding their built-in syllabus (Principle 5).

Principles 6 (Input), 7 (Output), and 8 (Interaction)

Regarding the perceived importance of principles 6 (input), 7 (output) and 8 (interaction), there was broad consensus among students and teachers. Principle 6 (input) was deemed the third most beneficial principle by teachers while almost all students surveyed (66 from 71) agreed or strongly agreed that learners need extensive exposure to the language both inside and outside the classroom. Although principle 7 (figure 7) had the greatest agreement of any single principle among students, with 51 strongly agreeing on the importance of opportunities for output, it was principle 8 (interaction) that produced arguably the most revealing results. In their Likert responses, the students agreed almost unanimously that *interaction* was important with other students and with the teacher (figures 8 and 9), yet 44 of the 71 respondents either agreed or were undecided when asked if they felt uncomfortable using English in pair or group work activities with other Arabic speakers (figure 10). The teachers, on the other hand, considered interaction the joint most beneficial principle (figure 1) as well as, conversely, the joint most difficult to apply (figure 5).

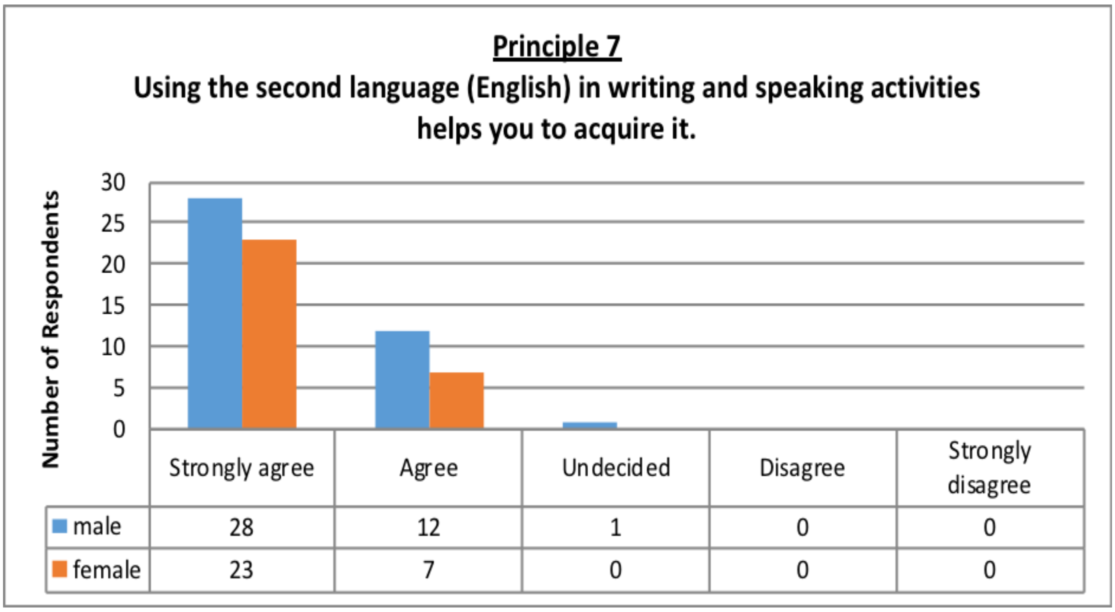

Figure 7. Students' Likert responses regarding the importance of opportunities for output (Principle 7).

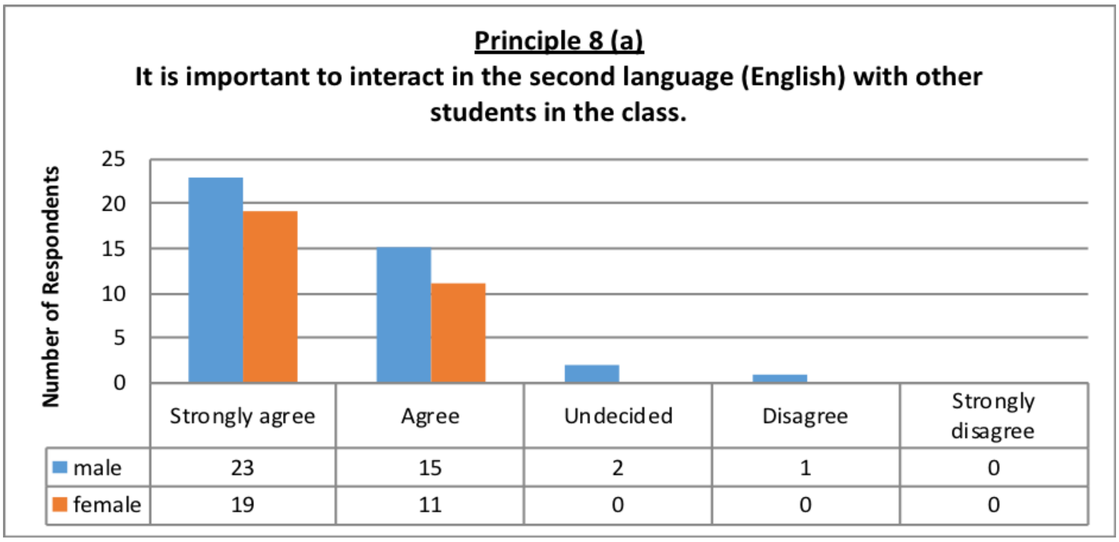

Figure 8. Students' Likert responses regarding the importance of interaction with other students (Principle 8).

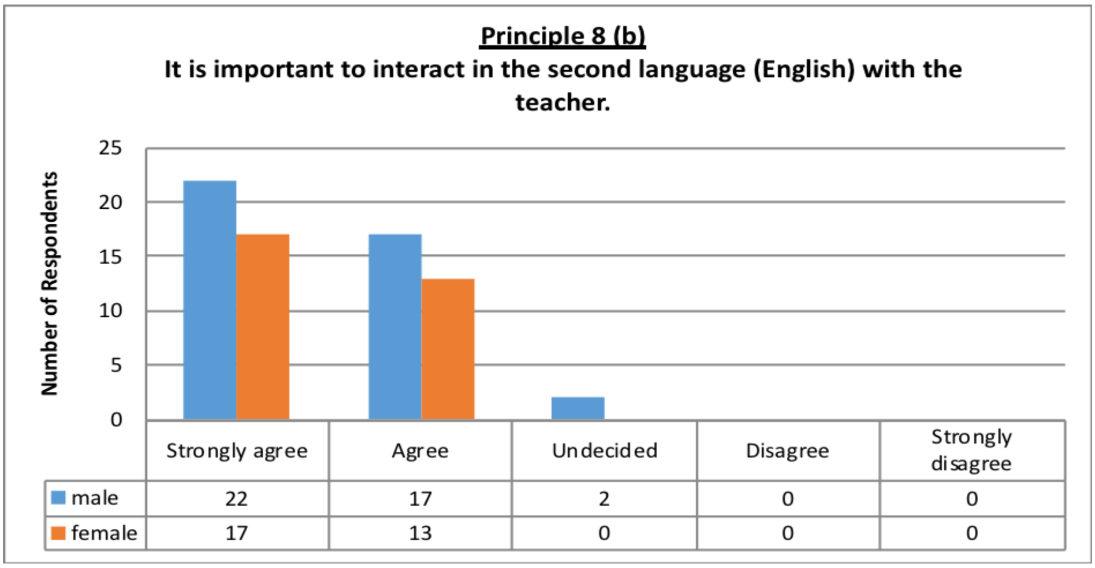

Figure 9. Students' Likert responses regarding the importance of interaction with the teacher (Principle 8).

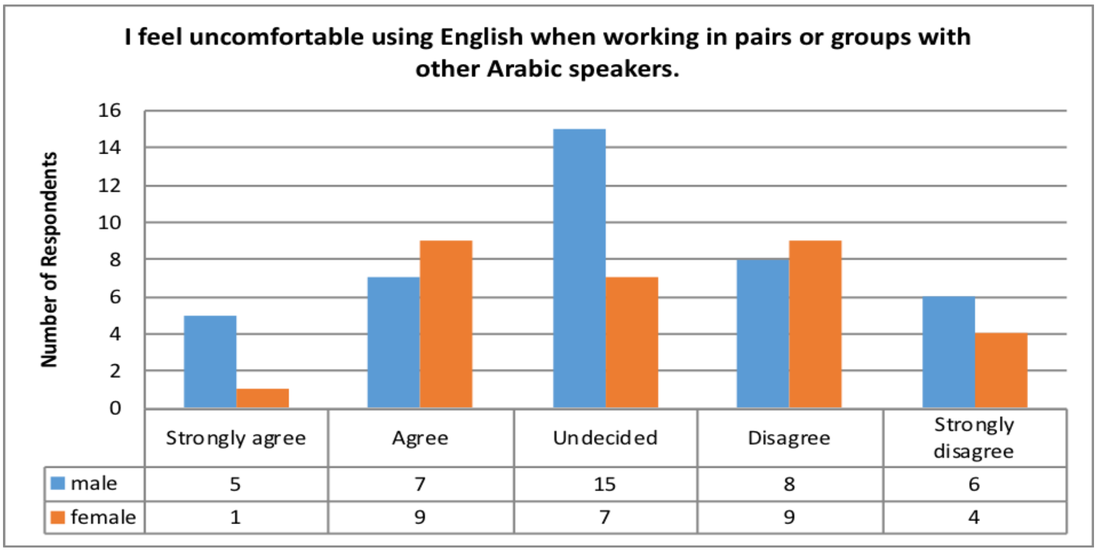

Figure 10. Students' Likert responses regarding interaction with other Arabic speakers.

In their qualitative responses to question eight: *Which is more important: reading or listening to English or using (practising) it?*, the students clearly favoured using/ practising the language (6) to reading/ listening to it (1). These responses were therefore broadly in line with the Likert scale results, namely that the students felt that principle 7 (output) was the most important, closely followed by principle 8 (interaction) and principle 6 (input). The importance of *interaction* for Qatari adult learners was highlighted by teacher 4, who stated, "Most learners have a clear objective: learn English for effective communication."

Overall, therefore, students and teachers were in broad agreement regarding the importance of *input*, *output* and *interaction* while displaying considerable differences in terms of the relative importance they placed on *meaning* and *form*.

Discussion

The extent of the division between students and teachers on principles 2 and 3 (meaning vs. form) makes this issue arguably the most important finding to arise from the study, yet it is important to bear in mind the wording of these principles. Ellis believes that learners should focus predominantly on meaning, but that they should also focus on form. It appears, therefore, that teachers are placing too little emphasis on form, while students do not fully grasp the potential benefits of a focus on meaning. The South Korean study (Howard & Millar, 2009) and the New Zealand case studies (Ellis, Erlam & Sakui, 2006) both found that while teachers attempted to implement principle 2 (meaning), they often faced difficulty doing so, especially at lower levels. The South Korean study also found that as most teachers were already implementing principle 3 (form), it was not prioritised as one they sought to apply in their teaching. Consequently, there are clear similarities between the teachers in these studies. All place importance on meaning (principle 2) and attempt to implement it, yet acknowledge the potential difficulties in doing so. At the same time most claim to be implementing principle 3, but not prioritising it. This negative feeling towards form may be explained by what Zhang and Yang (2010, p. 33) refer to as the “stigma” attached to grammar teaching in CLT, particularly that of the explicit nature. Many of the students in this study, however, seem to attach themselves more to the words of O’Neill (2000, p. 6), who stated, “Grammar is not separate from meaning. It is an integral part of it.”

It is likely that previous learning environments and experiences are to some extent responsible for these different perspectives. It is also likely that most teachers have trained and worked in the CLT era and consequently place emphasis on meaning and interaction over form. The students in this study, on the other hand, are in many cases the product of a state education system which emphasises the importance of form. Thus, similar to the situation in the South Korean schools, the washback effect of examinations and other such issues clearly influence the way that students are taught, and thus their learning experiences.

The concept of the built-in syllabus (principle 5) essentially tells us that students will only be able to learn a linguistic point when they are developmentally ready to do so. Yet the issue of how to implement this principle is altogether more difficult. As was found in this study, many of the teachers interviewed in the South Korean study (Howard & Millar, 2009) and the New Zealand case studies (Ellis, Erlam & Sakui, 2006) admitted they did not fully understand the concept of the student’s built-in syllabus. Consequently, teachers in the South Korean study did not deem this an important principle to apply, rather like how the teachers in this study felt it was one of the least beneficial for learners. Evidently, this is an area of theory that teachers need to be more grounded in if they are to implement it properly.

Second only to the meaning vs. form debate, it is the concept of interaction (principle 8) that provides the most interesting data from the study. Similar to the findings of Bagheri and Mehrnoush's (2013) study in Iran, the teachers in this study believed it was the most beneficial, yet they also highlighted the difficulties of applying it in a Qatari classroom with adult learners. Teacher 5 gave the following reasons for this viewpoint: "Qataris do not like to interact with each other and feel they can only learn when communicating with the teacher." Students, meanwhile, felt that interaction was the third most important principle overall. Moreover, they believed that interaction was equally as important between students as it was between students and the teacher. The belief that the teacher should be an active participant in the process of "negotiation for meaning" (Long, 1996) is in line with the thoughts of O'Neill (1994), who argued that it should not be a matter of "how much," but rather "what kind" of teacher talk is used in the classroom. Nevertheless, the mantra 'minimise TTT' (teacher talk time) remains prevalent on many teacher-training courses. On the other hand, many students were clearly uncomfortable at the prospect of having to work in pairs or groups with other Arabic speakers. Yet, as Ellis (2005a) had highlighted the problem of excessive L1 usage in monolingual groups, this finding is unsurprising.

The South Korean study (Howard & Millar, 2009) and the New Zealand case studies (Ellis, Erlam & Sakui, 2006) both found that teachers were having difficulty in attempting to implement this principle. The New Zealand study, for example, noted that while they had witnessed teachers "scaffolding" (Vygotsky, 1978) the students' production, they had found "little evidence of any negotiation for meaning in any of their classrooms" (Ellis, Erlam & Sakui, 2006, p. 41). In all these studies it seems that the teachers are aware of the importance of interaction between students, but they also understand the potential breakdown that can occur when students fail to carry out the interactive tasks as planned. Students, on the other hand, appear to expect more direct teacher assistance in the form of scaffolding. Time constraints, however, can limit the extent to which this principle can be fully operationalised. Teachers often feel under pressure to produce immediate results in the classroom, and perhaps unfairly project this pressure onto their students by expecting them to produce language and interact before they feel comfortable doing so. However, as O'Neill (1994) points out, "learners typically go through silent periods" so forcing them to speak can be "de-motivating" and "counter-productive." Finding an appropriate balance regarding interactive tasks is therefore essential.

Although the study attempted to be as professional and thorough as possible, the generalisability of its findings is inevitably subject to its limitations. These include concrete issues such as time constraints and limited sample size, as well as more abstract ones such as the possible effect of 'face' concerns (Lee and Renzetti, 1993) on the results.

Overall, the results seem to suggest that the teachers generally favour what Howatt (1984) referred to as the 'strong' version of CLT while students are more inclined towards the 'weak' version. In other words, the students seem to favour a more eclectic approach, such as the mainstream EFL style (Cook, 2016), which may include more traditional methods such as explicit grammar teaching, while teachers prefer a meaning-based interactive approach that encourages students to learn the language by using it.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the level of consensus between EFL educators and learners in Qatar regarding the relevance and practical application of Ellis's (2005a) Principles of Instructed Language Learning, and to consider the possible implications of the findings for the institution in which it was conducted. While previous studies (Ellis, Erlam & Sakui, 2006; Howard & Millar, 2009) involving Ellis's principles had focused on the views of teachers working in middle and high schools, this one shifted the spotlight to an exclusively adult learning environment, and was equally concerned with the opinions of the students. It is hoped that the insights gained from this study, particularly those regarding the students' perspectives, will benefit not only the teachers and the institution, but also those working in similar contexts in the region. Moreover, it is believed that Ellis's principles can serve as a basis for continuing professional development, either directly or as a platform from which teachers can critically evaluate their own language teaching (Howard & Millar, 2009).

The implications of the study can be considered on two levels. Firstly, in respect of the Institute and similar contexts, a balance needs to be struck between the conflicting views of students and teachers regarding the relative emphasis they place on the importance of meaning and form. Furthermore, greater opportunities for producing and encouraging interaction need to be provided while taking into account the learner's built-in syllabus. One way of doing this, as Ellis himself advocates, is to experiment with using a task-based approach to supplement the existing curriculum. This encourages a focus on meaning and interaction while providing opportunities to focus on form via corrective feedback, which, by not predetermining linguistic content, takes into account the learner's built-in syllabus. In other words, a focus on form is deemed an integral part of the lesson, but "should be subordinate to meaning and, for this reason, should come after rather than before a task" (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 20). Nevertheless, given the previous learning experiences of the students, the implementation of such an approach would require time and patience, as well as a more learner-centered outlook that truly took into account their needs and wants. In addition, there are clear opportunities to build upon Ellis's principles through professional development training, especially in relation to principle 5 (the learner's built-in syllabus), as well as in the field of task-based learning.

Secondly, the findings of the study can be considered in terms of their wider relevance and value. Overall, when compared to previous studies (Bagheri & Mehrnoush, 2013; Ellis, Erlam & Sakui, 2006; Howard & Millar, 2009), the findings appear to indicate that Ellis's (2005) principles can be more readily implemented in adult learning environments, primarily because they are less likely to be subject to the perceived restrictions of middle and high schools, which include issues such as the washback effect of examinations. On the other hand, although the learners may be more mature, their prior learning experiences cannot be ignored. Darling-Hammond et al. (2019, p.16) highlight this issue in the following way:

Part of successful teaching is learning what students already know, where they already demonstrate competence, and how they can bring that knowledge into the classroom context….In addition to building on students' prior knowledge, teachers may also need to confront prior knowledge to address misconceptions.

Consequently, we should respect the learners' present preferences and introduce new methods and techniques with sensitivity. Moreover, by enfranchising the students, we allow them to become active participants in the future direction of their own language learning.

The most obvious direction for future research is the replication of this study on a larger scale. This could involve multiple adult-learning institutions, which in turn would mean a larger, more representative sample of both teachers and students. A further option would be to do a comparative study between two countries. For example, a comparison between Qatar and the UK might provide some enlightening findings, as it would also contrast mono and multilingual classes. In such a study, the effect of the different class dynamics could help to shed light on the issue of how universally applicable Ellis's principles actually are. On a smaller scale, teachers could conduct their own action research studies on individual or interrelated principles, such as 2 and 3 (meaning and form). This would allow teachers to select their own areas of interest and use the principles for experimental and developmental purposes, as they were intended.

In conclusion, this study has revealed that there is broad consensus between students and teachers regarding the majority of Ellis's principles. What is more, the anomalies that have surfaced provide opportunities for change and development for both parties. Indeed, they serve as a reminder that teachers must not allow their teaching practices to stagnate. Instead, they need to be pro-active in respect of their continuing professional development, as well as being responsive to their students' needs and wants while respecting their present learning preferences. Moreover, it is essential to bear in mind that the applicability of any given principle will be dependent on the specific teaching and learning context. It is, therefore, necessary to accept the principles in the spirit in which they were formulated, namely as a platform for discussion, development, experimentation and reflection.

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DEVELOPING ENGINEERING STUDENTS' CRITICAL THINKING FOR PUBLIC SPEAKING THROUGH PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING

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Abstract
Critical thinking skill is crucial for higher education students. However, the development of critical thinking for engineering students has been overlooked. The previous research on students' critical thinking in higher education mainly focuses on Humanities and Social Sciences department. Therefore, this research aims to evaluate engineering students' critical thinking ability in English public speaking. A case study was carried out on 28 students (18 Males, 8 Females) of Telecommunication Engineering faculty at Institut Teknologi Telkom Purwokerto. The study found that students had the potential to be critical despite their lack of English vocabulary and poor pronunciation ability. They developed critical thinking by understanding the context given, gathering relevant sources as analysis resources, evaluating the gathered information through discussion, and generating the solutions. Evaluative teaching strategies that encourage scaffolding and learning autonomy are needed to enhance their critical thinking.

Keywords: critical thinking skill, problem-based learning, engineering students, public speaking

Introduction

The ability to think critically is important not only for Social Science students but also for engineering students. This ability is needed as a compulsory component to adjust multi-dimensional engineering problems. It is because an engineer is required to design experiment or product, interpret the data, and understand the effect of their proposed solution for societal context (Ahern, Dominguez, McNally, O'Sullivan, & Pedrosa, 2019). In order to do that, engineering students need to develop their skills in using background knowledge to questions gained information, analyzing complex issues, synthesizing information to make reasonable conclusion, evaluating the data, and solving challenging problems. However, previous research on the use of critical thinking in Engineering mainly investigate students' perspective on critical thinking definition and activities (Douglas, 2012), how critical thinking is used to solve operational chemistry and physics problems (Özsoy-Güneş, Güneş, Derelioğlu, & Kırbaşlar, 2015), and the development of critical thinking for non-calculus ready students (Santiago, Coolbaugh, & Veeramachaneni, 2016). How engineering students develop their critical thinking through speaking practice seems overlooked. This research aims to investigate engineering students' critical thinking ability in English public speaking. It tries to seek how Engineering students at Institut Teknologi Telkom Purwokerto develop their critical thinking through a speaking production project rather than measure test taking ability by doing California Critical Thinking Skills Tests (CCTST).

Problem-based learning for developing critical thinking

Problem-based learning (PBL), as one of student-centered learning method, allows the lecturer to conduct meaningful tasks by using authentic language. It also facilitates students to learn the learning materials through interaction and experience expressing ideas based on real life problems (Ansarian & Lin, 2018). Some pedagogical experts might consider problem-based learning as ill-structure in designing the problem due to its demand on multiple perspective responses (Jonassen & Hung, 2008; Rotgans & Schmidt, 2011). Indeed, the implementation of this method bring challenges such as lecturer's unreadiness, lack of teaching resource, the different level of the materials difficulty perceived by students, and the suitable assessment method (Ansarian & Lin, 2018; Dabbagh, 2019). Despite these challenges, problem-based learning let the students to be more self-directed learners. It integrates the skill of understanding problem and acquiring knowledge to solve real-life situation. Students are triggered to be more creative and independent learners by researching the situation, developing questions, applying reasoning skills and logical inquiry to draw conclusion as well as solving the problems given (Dabbagh, 2019). Thus, this method does not only develop students' cognitive skills to remember and understand, but also improve their higher-order thinking skills by analyzing, evaluating, and creating solutions. In addition, problem-based learning is suitable to be applied in a heterogeneous class. It can facilitate students with mixed abilities to collaborate in inventing solution (Delisle, 1997). In other words, students have freedom to decide what they want to do and to explore their background knowledge about the authentic problems encountered.

In order to counter the PBL challenges, the lecturer who wants to apply problem-based learning should have creativity and awareness on students' needs as well as learning materials appropriateness. In addition, the lecturers should fully aware of their role as learning facilitators not 'to lead students to supposed answer' (Mitchell & Smith, 2008:133). This can be done by having pedagogical training. In terms of dealing with students' perspective of difficulty level, the lecturer should give students guidance during the learning process by developing their zone of proximal development (ZPD). Considering that fostering students' critical thinking process needs time, it is better to give constructive feedback to students and ask them to make reflective report so they can develop their metacognitive aspect by doing self-assessment. As it was emphasized by Dewey (1933), student's reflection gives important role for their logical progress. They need to get experiential learning where they can develop both their lower order thinking skills (remember and understand) and higher order thinking skills (analyze, evaluate, and create) as defined by Bloom's Taxonomy (1954). Although no single teaching method serve as the best, some of them can work effectively when properly implemented. In this case, PBL can be effective to be applied to develop students' critical thinking since it promotes students' ability to do problem solving. All lecturers need to do are understanding students' learning needs, structuring and problematizing relevant task features, and giving proper scaffolding that fosters students' ZPD without showing the answer to the given problem.

Developing Engineering students' critical thinking for public speaking

According to Jiménez Jiménez (2015), speaking practice - in which internalization process occurs - can help students to develop their self-regulation. In addition, students make transformation language when they deliver their speech. They use language not only for communication but also for intellectual function. It means that students use language as an accelerator to think about situation or problem they have encountered. Therefore, they need critical thinking ability to speak fluently and correctly. However, some students consider English public speaking as quite difficult skill due to lack of English vocabulary, self-esteem, and motivation, rarely practice, afraid of making mistakes, and mother tongue interference (Binnendijk, 2014). As a result, the learning process should be able to motivate and give students chance to speak. The lecturer should be able to use various teaching strategies to keep students' learning interest, especially in doing public speaking. In this notion, problem-based learning can be an alternative teaching method to activate students' speaking ability.

Some engineering students might have tendency not to apply critical thinking unless they are told to do so. It happens due to their lack of understanding that critical thinking is not only bound for a specific course in a certain context (Michaluk, Martens, Damron, & High, 2016). Considering that engineering students tend to get more didactic learning approach; they need to have opportunity to work in groups to solve open-ended problems. These problems need wide range approach and creativity where a single right answer does not exist. They also need opportunity to reflect what they have known about the problem given so they can question the gained information rather than simply absorb it (Mitchell & Smith, 2008). If the students fully aware of the task demand, they will be encouraged to explore possible answers from different perspectives and speak up their ideas. In order to develop their confidence and inquiry prior communicating and sharing ideas with partners, students need to explore their knowledge about authentic problem. If the students actively develop their inquiry skill by practicing speaking to propose their ideas, their public speaking ability, confidence, and critical thinking skills will improve gradually (Binnendijk, 2014). Students who apply critical thinking skills tend to have thoughtful approach to their course, produce more challenging questions, and engage the pedagogical process profoundly (Murawski, 2014). Therefore, students who can make decision logically and confidently show better speaking performance (Sanavi & Tarighat, 2014; Ramezani, Larsari, & Kiasi, 2016; Bagheri, 2018). In other words, engineering students' critical thinking can be developed by applying problem-based learning to encourage the improvement of speaking ability. It can be done as long as the given problem allows them to explore ideas that involves reflective rational development so they can invent reasonable solutions for their public speaking.

Methodology

The case study was chosen to answer the research problem which tried to investigate how Telecommunication Engineering students develop their critical thinking for their speaking through problem-based learning. This research technique was suitable to examine a small case, such as a class of 28 students. It can provide causal leverage over a case that is studied. Considering that a small sample of this technique "may be wildly unrepresentative" for having simple random sampling (Gerring, 2007:87), this study employed purposive homogenous sampling. It allowed the researcher to do in-depth analysis of common pattern in a class of students with similar characteristic (Dörnyei, 2007). The data collection was conducted for three months (September – November 2019). It was obtained by doing observation, grading speaking tasks, and coding participants' reflective speaking report. The speaking test was graded using critical thinking rubric for speaking developed by Association of American Colleges and Universities (2018). This rubric focuses on assessing students' ability to explain issue, provide evidence, give influence context and assumption, show their stand or perspectives, and infer conclusion along with the implication of given solution. In this study, the participants were asked to reflect their experience in doing speaking by applying critical thinking tasks. This report was delivered in participants' first language to help them feel comfortable so they could give authentic thought (Seidman, 2006). Therefore, the participants were fully aware of their reflective writing content.

Participants

The sample of this study was taken from Institut Teknologi Telkom Purwokerto. They were third semester students of Telecommunication Engineering study programme. In this university, English was taught as a foreign language. The participants learned English focusing on English for Business Communication. The total of participants were 28 students aged 19 to 20 years old. There were 18 males and 8 females. All of them experienced learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for 6 years at the minimum.

Data analysis

In order to analyze the collected data, descriptive analysis was conducted. This data analysis method was chosen to help researcher summarize the finding and describe general tendency as the basis of inferring the conclusion (Dörnyei, 2007). The descriptive analysis result was presented by using simple table to avoid researchers' misinterpretation and help the readers understand the research findings (Loeb, Dynarski, McFarland, Morris, Reardon, & Reber, 2017). The triangulation data of document analysis gained from the observation and participants' reflective speaking report was conducted to describe the numerical set obtained from the speaking task grade. The students' reflective speaking reports were coded to find the common pattern on how students experience developing their critical thinking. Meanwhile, the speaking task results were put into SPSS IBM 22 to be examined the mean of the data. The mean and the common themes gained from observation and students' reflective reports were interpreted and inferred into conclusion.

Findings and Discussion

This study explores how Telecommunication Engineering students develop their critical thinking for their speaking through problem-based learning. After doing problem-based learning, the research participants' speaking skills were evaluated. The speaking task result can be calculated as follows.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics gained from speaking score

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Speaking test	28	41	90	68.43	12.530
Valid N (listwise)	28				

Table 1 shows that the Telecommunication Engineering students' speaking test score was varied from 41 to 90 out of 100 with total mean is 68.43. The gained score based on the gender is female: 41 to 89, while male is 50 to 90. Besides, the variation of students' speaking test score is 12.530. It shows that students critical thinking for speaking is good. Based on the observation result, students are motivated to engage the learning process when they have background knowledge about the topic given. When they were asked to interview the entrepreneurs and provide solutions, they reported their interview results in detail along with wider range of logical solutions over the business problems encountered. In the contrary, they provided limited solutions when they were asked to do problem-based task in the class. This is supported by their reflective speaking reports. There were 21 out of 28 students reported that solving problem based on the interview practice is easier than doing context-given problem in the class.

> "I love doing interview. I can find the solutions quicker because I can feel and imagine the businessman's problems. Meanwhile, it is harder for me to find solution for the problem given in the class because there is limited time of the course" (Student 1).

> "We do not feel what is really happening when we do the assignment in the class. We are also forced to give solution spontaneously in another language. Meanwhile, when we interview the interviewee, we can see the interview result as the source to analyze the weakness of their business and how to find useful solutions" (Student 3).

> "Doing interview task is easier than context-problem-based task in the class. It is because I got real data and information from the field and do not depend on my spontaneity and limited time. I can evaluate the problem and think about the solution. It is more flexible and pressure free" (Student 8).

> "I am not a business student. Sometimes, the language of the provided context is not familiar for me. I need more effort to interpret the context of the assignment given in the class. That is why it is easier to do interview. I can interact with the entrepreneur, understand the condition directly, and I know the language. So, it is easier to map the problems and find the solutions" (Student 11)

> "Actually, the scenario is not really hard. However, I cannot really imagine the context of on-the-spot problem-based task in the class because I have limited English vocabulary. When it comes to interview task, I have more preparation time to construct the English expression and have dialog with the entrepreneur. Therefore, I can find the problems and give better solutions. I also have sense of responsibility not to share misinterpreted information" (Student 14).

> "Experiencing in the field directly and interacting with the interviewee makes me understand more about the problem. So, it is easier to find the solution" (Student 21).

This result is in line with Dewey's experiential learning (1933), Ansarian and Lin's (2018) and Dabbagh's (2019) research. Students feel more encouraged to learn and can develop their logical and high-order-thinking skills by having autonomous learning freedom, self-experience and doing meaning making through social interaction.

The observation also showed that students are more actively speak up their ideas in a small group-work discussion. Some students got nervous when they were asked to do individual public speaking in front of the class. They tend to read the note to help them deliver their ideas. They also show mispronunciation but it does not change the intelligibility of their speech. The reflective speaking reports demonstrate that all of students find challenge transferring their ideas in Indonesian to English due to lack of English vocabulary. Most of them reported that they concern about producing mispronunciation and grammatical mistakes during speaking practice. It supports Binnendijk's research (2014) where students' linguistics insecurity can be a hindrance for developing public speaking. Moreover, female students found challenges on compromising ideas with partners due to work load and dependent students. Student 2, 9, 10, and 23 reported that it is "hard to cooperate with students with different perspectives. If the character of a group member does not match, they tend to do the assignment carelessly". Besides, student 13, 20, 21, 27, and 28 explained that they need guidance to develop their critical thinking since thinking critically and inventing solution cannot be self-studied. This finding supports Binnendijk's (2014) and Mitchell & Smith's (2008) research.

The observation result and students' reflective reports also show how students develop their critical thinking. During the observation, students read between the lines to identify the problems, gather relevant information both online and discussing with friends, evaluate the gathered information, and generate the possible solution. Some of them concern on the linguistics elements so their speech is considered as intelligible. The reflective reports are in line with the observation result.

> "The first thing that we should do is understand the instruction. If we do not know the instruction, we cannot do the assignment as it is expected by the lecturer. We also need to be familiar with the context. We will not be able to give solution if we do not know what is happening" (Student 6).

> "Doing critical thinking is not that difficult. I can understand the problem and provide solutions. Yet, it is hard to put my ideas into English correct sentence. I have to think about the tenses, vocabulary, and how to say it. Sometimes, I choose not to speak so I will not get embarrassed" (Student 10).

> "I always try to read the instruction carefully and imagine what problem is stated. After that, I try to discuss it with my friend or do online research to get ideas for what solution that I can give" (Student 24).

> "As long as it is done in a group, I can share my ideas to do the assignment. My friends help me pick which information is useful for my tasks. If the task is individual, I need more time to imagine what is the situation and the problem given by lecturer" (Student 21)

This finding shows that some students still afraid of doing public speaking because of the linguistics interference. Therefore, lecturer should be able to provide innovative learning context that allows the students to reflect on their background knowledge, to practice more in applying critical thinking, and to get sufficient guidance to apply their critical thinking.

Conclusion

This study shows that engineering students have potential to be critical despite their lack of English vocabulary and poor pronunciation ability. Their public speaking challenge is on how to deliver ideas in another language rather than on how to develop their critical thinking. Evaluative teaching strategies that encourage scaffolding and learning autonomy are needed to enhance their critical thinking. Lecturer should be able to problematize situations that are familiar to the students thus they can think the problem or situation given in new ways. Considering that this study only focuses on evaluating engineering students' critical thinking ability in English public speaking, further research needs to be done whether there are any significant differences between male and female students' critical thinking ability in public speaking and how do female students develop their critical thinking for speaking different from male students. It is also employed only for one class. The research with greater number and deeper analysis need to be conducted.

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LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION OF TRILINGUAL LEARNERS IN A RURAL SCHOOL IN THE PHILIPPINES

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Abstract
Since its implementation in 2012, the Philippines' mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) program has already generated issues that point to the seemingly inadequate preparation of the education bureau when it comes to teacher training and instructional materials production. However, one concern that is seldom mentioned in the literature is the learners' attitude toward the languages they learn in the process. This is crucial because this attitude could reveal their learning motivations and formation of linguistic and sociocultural identity. Informed by the notion of language attitudes and construction of identity, this study explores the perception of trilingual children on their mother tongue and second languages—Ilocano, Filipino, and English, vis-à-vis their identity construction. Results show that most of the learners hold a positive attitude toward the three languages. However, the identified negative attitudes of some learners as regards these languages may cause pedagogical concerns linking to language teaching and the discourse of culture, nationalism, and globalization.

Keywords: language attitude, identity construction, mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE)

Introduction
The implementation of the Mother Tongue-based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) curriculum in the Philippines has effected a major change in its educational system. The mandate of the state is to require the delivery of basic education in the language understood by the learners. Specifically, from kindergarten up to the first three grades in elementary, instruction, teaching materials, and assessment shall be delivered in the mother tongue or the regional language of the learners. The learners' mother tongue is believed to facilitate the concept mastery and provide the foundation for the learning of additional languages. It is the goal of the program that all learners shall be literate in their native language by the end of Grade 1, in Filipino by the end of Grade 2, and in English by the end of Grade 3 (DepEd, 2016).

The literature on MTB-MLE in the Philippines is centered mostly on the efforts of linguists and policymakers to push for the implementation of the program and on the readiness of stakeholders in implementing it. The most celebrated research on MTB-MLE in the Philippines is probably that of the Lubuagan Kalinga

Multilingual Education Program by the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) (Dumatog & Dekker, 2003), which yielded positive results in the performance of the students who underwent the program. The students who represent the experimental group (taught in mother tongue), performed remarkably better in five domains than the control group. These domains include Reading, Math, Filipino, Makabayan (a learning area which put together several subjects that help promote students' personal and national identity), and English. It was noted that the success of the Lubuagan project is due to the strong sociocultural support of the community. In 2012, the Department of Education (DepEd) through DepEd Order no. 16 s. 2012 finally issued the guidelines on the implementation of the program starting the school year of 2012-2013.

The MTB-MLE program, however, after a few years of implementation, generated negative reactions from the stakeholders, which include the basic education teachers themselves, parents, and students. Most of the criticisms pertain not only to the framework but also the seemingly inadequate preparation of DepEd before its actual implementation. Some of them point to a lack of materials and zero to limited training for teachers, which resulted in non-maximization of the goals of the program (Lartec et al., 2014; Valerio, 2015; Espada et al., 2017; Rivera, 2017; Namanya, 2017). Gallego and Zubiri (2011), meanwhile, mapped out the development of the MTB-MLE in the country and analyzed the results of previous studies' on select communities' attitudes and perceptions toward the MTB-MLE program. In their meta-analysis, they noted that basic education teachers show a strong preference for English as a medium of instruction (MOI). These teachers also believe that students will be able to enhance their skills in English if they are exposed to it through its early use as the MOI. Citing Rafael and Rosario's (2011) study, Gallego and Zubiri (2011) mention that parents in Pangasinan, a province located in the northern Philippines, would rather have their children taught in Filipino and English than in the vernacular language. This is due to their belief that it is through Filipino and English that their children would most likely communicate widely. Besides, Javier and Vicerra (2010), as cited in Gallego and Zubiri (2011), posit that students manifest high regard toward English as it is considered to be the language for "socio-economic advancement". Thus, they prefer to get educated in English than in any Philippine language.

In the previous studies, teachers' and students' attitudes toward the program would emerge. However, what is often neglected is how the MTB-MLE framework possibly affects the identity construction of the learners. It is clear, based on empirical studies, that as children develop a strong foundation in their mother tongue, they are more likely to get a better grasp of their second language, i.e. Filipino, and of their third language, i.e. English; and the success or failure of the program can be traced from its implementation. However, what is seldom mentioned in the discussion is the young learners' attitudes toward the languages they learn in the MTB-MLE program. This is crucial because it could reveal how they construct their cultural and linguistic identity and how this construction of identity could affect language learning (Lobatón, 2012; Dressler, 2014; Dumitrašković, 2014; Amirian & Bazrafshan, 2016; Fisher, Evans, Forbes, Gayton, & Liu, 2018). In the interactional and post-structural sense, identity inside the classroom is dynamic and changing. Learners, then, can engage in activities and interactions where they can assert or hint their identity. At the outset, their language identities can be revealed easily by their language repertoire. Other identities they have such as cultural or ethnic identities can be revealed through their knowledge and opinions about and behaviors toward their culture. In the context of MTB-MLE, however, these could be revealed by the multilingual learners' attitudes or perceptions toward their target languages and the cultures these languages represent.

In this study, I explore how trilingual children, i.e. those who had already undergone the MTB-MLE program, perceive the three languages they have been exposed to since kindergarten vis-à-vis their identity construction. Thus, I address this major problem: What do trilingual children's language attitudes reveal about their identity construction? To help me answer this problem, I pose the following sub-problems: What is the attitude of the trilingual children toward the three languages they speak and/or learn? Do they manifest positive or negative attitudes toward these languages?

Theoretical Framework

I draw on Crystal's (1997) and Richards, Platt, and Platt's (1992) notions of language attitude. Crystal (1997) defines language attitudes as the "feelings people have about their own language or languages of others" (p. 215). Moreover, Richard et al. (1992) illustrate language attitude as, in addition to the general definition provided above, "expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language," which "may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease of difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status" (p. 199). Further, in the context of this study, I invoke Ladegaard's (2000) concept of language attitude in which he posits that it is composed of three components: knowledge, emotion, and behavior. Language attitude, then, encompasses perceptions, beliefs or opinions, and judgments of the learners on their respective languages.

I also draw on DepEd's MTB-MLE framework, which has the ultimate goal of producing Filipinos who are "lifelong learners in their L1 (MT), L2 (Filipino, national language), and L3 (English, the global language)" (DepEd, 2016, p. 2). Through this framework, then, classroom activities are carried over in the learners' native language and other languages. The framework assumes that having a strong foundation in the MT will allow for effective cognitive, academic, and second language development. Moreover, I refer to the research participants as trilingual speakers given the circumstance that all of them speak Ilocano as their native language and they had been exposed to Filipino and English formally while in the MTB-MLE program. Since this study is not concerned with their proficiency in the three languages, conducting tests to determine their level of proficiency was deemed unnecessary. Thus, in this study, the participants' being trilingual is due to their general ability to use the three languages during and even after the program.

In viewing the concept of identity, this study is adopting an interactional and post-structural perspective. I invoke Coulmas' (2005) and Tabouret-Keller's (1997) notion of linguistic identity in analyzing the identity construction of the learners based on their perception of the languages they speak while in the MTB-MLE program. Coulmas argues that "as we speak, we reveal who we are, where we grew up, our gender, our station in life, our age, and the group we want to belong to" (p. 173). This suggests, then, that through our use of language, our identity is manifested. While this notion points to how linguistic identity is constructed, it also hints how learners' use or choice of language could give away their other forms of identity such as ethnic identity, cultural identity, and national identity. Moreover, since identity is not fixed, linguistic identity is not only associated with one's mother tongue. As we speak now of multilingual societies, we also speak of multilingual linguistic identities. This means that multilingual speakers can signify or assume more than one linguistic identity depending on the number of languages they speak. As these speakers also change from one linguistic identity to another, this also implies their association with the speech community these languages signify. Tabouret-Keller (1997) best explains this when he says:

> We are identified, and identify ourselves, within the large space of the society of our time, within the different groups – institutional, professional, friends, etc. – we belong to, within the surroundings of our home, our office, our car, our out-of-door outfits, our in-door outfits, etc. (p. 316)

The three major concepts, namely MTB-MLE, language attitudes, identity construction, set the theoretical foundation of this study. The framework presupposes the immediate environment or context where the trilingual learners are in, i.e. MTB-MLE classroom. The trilinguals are exposed to three languages while in the program, namely, Ilocano, Filipino, and English. Ilocano is a major language mostly spoken in the northern Philippines. Being the national language, Filipino is required to learn in school and so is English being an official language. Both Filipino and English are mandatory school subjects. As they are expected to learn concepts using their mother tongue alongside their learning of Filipino and English, they are expected to develop attitudes, positive or negative, toward each of these languages. In this paper, however, I only focused on attitudes relating to language. Along with the participants' manifestation of language attitudes, are their signification of linguistic identities, which also point to their other forms of identities such as ethnic identity, national identity, and global identity. This whole process comprised of the participants' identity construction in the MTB-MLE program.

Methods

Data collection was done through a survey that elicited perceptions and attitudes of the learners toward their languages: Ilocano, Filipino, and English. For this pilot study, I initially designed a 4-point Likert scale English questionnaire consisting of 35 items, which was validated by two language professors. In constructing the survey, I considered two survey questionnaires were used to elicit language attitudes and perceptions (Stracke, 2011; Esteron, 2019) and used them as a guide. Table 1 shows the calculated range.

Table 1. The calculated range

Items 1-32	Range	Items 33-35
Strongly Agree	1.00 – 1.75	I like it very much
Agree	1.76 – 2.50	I like it
Strongly Disagree	2.51 – 3.25	I dislike it
Disagree	3.26 – 4.00	I dislike it very much

A total of 50 respondents participated in the survey, all of whom go to a small barangay elementary school in an Ilocano-dominated town in Pangasinan province. The school implemented the MTB-MLE program in 2013 and specifically requires Ilocano as MOI from Kindergarten to Grade 3. Students under the program also take a separate Ilocano subject. Due to time constraints, I opted to observe a nonprobability sampling method. I utilized this concerning the profile of my target participants, that is, all of them must have already undergone the MTB-MLE program. In terms of age, therefore, and since the MTB-MLE program is up to Grade 3, the research participants are of the minimum age of 8. Thus all of the respondents must be within the age range of 8-12 years old. Since classes in basic education had already ended before the conduct of this study, I observed a snowball method in sampling my target participants. I sought the help of the first set of respondents to recruit more participants. Because I noticed during my initial run of the survey among my first two respondents that they would ask me to translate some words in Filipino, I prepared a Filipino translation of the survey for the other respondents' quick understanding and to facilitate the survey more smoothly and systematically. Occasionally, I also translated some terms in Ilocano, their mother tongue, for better comprehension. Lastly, since the participants are minors, consent from their parents was secured.

Findings and Discussion

This section is divided into three parts. Each part accounts for the learners' attitudes toward Ilocano, Filipino, and English, respectively. Following the presentation of the learners' language attitudes, I provide discussions on what these attitudes could manifest about their socio-cultural identity and what could have led and/or contributed to their identity construction.

Trilinguals' Language Attitudes toward Ilocano

The first 15 items in the survey questionnaire elicit respondents' attitudes toward Ilocano, which could outright reveal something about their identity construction (see **Table 2**). It is worth noting that the respondents seem to have very high regard toward Ilocano, thus a very positive attitude toward their mother tongue. With a mean score of 1.22, the respondents strongly agree that Ilocano is an important part of them. This could be since it is their first language. It also helps that Ilocano is the language of the community. As mentioned above, the school is situated in an Ilocano-speaking community, which means that, although other languages can be used in communication at any time, Ilocano is the primary medium of communication among the members of the community. With average mean scores of 1.44, 1.54, and 1.54, respectively, the respondents strongly agree that Ilocano is useful, valuable, and necessary.

This finding is quite expected given that Ilocano figures in the respondents' immediate environment, family, and community. Since the school is situated in an Ilocano-speaking community, they see the value of the language, mainly through its communicative function. Interestingly, however, this positive attitude toward Ilocano could not have been only pragmatic but also symbolic. Their attitude is positive rather than negative because they perceive Ilocano language as an easy language to learn as it is a language that is familiar to them. Richard et al. (1992) note that speakers tend to develop a positive or negative attitude toward a language relative to their impression of the difficulty or simplicity of the language. Moreover, since these learners speak Ilocano as their mother tongue, it would be easy for them to identify the language. In this way, not only their Ilocano language identity but also their Ilocano ethnic identity is constructed. In this paper, I do not wish to establish a strict delineation between ethnic identity and cultural identity. I lean more toward Block's (2007) notion of ethnic identity where he posits that ethnic identity is determined by one's regard toward their cultural heritage and one factor that points to ethnic identity is language inheritance. Since speakers are born in the community or in a family that speaks Ilocano, it is natural for them to smoothly identify the language. Thus, it is clear at this point that language makes identity (ethnic/cultural) construction possible. It is not only that we express our identity through language but also our mere choice of language reveals our identity. Our attitude toward a language would, in turn, signal our identity construction. Further, Bautista and Gonzalez (1986) note from the early studies on language and ethnicity in the Philippine context that the mother tongue is primarily the determining factor in ethnic identity construction among Filipinos. We can somehow say the same thing with the trilingual learners in the study. As posited by identity studies scholars, as one speaks a language, they express who they are and how they want to be identified (Coulmas, 2005; Tabouret-Keller, 1997).

Table 2. Trilinguals' language attitudes toward Ilocano

On Ilocano	MEAN	
1. Knowing Ilocano is an important part of who I am.	1.22	Strongly Agree
2. I think that Ilocano is useful.	1.44	Strongly Agree
3. I think that speaking Ilocano is a valuable skill.	1.54	Strongly Agree
4. I think that speaking Ilocano is a necessary skill.	1.54	Strongly Agree
5. I always looked forward to attending my Ilocano class.	1.52	Strongly Agree
6. I think that learning Ilocano made school more enjoyable.	1.58	Strongly Agree
7. I think that speaking Ilocano has helped me make friends.	1.68	Strongly Agree

On Ilocano	MEAN	
8. I think that speaking Ilocano at times is embarrassing.	2.00	Agree
9. I think that learning Ilocano has been helpful in learning Filipino.	1.82	Agree
10. I think that learning Ilocano has been helpful in learning English.	1.78	Agree
11. I think that learning/speaking Ilocano has been a barrier to learning Filipino.	1.84	Agree
12. I think that learning/speaking Ilocano has been a barrier to learning English.	1.74	Strongly Agree
13. I think that learning Ilocano has made school more challenging.	1.74	Strongly Agree

As regards the respondents' attitude toward Ilocano as a subject, they appear to have a positive attitude. With a mean score of 1.52, most of them strongly agree that they were excited about attending their Ilocano class. This result is worth mentioning because this is suggestive of the kind of classroom environment that the mother tongue class provides for the students. This may also suggest a high level of motivation among the students not only in the formal learning of Ilocano but in learning in general. This finding is further supported by the result of items 6 and 7 where the respondents strongly agree that learning Ilocano made their stay in school more enjoyable and speaking the language has helped them make friends. This supports what several studies have already noted the importance of having a positive attitude and high motivation in learning. In a language classroom, for instance, speakers are projected to acquire and use the target language if they hold a positive attitude toward the language (Krashen, 1981; Ellis, 1994, 1997; Saville-Troike, 2006; Karahan, 2007; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009; Garrett, 2010). Having a positive attitude toward the Ilocano classroom environment, therefore, could be an indication of the imminent success of learning. This is showed in their response to item 13 where they strongly agree that Ilocano has made school for them more challenging. On the one hand, "challenging" could mean difficult and can be perceived as a negative attitude. On the other hand, it may not necessarily suggest a negative perception as it can only be an objective description of the task of learning the language. After all, learners can still find school enjoyable amidst the laborious tasks there are to accomplish. I concede at this point that additional data collection such as interview or FGD could further enlighten what learners mean by "challenging". Further, it is interesting that most of them agree that speaking Ilocano is at times embarrassing. This is a negative attitude toward Ilocano. Although most of them manifest a strong association with Ilocano through their perception that it is an important part of who they are as a person, they sometimes feel embarrassed speaking it. Here, we could see how the learners manifest a seemingly unstable ethnic identity construction vis-à-vis their language attitude. The multilingual context plays a major role in the identity formation of the learners. Clearly, we see here that their identity, i.e. ethnic identity, is not stable. On the one hand, they are proud of their language inheritance, which is revealed through their positive regard toward Ilocano. On the other hand, they may figure in situations where they shy away from speaking their native language, which is a hint of a negative attitude toward it. This relates to one of the findings in the study done by Rafael and Rosario (2011). They note that parents of MTB-MLE children have a negative attitude toward Pangasinan, the mother tongue of the learners, to be the MOI. Although this negative attitude comes from the parents, this could be picked up through them by their own children. That is why Gallego and Zubiri (2011) recommend that all stakeholders must be involved in the planning of the MTB-MLE program. Likewise, this embarrassment that learners feel when speaking Ilocano could be due to the impression that speaking a vernacular language is not desirable compared to speaking Filipino and English. I will touch more on this as I discuss the learners' attitude toward Filipino and English, but at this point, it is imperative to note that negative language attitudes like this could equally have an impact on the success of the language learning process (Ellis, 1994, 1997).

With mean scores of 1.82 and 1.78, most of the participants agree when asked about their opinion on whether Ilocano has helped them in their learning of Filipino and English, respectively. Although it is premature to assume at this point that this could be due to the correct implementation of the MTB-MLE program, this is a significant finding because this could possibly hint that the objective of the program to provide a good foundation for learning other languages by letting children have a mastery of their native language first is achieved, at least in the perspective of the learners. Unfortunately, when asked whether Ilocano has been a barrier to learning Filipino and English, most of them agree and strongly disagree with mean scores of 1.84 and 1.74, respectively. If we are to connect these findings to their opinion on whether Ilocano has helped in their learning of Filipino and English, one will see an obvious contradiction.

Trilinguals' Language Attitudes toward Filipino

In terms of the respondents' attitude toward Filipino, it is worth stating that, with a weighted mean score of 1.44 (see **Table 3**), they strongly agree that Filipino is an important part of who they are. Most of them strongly agree that speaking in Filipino is a useful, valuable, and necessary skill. This could be due to the status of Filipino as a national language and to its function as a lingua franca. Thus, it is also not surprising that most of the respondents would be looking forward to attending their Filipino class and that learning Filipino made school more enjoyable for them. They even strongly agree that Filipino has helped them make friends. Concerning their positive attitude toward Ilocano, this finding is also not at all surprising. As mentioned above, Filipino is the national language and one of the two official languages of the country. That they consider speaking it useful, valuable, and a necessary skill speaks volumes about their national identity construction. However complicated national identity is a concept, it is a fact that the discourse of national identity is part of the agenda of the MTB-MLE program. As mentioned elsewhere, the program aims to develop children as lifelong learners in their L1 (MT), L2 (Filipino) and L3 (English). Thus, this mandate also assumes children to foster their national identity and it is through their learning and use of the national language that they can achieve this. Since "language acts are acts of identity" (Tabouret-

Keller, 1997, p. 315), learners are seen to construct their national identity within and after having completed the MTB-MLE program. What is surprising to note, however, is their response to item 21. With a weighted mean score of 1.92, most of the respondents agree that speaking Filipino at times is embarrassing. I speculate that this could be because outside the Filipino classroom, the medium of communication is Ilocano and speaking in Filipino may be awkward for the learners. Using it is as a medium of communication is uncommon and unnatural for the respondents since their mother tongue is Ilocano. Nevertheless, this finding merits further probing using a different data collection method to elicit more information about the attitude it reveals.

Table 3. Trilinguals' language attitudes toward Filipino

On Filipino	MEAN	
14. Knowing Filipino is an important part of who I am.	1.44	Strongly Agree
15. I think that Filipino is useful.	1.64	Strongly Agree
16. I think that speaking Filipino is a valuable skill.	1.50	Strongly Agree
17. I think that speaking Filipino is a necessary skill.	1.64	Strongly Agree
18. I always looked forward to attending my Filipino class.	1.56	Strongly Agree
19. I think that learning Filipino made school more enjoyable.	1.56	Strongly Agree
20. I think that speaking Filipino has helped me make friends.	1.72	Strongly Agree
21. I think that speaking Filipino at times is embarrassing.	1.92	Agree
22. I think that learning/speaking Filipino has been a barrier to learning English.	1.64	Strongly Agree
23. I think that learning Filipino has made school more challenging.	1.46	Strongly Agree

Moreover, most of the respondents strongly agree that learning/speaking Filipino has been a barrier to learning English with a weighted mean score of 1.64. If the objective of the MTB-MLE program is to provide a good transition from learning Filipino to learning English, this finding could be symptomatic to a potential defect in the implementation which could affect the attitude of the children toward the language they are supposed to learn. As also found in the attitude of the respondents toward Ilocano, the respondents strongly agree, with a weighted mean score of 1.46, that learning Filipino has made school more challenging. While this could be a sign that they have a negative attitude toward Filipino, I contend that this attitude may be due to various factors such as how the learning of Filipino is done and the teacher handling the class. Also, I maintain that the word "challenging" could also mean positively; that is, the respondents still find school enjoyable despite having a challenging experience learning Filipino as evidenced by the fact that they looked forward to attending their Filipino class. However, this can be validated by conducting additional inquiries from the respondents, possibly, through an interview or FGD.

Trilinguals' Language Attitudes toward English

Compared to the respondents' regard for Ilocano and Filipino, most of them only agree that English is an important part of who they are with a mean score of 1.90 (see **Table 4**). This can be explained by the fact that English is not a local language. Although English is an official MOI, it is not a common medium of communication in the school, at home, and in the community given the demographics of the research participants and the location of the school. Likewise, slightly lower scores were noted when their opinion was asked whether English is a useful, valuable, and necessary skill compared to their opinions toward Ilocano and Filipino. Nevertheless, with mean scores of 1.80, 1.88, and 1.92, respectively, the respondents agree that English is indeed useful, valuable, and necessary. This positive attitude toward English may be attributed to what Ricento (2000) calls "stable diglossia" and this, according to Mahboob and Cruz (2013) is very apparent in the Philippine context. English, being one of the official languages of the country, is elevated to high status as the language of education, commerce, law, and politics. This reality has since relegated Filipino and other languages to a lesser role and function in society. In turn, this has shaped people's perception of English and other languages. For instance, if you are not proficient in English, you are stereotypically deemed unintellectual, not modern, or poor. What this stable diglossia has produced is this kind of mentality because as Mahboob and Cruz (2013) put it, "English is now more than ever, packaged as the language of opportunity" (p. 7) or simply, the language of globalization. The Philippine government is holding on to this discourse when they promoted the MTB-MLE program as a way to produce Filipinos who are competitive in English as a global language. This mindset could have influenced the learners' positive regard for English. This language attitude, then, allows for the construction of a supposed "global identity" among the learners. As noted above, this attitude by the learners echoes the findings of Javier and Vicerra (2010) and Rafael and Rosario (2011) regarding English as perceived to be the language that will alleviate the low socioeconomic status of Filipinos. On the one hand, the belief that learning English promises to prepare the children to be globally competitive is true. However, this mentality has since created, as a consequence, a negative attitude toward other languages in the Philippines. A common impression people have is that local languages are of less importance than English and this could be due to what Gonzalez (1998) calls "auxiliary" function that is accorded to the local languages by those that legitimize the diglossic situation of the country. Nevertheless, what this positive language attitude by the learners reveals is their attempt at constructing a global identity alongside their ethnic and national identity.

Table 4. Trilinguals' language attitudes toward English

On English	MEAN	
24. Knowing English is an important part of who I am.	1.90	Agree
25. I think that English is useful.	1.80	Agree
26. I think that speaking English is a valuable skill.	1.88	Agree
27. I think that speaking English is a necessary skill.	1.92	Agree
28. I always looked forward to attending my English class.	1.88	Agree
29. I think that learning English made school more enjoyable.	2.14	Agree
30. I think that speaking English has helped me make friends.	2.18	Agree
31. I think that speaking English at times is embarrassing.	2.04	Agree
32. I think that learning English has made school more challenging.	2.06	Agree

Moreover, the respondents also agree that learning English made school more enjoyable for them and has helped them make friends. However, the mean scores are yet again lower than the mean scores for their opinion about Ilocano and Filipino. Also, the mean score for their opinion about whether they looked forward to attending their English class, is lower compared to when they were asked about their opinion about their Ilocano and Filipino classes. While these findings may suggest still a positive attitude toward English, the respondents seem to have a lower level of a positive attitude toward English than toward the other local languages. This may be explained by the fact that English is a language they do not easily identify with given that it is not their home language and it is not the language of the community. This could be supported by the finding that most of them feel embarrassed about speaking English. Interestingly, the respondents only agree that English has made school more challenging for them with a mean score of 2.06 as compared to the respondents' opinion about Ilocano and Filipino, both of which garnered 1.74 (strongly agree) and 1.46 (strongly agree), respectively. Lastly, it is good to note that despite the findings that the respondents feel embarrassed to speak Ilocano, Filipino, and English at times, findings show that they still have high regard toward the three languages.

Table 5. General Language Attitude of the Trilinguals

General attitude toward:	**MEAN**	
33. Ilocano	1.10	I like it very much
34. Filipino	1.08	I like it very much
35. English	1.64	I like it very much

Despite their slight differences, the mean scores relating to the respondents' general attitude toward the three languages appear to be high (see **Table 5**). All respondents demonstrate a positive attitude toward the three languages they learned. I claim that this is a relevant finding because this means that the respondents did not take any issue with using or learning any of the three languages they were required to use and learn. If this is any indication of the motivation of the respondents toward learning, it is clear that they seem to have developed a positive motivation for learning while in the MTB-MLE program.

While the analysis of data generally points to positive results, it is also worth mentioning that some respondents express what seems to be a manifestation of negative attitude toward Ilocano, Filipino, and English. In Ilocano's case, 2 respondents strongly disagree that knowing Ilocano is an important part of who they are, one strongly disagrees that it is useful, three strongly disagree that it is a valuable skill, and two strongly disagree that it is a necessary skill. Three of them also strongly disagree that they always looked forward to attending their Ilocano class. With Filipino, I noted that at least 2 respondents strongly disagree that knowing Filipino is an important part of who they are, three strongly disagree that it is useful, at least two disagree that it is a valuable skill, and four strongly disagree that they looked forward to attending their Filipino class. With English, it is remarkable that at least 10 respondents disagree that English is an important part of who they are, at least nine disagree that it is useful, at least nine disagree that it is a valuable skill, and at least nine disagree that it is a necessary skill. At least 8 of them disagree that they looked forward to attending their English class. These negative attitudes could be as interesting as the positive attitudes noted previously about the respondents. These negative attitudes may also provide valid insights as to how the MTB-MLE framework can be improved. However, since the study was limited to doing the survey, reasons as to why these participants manifest negative language attitudes remain unknown at this point. Conducting further measures such as interviews and focus group discussions to inquire about the motivations behind these negative reactions is thus recommended.

Conclusion

This study showed trilingual children's language attitudes in the context of MTB-MLE classroom and what these language attitudes reveal about their identity construction. Overall, the respondents show a positive attitude toward Ilocano, Filipino, and English. More than in English, however, the respondents seem to have stronger regard toward Ilocano and Filipino because these two languages are local languages. Ilocano is their mother tongue and Filipino is the national language. English, in contrast, may still be perceived as a 'foreign' language which does not function as a medium of communication in the community. Nevertheless, the regard that the respondents have toward the three languages point to their trilingual or multilingual identity. As multilingual speakers, they signify three linguistic identities: Ilocano, Filipino, and English. This suggests dynamic and contextual linguistic identities. In turn, the respondents also project their socio-cultural identities. The fact that they like Ilocano, Filipino, and English could mean that they identify with the speech community or to the corresponding bearing these languages point to. They identify with the Ilocano-speaking community where they are a part of, with the Filipino-speaking community because Filipino is considered the national language and it is their way of responding to the nationalist effort of the country, and with English, because it is an official language of the country and most likely because English is perceived to be the global language. In this study, this is seen as the learners' construction of their ethnic identity, national identity, and global identity, respectively.

Lastly, it is important to note that this study could have generated more conclusive results had it not been because of some limitations it encountered. Among these is the issue of data collection. A more systematic sampling of data can be done to make sure that the target population is well represented and to establish a higher level of acceptability. Also, data triangulation can be observed to check the consistency of the responses of the respondents. Future studies on multilingual children's language attitudes against the backdrop of mother tongue-based multilingual education may triangulate survey data with interviews or focus group discussions among children as young as 8 years old. For instance, the negative language attitudes of some respondents noted above, could have been triangulated with data that can be elicited through interviews or FGDs. These methodologies should help in verifying responses and thus, should help enrich the data. Overall, despite the limitations, this study was able to contribute interesting and valid insights on the literature on the relation between language attitudes and identity construction relating to the MTB-MLE framework in the Philippine context

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CATEGORIZATION OF COMPOUND NOUNS IN KURDISH AND ENGLISH

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Abstract
This paper is concerned with the categorization of compound nouns in Kurdish and English. It compares compound nouns of the two languages according to the prototype theory, applying categorization as a cognitive assumption. The paper attempts to achieve the following goals: first, classifying Kurdish compound nouns using morphological and semantic criteria, listing Kurdish compound nouns according to the prototype theory, showing the structure based on which the relationship between the components of a compound noun is represented, comparing the morphological and semantic relations between the components of compound nouns of Kurdish to those of English. The data of the study on the Kurdish language were collected and analyzed based on the fact that the author is a native speaker of Kurdish. The results show that the morphological structure of compound nouns in Kurdish is more complex than the structure of compound nouns in English though they share some structures. Unlike English, the head in Kurdish compound nouns is not always a noun. The categorization of Kurdish compound nouns is different from English ones; it depends on the nature of the languages and the different perspectives of their users. In both languages, there are compound nouns whose meaning needs encyclopedic knowledge of the speakers to interpret them. This point confirms the assumptions of cognitive linguistics namely simplicity, conventionality, and semanticity.

Keywords: compound nouns; categorization; prototype and periphery; endocentric; exocentric

Introduction

The present study is based on the framework of cognitive linguistics, how humans organize, process and convey information via an instrument which is language. The paper assumes that the use of compound nouns is determined by two factors; one is that every linguistic expression is meaningful and has a specific function in the language. The second is that the use of the expression is the result of how the speaker construes a situation. Accordingly, two expressions having the same content are different in meaning. That is why each one is linguistically expressed differently. The paper applies the theory of categorization on compound nouns in English and Kurdish.

Categorization is the mental act of grouping together numerous senses of lexical items into a category. A category is a network of distinct but related senses of a given lexical item. One of these senses is a prototype which is the central item and the most salient example. It comes to mind first, whereas the remaining senses are called periphery and are listed according to their conceptual distance from the prototype.

A compound noun is a noun formed by combining two words (roots, bases, free morphemes or lexical substructures) i.e. a modifier and ahead. The two words might come with a space, without a space, or with a hyphen. Compound nouns act as a single unit. In most languages, the compound nouns have a head that bears the main semantic meaning of the whole compound noun, and a modifier that either adds or limits the meaning of the head (Lyons, 1968, p. 250). However, the compound nouns have a special meaning of their own which is not equal to and is even to the meaning of its substructures (Tarasova, 2013, p. 2). Some types of compound nouns are much more common than others, prototypically and peripherally. Compounding is a very important way of adding to the word stock of many languages because the combination of the lexical substructures expresses a new idea (Ahmed, 2012, p. 35; Carstairs-McCarthy, 2018, p. 66).

A compound noun in English is made up of two bases; both of them are words or free morphemes(Ahmed, 2012, p. 36; Baseer, 1979, p. 62). However, in Kurdish, these independent or free morphemes are linked with or without the help of inter-fixes (Hamad, 2016, p. 356; Shwani, 2011, p. 120). In English and Kurdish, one of the lexical substructures is the Head (H) and the other is the modifier (M). The H may come at the left or the right hand of the structure and the same for the M. M+ H = a Compound Noun. For instance, in Kurdish *qeleṛeŞ*: *ṛeŞ* means 'black' which determines the color of the head *qel*: 'bird' the compound noun becomes blackbird or crow.

Literature Review

There are theoretical and empirical research papers made previously about compound nouns in a cognitive semantic approach. However, the focus has been on conceptual blending theory applying conceptual metaphor and metonymy theory (Alexander, 2014; Benczes, 2005; Vorobeva, 2016; Yang & Li, 2018; Zibin & Altakhaineh, 2018).

Hamad (2016, pp. 359-360) tried to identify the compound noun-formation patterns of English and Kurdish to show whether the compound nouns in the two languages are similar or differ semantically and syntactically. He listed nineteen syntactic patterns of English compound nouns and twenty-eight patterns of Kurdish ones. In two-third of the Kurdish compound noun patterns, inter-fixes such as e, u, be, t. and ne participate by which the two elements are combined are common, whereas inter-fixes do not take part in any of the English compound noun-formation patterns. At the level of semantics, he states that both languages have the four main types of compound nouns: endocentric, exocentric, appositional and coordinative compound nouns with the prevalence of endocentric compound nouns in the two languages. Based on (Plag, 2018), Hamad classifies compound nouns of English and Kurdish into primary, secondary, and copulative compound nouns. He points out that most English and Kurdish compound nouns belong to the first two types of compound nouns while the copulative compound nouns are very uncommon in both languages.

In a subsection of his book, Hamawand (2011, p. 203) applies the theory of categorization on English compound nouns in terms of prototype and periphery. The present study applies the same theory through the same method to achieve the following goals: first, classifying Kurdish compound nouns using morphological and semantic criteria, listing Kurdish compound nouns according to the prototype theory following Hamawand (2011, p. 203)'s model, showing the structure based on which the relationship between the components of a compound noun is represented. Then comparing categories of Kurdish compound nouns to English compound nouns to show the areas of similarity and differences between the two languages.

Endocentricity vs. Exocentricity

Compound nouns can be classified into Endocentric and Exocentric compound nouns according to the determination of meaning i.e. according to the semantic criteria:

1. *Endocentric Compound Nouns*

Endocentric is a term used to classify syntactic constructions using distributional criteria. "It refers to a group of syntactically related words where one of the words is functionally equivalent to the group as a whole i.e. there is a definable 'centre' or head inside the group, which has the same distribution as the whole" (Crystal, 2015, p. 16). While (Bauer, 1983, p. 186) sees an endocentric compound as a type of compound nouns in which the compound is a hyponym of the grammatical head such as an armchair is a kind of chair. (Hamawand, 2011, p. 205) uses the term endocentric to point to the case where the meaning of a compound is a specialization of the meaning of its head, i.e. the reference of the compound is the same as the reference of one of its consistent parts. Such a compound consists of head and modifier. Hence, the principles of analyzability and compositionality are appropriate. Analyzability is the case in which the substructure of a compound noun is matched up phonetically and semantically. Compositionality is the case in which the meaning of a complex expression is determined by the meaning of its components. This entails that the meaning of a compound noun is the result of the combination of the meaning of the substances(Hamawand, 2011, p. 204; Lyons, 1968, p. 251). For example, *gelaměw* means (*gela* N leaf + *měw* vine (N) = (vine leaf), (*berdenuej berd* N stone+ *nuej* N pray = (a stone which is used to pray on). *Masifroŝ masi* N (fish) + *froŝ* N (seller) = fish seller or (fishmonger), other examples are *gzhűgya gzh* N weed +ű+ *gya* N weed = weeds, *gftűgo: gft* verbal root speech+ ű+ *go* Verbal root speaking = conversation, *glko*: *gl* soil + *ko* N group = tomb.

2. *Exocentric Compound Nouns*

Bauer (1983, p. 187) states that exocentric compound nouns are that type of compound nouns in which the compound is not a hyponym of the grammatical head, for instance, redskin is not a type of skin. He thinks that it is a hyponym of a semantic head that is unexpressed in the compound. So, for him, the head of the compound redskin is an unexpressed noun a 'person'. However, this definition is not quite sufficient because an endocentric compound noun lacks a head, so the meaning of the whole is not semantically equivalent to either of its parts and is not carried by the head, but is external to the compound noun (Yazdani, 2019, p. 3).

Exocentricity is represented as the case where the meaning of a compound is not a specification of the meaning of its head, because it lacks a head, or it is not expressed morphologically. One should account for meaning through encyclopedic knowledge. In this type, the meaning of the compound noun does not come from the meaning of any of the parts (Hamawand, 2011, p. 205; Lyons, 1968, p. 250). For example, a compound noun as *sergewre* (a leader) consists of two independent morphemes *ser* N (head) and *gewre* adj (big), but the meaning of *sergewre* does not come from any of (*ser*: head) (*gewre*: big or large), other examples are (*bermal*: *ber* front Adv + *mal* N home) but the whole compound means a carpet used to pray on, (*Şapesend*: *Şa* N king + *pesend* V prefer but the compound noun is a name of a flower) (Mukryani, 1989, p. 464).

Compound Nouns in English

English compound nouns are made up of two free morphemes or lexical substructures, i.e. a head and a modifier. In English compounds, the head is always a noun but the modifier could be a noun, adjective or verb. English compound nouns are mostly right-headed(Brinton & Brinton, 2010, p. 104; Katamba, 2015, p. 16). Based on the relationship between the two substructures of compound nouns, there are prototypical and peripheral compound nouns as shown in Figure (1):

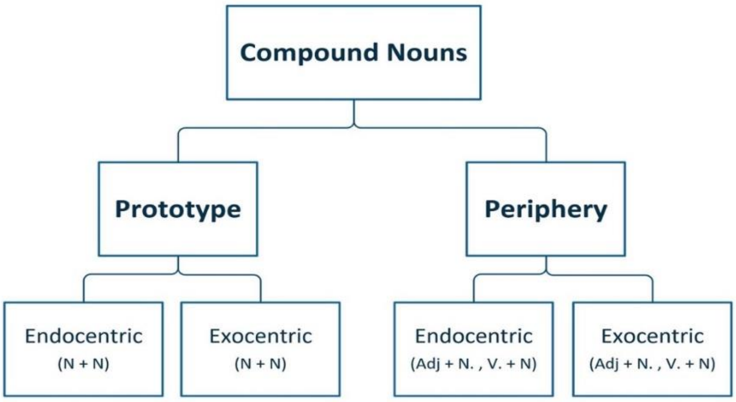

Figure 1. Categorization of Compound Nouns in English

1. *Prototypical Compound Nouns in English*

Prototypically, a compound noun is made up of two nouns a modifier (M) and a head (H) to express the following relations:

It is worth mentioning that both prototypical and peripheral relations of English compound nouns are listed briefly, as adapted from (Hamawand, 2011, pp. 204–206) because the main purpose is to compare Kurdish compound nouns with English ones.

a. M is part of H such as *armchair, book chapte*
b. H is part of M such as teardrop, car wheel
c. H is made of M such as sand clock, gold watch
d. H is used for M such as swimming pool, toothbrush
e. M is used for H such as oil heater, eyeliner
f. H holds M such as paperclip, wallpaper
g. H is positioned in in M such as kitchen table, post office
h. M is positioned in H such as earring, footnote.
i. H is the time for M such as mealtime, bedtime
j. M is the time for H such as morning walk, evening class
k. M is the field of H such as filmmaker, shopkeeper
l. H has the feature of M such as winning goal, cheeseburger
m. H causes M such as yeast bread, steam iron
n. M causes H such as tin-opener, blood pressure
o. M is a measure of H such as 1-day trip, two-days conference

Despite the compound nouns that could be classified according to the relationship between their components, there are compound nouns which meanings cannot be construed through the meaning of their head or modifier. Such compound nouns are called headless compounds (Hamawand, 2011, p. 207) such as brainstorm and honeymoon.

2. *Peripheral English Compound Nouns*

English Peripheral compound nouns are those compound nouns in which the head is a noun whereas the modifier is either an adjective or a verb. The endocentric peripheral compound nouns express the following relations:

a. Head does the action of Modifier. This is when the modifier is a verb, such as washman, washing machine, swimming pool, breakwater and so on.
b. Head has the property of the Modifier. This is when the modifier is an adjective, such as greenhouse, full moon, fast food.

Examples of exocentric peripheral compound nouns are pickpocket, longhand, green hand, deadline and so on

Kurdish Compound Nouns

Kurdish compound nouns are made up of two free morphemes with or without inter-fixes (such as e, u, be, tê and ne). The two free morphemes build a new noun that has a new independent meaning. One of the two free morphemes is a head (H) or profile determinant which is mostly a noun and marginally it can be a verbal root and the other one is the modifier (M) that belongs to any word class (noun, adjective, verb, adverb or even a verbal root) (Hamad, 2016, p. 360).

Based on the cognitive assumption of the prototype theory, Kurdish compound nouns are classified into a prototypical compound noun and peripheral compound noun:

1. *Kurdish Prototypical Compound Nouns*

Prototypically**,** a compound noun consists of two independent substructures with or without the help of an inter-fix. The combination could be between two nouns or a noun and an adjective, a verbal root, or adverb. Depending on the nature of the combining substructures, it expresses relationships such as:

a. M is sort of H. This relationship is modeled by (N+N) or (N +inter-fix + N) for example, *marmasi:* is sort of *masi N* which means *eel***.** Other examples such as (*Gelamĕw:* vine leaf), (*kewmar*: *kew* N chuker+ *mar* N snake= (a sort of fish), (*gűlebax*: *gull* N flower +e+ *bax* N garden= (rose), (*gaberd*: *ga* N cow+ *berd* N stone = rock), (*Şatű*: *Şa* N king +*tű* berry = blackberry) (Kory-Zanyary-Kurd, 2011, p. 16; Mukryani, 1989, p. 464).

b. M and H both make a mixture. i.e. the compound is made up of M and H. This relationship is represented by (N+N) such as in *mastaw*; in this example, *mast* N and *aw* N both make a mixture in which *mastaw: yogurt mixed in water, (gűlaw: a mixture of gűl N (flower) and aw N* water*)*, (*Şekraw*: *Şkre N (suger) + aw N water* = cooling drink of fruit juice) (Mukryani, 1989, p. 487,713,791)

c. H is positioned in M. This sense of location proceeds when the modifier indicates the habitat in which the head is placed, thus expressing a place -object relationship. The model is (N+ (inter-fix) +N) such as: (*qutabxane*: school, a place where children go to be educated), (*frokexane*: *froke* airplane N+ *xane* N = house airport), (*nexoŞxane*: *nexoŞ* N sick + *xane* N home= hospital), (*mezadxane*: action-place), (*miwanxane*: *miwan* N hostel) *(serűpĕ: sheep's totters*), (*hĕlkewṛőn*: fried eggs), (*dex̠lűdan*: *dexl* N corn+ *dan* N corn= corn (generic) (Mukryani, 1989, p. 846,880).

d. H is part of M. This sense of belongingness arises when the modifier denotes the whole and the head is the part such as *boletrĕ* where the relationship is modeled by (N+ (inter-fix)+ N) such as in (*gűełegenm*: ear of wheat) in this example *gűł* N is a part of *genm* N. (*kasaser*: *kase* N (container) +e+ *ser* N (head) = skull) (Kory-Zanyary-Kurd, 2011, p. 16).

e. M is part of H. This sense of belongingness arises when the head denotes the whole and the modifier the part such as *baxi miwe* (fruit garden) where the relationship is modeled by (N+ (inter-fix)+ N) such as in *desky derga*: *desk* (handle) +y + *derga* N (door) = handle of the door) and *tayey seyare:* N taye (tire) +y+ *seyare* N*(*car*)* = (car tier).

f. H has feature of M. This sense of comparison is realized when the modifier elucidates the shape, size, colour of the head and so on, of the head. This relationship is modeled by (adj. +(inter-fix) + N) (*terepiaz*: *ter* adj *(wet)* is a characteristic of *piaz* adj *(*onion*)* as being *ter : wet* onion*)*. To provide other examples, one can write *reŞmar: reŞ adj. (black) + mar N (snake) = black snake, qelereŞ: qel N (cro) + e+reŞ adj.* (black) = blackcrow*, sűrečnar*: *sűr adj (red)+e+ čnar N* (pine tree) = red pine tree, and (*tazedĕ*: *taze* adj (new)+ *edĕ* N (village) = a new village), (Ghareeb, 2012, p. 58; Mukryani, 1989, pp. 162–585).

g. M is positioned in H. This sense of location occurs when the modifier indicates the object and heads a location in which it is positioned, expressing an object-place relationship. One of the two substructures is an adverb while the head is a noun (adv.+N). Examples are (*jĕrxan*: basement) *jer adv (under)* is positioned under *xan* N (house), (*serban*: ser adv on + *ban* N (roof) = roof, (*serzemin*: earth), (*sergełű*: name of a place), and (*serkarěz*: name of a place).

h. H covers M. This sense of purpose happens when the modifier signals a cover and the head is an object, thus expressing a cover-object relationship. The relationship is represented with (N+ a verbal root), For instance, *serpőŞ*: *ser* N (head) + *pőŞ verbal root (to cover)*= headcover (Misitry of Education, 2009, p. 12), *destkěŞ*: *dest* hand N+ *kěŞ* V to cover = gloves, *serqap*: cover), and (*mlpěč*: *ml* N (neck) + *pěč* verbal root (to fasten) = scarf.

i. H is used for M. This appears when the modifier names a goal and the head is an instrument to achieve it. Thus, expressing a goal-instrument relationship, where the model is (N+(inter-fix) +N) or (N+ a verbal root). This is clear in this example, *gacűt*: *ga* N (cou) +*cűt* verbal root (plow) =plow-ox; *gacűt* is that ox which was used in the past to plough. *Kewčkiča*; *kewčk* N (spoon) +*i*+ *ča* N (tea)= teaspoon, a teaspoon is a spoon used for stirring tea, Other examples *čapalěu*: *ča* N (tea) + *palěu* N (strainer)= tea strainer, (*berdenűěj*: ber N (rock + e+ *nűěj* N (prayer*)*= prayer -fags, and (*befrmal*: *befr* N *(*snow*)* +*mal* verbal root (to sweep)= snow-sweeper (Xoshnaw, 2011, p. 28).

j. H holds M. This relationship occurs when the head indicates a container and the modifier indicates content. The model is (N +inter-fix +N). For example, in *qory ča* (tea pot) *qori* N (pot) is the container for *ča* N (tea). Other examples include *btly ghaz* : *btl* N (tank) +*y*+ *ghaz* N (gas) = gas tank, and *debey aw* : *debe* N box +*y*+ *aw* N (water) = water box.

k. There are also kinship compound nouns in which the M is a person who is one step further in the relationship from the H. Its model can be either (N+ a verbal root(za)) or (N+N). For example, *braza*: *bra* N (brother) +za= a son or daughter of your sister or brother. Other examples are (*brajin*: bra N (brother +*jin* N (wife) = sister-in-law, *xalojin: xalo* N (uncle) +*jin* N (wife) = wife of your uncle and *amojin* wife of your uncle: wife of your uncle, *xaloza*, *amoza*, *pűrza*, all mean cousin.

l. Other kinship compound nouns are those that show the relation of being a step relative. The head is a noun referring to one of the family members and the H is the word *zir* with the sense of being in step relation. Thus, the structure is (adj (Zir) +N). Such as *zirbra*: *zir* adj (step) +*bra* N (brother) = step-brother, *zir bauk*: *zir* adj (step)+ *bauk* N (father)= step-father, *zir xűŞk*: step-sister, and *zir mam*: step-uncle (Saeed, 2011, p. 94).

m. M is the occupation of H: the structure that is used to form this kind of relationship is (N+ verbal root). For example: *masïfrőŞ*: *masï* N (fish) + *frőŞ* verbal root (seller) = fishmonger, *masïgir*: *masï* N (fish) + *gir* verbal root (to catch)= fisherman, *asinger*: *asin* N (iron) +*ger* verbal root (to make)= blacksmith, *sertaŞ*: *ser* N (head) *taŞ* verbal root (to shave)= head-dresser, (*pěłaudrű*: *pěłau* (sho) +*drű* verbal root (to sew)= shoemaker, and *bergdrű*: *berg* N (clothes) +*drű* (to sew) = tailor

n. Another type is known as ‘reduplication’. It is the repetition of natural sounds, *gvegiv*: continuous rustling, *qrčeqirč*: crackling, *qazűqűłng*: crane (bird), and *girmegrim*: harsh and sonorous and *gűłűmił*: flower.

There are prototypical compound nouns in Kurdish whose meanings cannot be construed through the meaning of their head or modifier and one needs to have an encyclopedic knowledge to interpret their meanings i.e. exocentric compound nouns. Such as *reŞmall* which consists of adjective *reŞ* (black) and noun mall (home) but the meaning of the compound noun is a tent which is far different from the meaning of the head or the modifier. Other examples are (*Şerpenje*: *Şerpenje: Şer* N (lion)+ *penje* N (finger)= cancer, *dastnűěj*: *das N* (hand) + *tnűěj* N (prayer) =ritual ablution, and (*berdeqareman*: a stone behind which one of the Kurdish leaders, who was associated by English troops, hide in a battle).

2. Kurdish Peripheral Compound Nouns

Peripherally**,** compound nouns consist of two independent substructures with or without the help of an inter-fix. The combination could be between two nouns or a noun and an adjective, a verbal root, or an adverb or two verbal roots. The compound expresses such relationships as:

a. H does the action of M. This relationship is modeled by (N+ verbal root). This sense arises when M is an action and H is a person who does the action. For example, *sertaŞ* consists of *ser* N head and *taŞ* verbal root (to shave) = hair dresser. Other examples are *textebes: texte* n (wood) + *bes* verbal root to join) = housebuilder, and *goŞtfroŞ : goŞt* N (meat) + *froŞ* berbal root (to sell)= someone who sells meat.

b. M is a number of H. A compound noun gives this sense when it is composed of (Number+ N) such as *hezarpě*: *hezar* number (thousand) + *pě* N (foot) = millipede, a small creature with a long cylindrical body consisting of many parts, each part has two pairs of legs), *dűpŞk*: *du* (two) + *pishk* N (part) = scorpion), (*sědare*: se (three) + dare N (tree) = gallows), (*sěpa*: three-legged tripod), (*sěpere*: clover), and (*čwarčěue*: easel).

c. Repeating the same verbal root. Its model is **(**verbal root+(inter-fix) +verbal root). For example, (*hatűčo*: *hat* verbal root (come) +ű+*čo* verbal root (go) = traffic, the movement of people or goods, cars or trains from one place to another), (*gftűgo*) *gft* verbal root speech+ ű+ *go* verbal root speaking = conversation, (*mŞtűmal*: message), and (*mŞtumř*: dispute)(Xoshnaw, 2011, p. 28).

d. M shows the plurality of H. Another less common type of compound nouns is a structure which is a combination of two nouns. A noun shows a plurality of another noun with or without the help of an inter-fix. So, the structure is (N+ (inter-fix) +N). Examples are *qerizuqől*, here *qeriz* N means debit, *qol* N means arm, and the two words together mean an amount of debit, *geŞtűguzar*: *geŞt* N (trip) + *ű*+ *guzar* N (moving) = tourism, (*qapűqačax*: pots and pans) and (*gzhűgya*: weeds).

e. M is the time for H. The morphological structure is (N+ inter-fix+ adv.) For example, *gulebehar*: *gull* N (flower) +e+ *behar* adv (spring) = buttercup, *gulepaïze*: *gull* N (flower) +e+ *païze* adv (autumn) =an autumn flower, *zinnia*, *gulenisan*: *gull* N (flower) +e+ *nisan* adv (April) anemone, *Şeuleban*: something which is on the roof at night), and *Şeunuěj*: a prayer at night (Kory-Zanyary-Kurd, 2011, p. 16).

Examples of Kurdish exocentric peripheral compound nouns are *demeŞer* (name of a flower), *demeŞer* consists of *dem* N which means mouth, inter-fix e and *Şer* N which means lion in Kurdish, but the compound noun that they make is a name of a flower which is far from the meaning of its substructures and the speakers need background and contextual knowledge to interpret the meaning of *demeŞer*. Other examples are *serbaz: ser N (head)* + *baz* (eagl) = soldier (Xoshnaw, 2011, p. 28), and *berpris: ber* adv (front) + *pris N (issue)* = responsible or authority.

Findings and Discussion

As Table 1 shows, the components of compound nouns in English and Kurdish represent some aspects which are prototypical in both languages, such aspects include part-whole relation, purpose, location, and property. However, some relations are prototypical between components of Kurdish compound nouns but not between English ones; such aspects include family relations, making a mixture, feature, occupation, and reduplication.

Table 1. Prototypical Relations of Compound Nouns in English & Kurdish

Prototypical Relations of English compound nouns	**Prototypical Relations of Kurdish compound nouns**
H is part of M	H is part of M
M is part of H	M is part of H
H is used for M	H is used for M
H holds M	H holds M
H is poisoned in M	H is poisoned in M
M is poisoned in H	M is poisoned in H
H has the feature of M	H has the feature of M
H is the time for M	M is sort of H
M is the time for H	M and H both make a mixture
M is the field with which H is concerned	H covers M
H causes M	M is a person who has a relation with H
M causes H	
M is the measure of H	M is the adjective *zir* and H is a family member
H is made of M	M is the occupation of H
M is used for H	Reduplication of natural sounds

The peripheral relations of compound nouns in Kurdish are broader than those in English. They include action, membership, time, and plurality, while English has only action and property, as shown in table 2.

Table 2. Peripheral Relations of Compound Nouns in English & Kurdish

N.	**Peripheral Relations of English compound nouns**	**Peripheral Relations of Kurdish compound nouns**
	H does the action of M	H does the action of M
	H has the property of M	M is a member of H
		Repeating the same verbal root
		M is the time for H
		M shows the plurality of H

The model for prototypical relations of English compound nouns is (N+N), but in Kurdish there are various models such as (N+N), (N+ inter-fix+ N), (adj+ inter-fix+ N), (adv+ N), (N+ verbal root), (verbal root + verbal root) which shows Kurdish has a more complex word-formation structure than English.

There are two models for peripheral relations of English compound nouns, namely (V+ noun), and (adj. +N), but in Kurdish there are various models, such as (N+ inter-fix +N), (N+ inter-fix +adv), (number +N), and (verbal root + inter-fix + verbal root). This result too shows that morphological structures for word-formation are more complex and diverse than English.

In English compound nouns, the head should always be a noun, while in Kurdish there are compound nouns made of two verbal roots without any noun. This is confirmed by experts and native speakers of the Kurdish language, for example, Zeki Hamawand and Azad Fatah, as well as the examples the researcher got from the references and dictionaries such as Hembane Borine (1989) and Hamad (2016). So, for Kurdish compound nouns, it is their meaning and function i.e. their use, rather than their form (the constituents), that decides it is a compound noun, not a compound verb nor a compound adjective.

In both languages, there are compound nouns whose meaning needs encyclopedic knowledge of the speakers to interpret them. This point confirms the assumptions of cognitive linguistics namely simplicity since the compound nouns have both meaning and form, conventionality being accepted by the speech community, and semanticity because the symbols convey meanings.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to describe the role of the category theory in the semantic relation of compound nouns; It compares Kurdish compound nouns with English compound nouns to show that the morphological structure of words mirrors their semantic structure. A language user depends on his mental ability to group numerous senses of lexical items; this process is called categorization.

One of the senses is the prototype. In English compound nouns, the prototype is a combination of two nouns, while in Kurdish compound nouns, the prototype is the combination of two nouns or a noun with an adjective, verb, a verbal root or an adverb with or without the help of an inter-fix. On the other hand, there are peripheral or less common compound nouns in both languages that are linked to the prototype via semantic extensions. The peripheral English compound nouns are combinations of a noun and a verb or a noun and an adjective, while the peripheral Kurdish compound nouns are made up of a noun and another noun or a noun and an adverb or two verbal roots.

In brief, one can conclude that the theory of categorization can be applied to Kurdish compound nouns as well as English compound nouns. The word-formation structure of Kurdish compound nouns is more complex than that of English compound nouns; in Kurdish compound nouns, unlike English compound nouns, the head is not always a noun i.e. categorization of Kurdish compound nouns is different from the categorization of English ones, which depends on the nature of the languages, and different perspectives of their users.

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LANGUAGE AWARENESS: LANGUAGE USE AND REASONS FOR CODE-SWITCHING

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Abstract
The co-existence of languages in a speech community prompts language users to do code-switching in communication. They do it for certain reasons. This paper is to report language awareness among language users and the reasons why people do code-switching in their speech communities. Using an open-ended questionnaire, this research involved 50 participants. They were asked to identify the languages they had in their repertoire, the language they used when they communicate with certain people, and the reasons why they did code-switching in communication. The results showed that, first, the participants had awareness of languages in their repertoire, namely Indonesian, a local language, and English. Second, they admitted that they did code-switching in communication. Thirdly, the reasons for code-switching were to discuss a particular topic, to signal a change of dimension, to signal group membership, and to show affective functions.

Keywords: language awareness, language use, code-switching reasons

Introduction

It is common nowadays to find several languages used in a speech community. When people communicate in a speech community, they are usually aware of the language they should use in communication with other people. Indonesians, for example, are commonly bilinguals. They were raised in a local language and thus, they have at least their first language – Javanese, Sundanese, Batak language, Manado language, Balinese, or one of the other 700 local languages – and the national language, Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesian. Some generations might be raised in Indonesian and were introduced to foreign languages, such as English, Mandarin, or, the now-hype language, Korean language.

In communication, people usually just use the language they share with their interlocutors. Sociolinguists believe that the way someone speaks signals his/her social status and construct their social identity. It may also reflect the social relations between the speaker and the interlocutor (Holmes, 2008). This leads to the idea that one's speech is controlled by specific norms in society. In a multilingual speech community where people speak more than one language, this social rule or norm can be seen from the choice of language used when they communicate with other people. This choice of language includes code-switching between languages in one's repertoire because when two or more languages are in interaction in a certain community, code-switching is unavoidable.

Many research works focused on language use and code-switching in society as well in classroom settings, such as Romaine (1992), Auer (1998), Febiyaska and Ardi (2019), Holmes (2008), Bin, Xin, and Mimi (2014). Some terms need to be defined and explained for the sake of clarity and to set up the boundaries of discussion.

Language varieties

Bilingual Indonesians generally speak one local language and Indonesian, or Indonesian and one foreign language, such as English, Mandarin, or Japanese, with English as the most learned foreign language in Indonesia even though English is introduced and used as a foreign language. Even so, English has gained popularity among Indonesian, especially young people living in urban areas.

Young people are usually highly motivated to learn English considering English mastery has a functional benefit, such as 'to pass an examination, to get a better job, or to get a place at a university' (Ellis, 2003). This 'instrumental motivation' is the major determining factor in the second language (L2) learning. Ellis (2003, p. 75) further stated that 'in countries where English is a foreign language, learners are highly motivated to learn an L2 because it opens up educational and economic opportunities for them'. Job ads often post 'fluency in English orally and in writing' as English is the *lingua franca* of business communication in the world. Indonesian people have been identified as 'highly motivated to learn English' (see Astriningsih & Mbato, 2019; Juniar, 2016; Nichols, 2014).

Thus, Indonesia is a multilingual community where at least two languages are used in communication in speech communities. Therefore, it is very common to hear young people speak in a mixed language of Indonesian, Mandarin, and English. The older generation might still use their local regional language to communicate with their childhood friends or family members sharing the same language. Simply put, Indonesian is the *lingua franca* of communication in Indonesia – in schools, campuses, for media, business, and social life. Undeniably, the number of languages used in communities makes them bilingual or multilingual communities and this phenomenon usually prompts code-switching.

It has been noted worldwide in the last two decades that developments such as massive population shifts through migration, the expansion of educational provision to many more levels of society, and technical advances in large communities have emphasized the existence of a visibly and audibly multilingual modern world (Milroy & Muysken, 1995). The world gradually becomes smaller where people are more connected than ever. English has been the common language of communication and at the same time, a recognition of other languages becomes more common. Oxford English Dictionary decided to include 29 Nigerian words into the dictionary (Spary, 2020), for example.

Language awareness

Research work, such as Bolitho et al. (2003), Carter (2003), Lin (2011), discussed the term 'language awareness' related to the Language Awareness Approach to language teaching as to enhance learners' noticing which, in its turn, would manifest in the learners' ability to use the language. Richards & Schmidt (2002) defined language awareness as

> "a movement that developed in Britain in the 1980s which sought to stimulate curiosity about language and to provide links among the different kinds of language experiences children typically encountered in school, e.g. in science, in literature, and in foreign language classes. Language awareness courses seek to develop knowledge about language and languages as an important element in the education of all children" (Richards, J.C., & Schmidt, R., 2002, pp. 286-287).

This research was built on the framework that language is used in communication and that language awareness is linked more to the language users' awareness of their repertoire. This framework was built on a definition of language awareness proposed by Van Lier (1995, p. xi), i.e. 'an understanding of the human faculty of language and its role in thinking, learning, and social life'. Based on this definition, language awareness is noted to have an influence not only on the thinking and learning process but also on the way language users interact with each other socially. The development of language awareness takes place in social interaction which requires language users' knowledge about which language (code) is used with certain people for a certain function. This is in line with Carter (2003, p. 64) who stated that language awareness refers to the development of learners and enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the form and function of language. Language awareness is closely related to 'social factors' (Holmes, 2008) which governs the use of language.

Most people might not of the notion of social factors, but generally, they understand that they have to use different languages when they talk to other people. Holmes (2008, p. 21) termed this as social factors – who you are talking to, the social context of the talk, the function, and the topic of the discussion. And they know in which 'domain of language use', they use certain code or variety. Fishman (1999) categorized language use into five domains, i.e. family, friendship, religion, education, and employment.

Using Fishman's five domains, these are the codes Bagus (not his real name) uses in his communication. Bagus is a young Javanese Catholic man who lives and works in Jakarta. He is a master's student at a private university in Jakarta. Like other young men in Jakarta, he enjoys hanging out in cafes and of course, soccer games. This year, he plans to marry his fiancée. Table 1 shows Bagus' language awareness of the languages in his repertoire and his awareness of social factors that govern the way and how he uses the languages in communication.

Table 1. Fishman's five domains of the codes used by Bagus

Domain	Addressee	Setting	Topic	Code
Family	Parents, Sibling, and Fiancée	Home	Planning a wedding	Javanese, Indonesian
Friendship	Friend	Cafe	Hanging out	Jakarta Indonesian

Domain	Addressee	Setting	Topic	Code
Religion	Priest	Church	Deciding the wedding day	Indonesian
Education	Teacher	Campus	Negotiating a submission day	English
Employment	Employer	Workplace	Requesting for a promotion	Indonesian

Bagus speaks in Fine Javanese to his parents to show that he belongs to a Javanese community (social identity) and that he knows how to use it properly (social status). But sometimes, the components of a domain do not always fit with each other, thus individual interactions may not be typical (Holmes, 2008, p. 25). Bagus talks in Indonesian to both his parents and fiancée when they talk about the wedding plan. Holmes (2008) stated that people may select a particular variety of code because it makes it easier to discuss a particular topic, regardless of where they are speaking. This is what is termed as 'leakage' – the code associated with one domain is 'leaking' into another (Holmes, 2008, p. 25). And that is normal and occurs regularly, especially when both participants share more than one variety. This leakage is sometimes acknowledged as code-switching.

Bagus also talks in Jakartan Indonesian (a mixture of Indonesian and native Jakarta, Betawi language, with the typical *loe* (you), *gue* (I), *kagak* (no), combined with the *yuppies* language which mixes Indonesian with English. He uses this variety when he is with his friends hanging out at the café. He uses this code to show that he belongs to this group (social identity) and this shows his social relationship with his close friends. To negotiate a submission date of an assignment he speaks in English to his teacher. This usage is governed by the social dimension: there is a degree of formality, status or role, and function of the interaction, i.e. to negotiate a submission date (Holmes, 2008, p. 27).

Bagus uses the formal type of Indonesian when interacting with the priest in his church and with his employer. Both interactions show the social distance with the interlocutor and are usually done with a certain degree of formality, aiming at different goals: deciding the wedding day (in interaction with the priest) and getting a promotion (in interaction with his employer).

Code-switching

Code-switching, a common practice of communication in the multilingual speech community, has been the topic of many research work in the shrinking world where people from all over the world are enabled to communicate with each other as a result of technological advancement and a more connected world. Gumperz (1982, pp. 60-61) classified code-switching into two types:

1. Situational code-switching: caused by situation change, such as settings (class, work, home, etc.), kinds of activities (ceremonies, public speaking, formal negotiations, verbal games, etc.), and categories of speakers (family members, friends, government officials, social inferiors, strangers, etc.). The users of this type of code-switching are usually more aware of the situation change and the required language appropriate to the situation.

2. Metaphorical code-switching: motivated by the main concern of communication, i.e. the communicative effect of what they are saying. The switch is usually automatic, not consciously recalled. This code-switching occurs in the same minimal speech act, thus the change or switch seamlessly glides from one language to another. Most of the users are not aware of which language is used, especially when the two languages are used in communication in the communities.

Romaine (1992) defined code-switching as "the use of more than one language, variety, or style by a speaker within an utterance or discourse, or between different interlocutors or situations" (p. 110). Then, code-switching is seen as an action to address certain situational changes in an utterance or discourse. In line with this, Dornyei (1995, p. 58) suggested seeing code-switching in communication as one of the communication strategies, i.e. strategies to minimize or overcome potential communication breakdowns. Thus, code-switching serves as a kind of 'way out' in a difficult situation where communication flow is at stake. In EFL classes in Indonesia, code-switching between Indonesian and English is often used to foster better understanding between learners and teachers as well as to simplify new and complex ideas.

Skiba (1997) concluded that 'code-switching may be viewed as an extension to language for bilingual speakers rather than interference and from other perspectives it may be viewed as interference, depending on the situation and context in which it occurs'. This conclusion was made based on the notion proposed by Crystal (1987) that 'switching occurs when a speaker: needs to compensate for some difficulty, express solidarity, convey an attitude or show social respect'.

Holmes (2008, p. 35) identified that code-switching usually occurs within a domain or social situation and indicates a change in the social situation, oftentimes in a situation where there is a new participant in the exchange or communication. Holmes (2008, pp. 35-39) also managed to identify some reasons and functions of code-switching. They are summarized as follows:

1. Code-switching within a domain or social situation: as an expression of solidarity, as a signal of group membership and shared ethnicity with the addressee, and a change in the other dimensions, such as status relation between two people or the formality of their interaction.
2. Code-switching within a speech event: to discuss a particular topic – technical terms, quotes – for an affective (on purpose) as well as a referential function.

Auer (1998, p. 1) reiterated the necessity to look code-switching as 'a verbal action, the 'alternating use of two or more codes within one conversational episode'. Auer (1998, pp. 1-2) shed a light on the necessity to focus on the 'conversational event' of code-switching. It is clear then that code-switching largely occurs in the context of certain real-time social interactions of two or more people.

Code-switching occurs mostly in bilingual communities where speakers share more than one language employ their ability to code-switch or mix their language during their communication. Code-switching has been identified as a useful tool in the Indonesian EFL context. English in Indonesia is usually learned in an environment where most of the learners share the same first language, i.e. Indonesian. Not only the learners but also the teachers, whose first language is also Indonesian, usually speak in Indonesian as well to bridge communication flow, particularly in low-proficient classes. The learners in these classes usually need more scaffolding in the learning process. Indonesian English teachers are generally willing to use Indonesian as the language of instruction in most English classroom settings in Indonesian. This situation, consequently, leads to a stronger tendency for the Indonesian EFL learners to do code-switching in communication.

Kachru (1990) offered a perspective by embracing the fact that when English is in contact with other languages, it will be influenced by some features of the language, especially vocabulary and the way people use the languages, precisely code-mixing or code-switching. He categorized countries into the concept of Three-Model of World Englishes, acknowledging English usage all over the world as follows:

1. Inner Circle countries: the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand
2. Outer Circle countries: Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, and Zambia
3. Expanding Circle countries: China, Egypt, Indonesia, Israel, Japan, Korea, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, Russia, Zimbabwe...

In countries categorized as Outer and Expanding Circle, code-switching is a common phenomenon as those countries usually have more than one language in use. For example, Pariona (2018) reported that the Philippines has many regional languages, Filipino, and English. The regional languages are spoken in specific regions; Filipino is the official and serves as the national language used in public schools, televised media, and cinema; and English is the official language primarily used in printed publications. The code-switching in the Philippines gained a great recognition of Taglish, a mix of Tagalog and English. Taglish has been viewed as a mode of discourse and a linguistic resource in the bilingual's repertoire (Bautista, 2004). Sawe (2017) reported that South Korea is home to Korean, English, and Japanese. Korean is the official language, while English is promoted as a second language and used in trade, academics, and business. Japanese is spoken by the older generation of South Korea particularly in Busan.

More and more research works in the Outer- and Expanding-Circle countries show that the use of code-switching in communication is more and more commonly understood and accepted as a common phenomenon in contemporary settings, such as in China (Bin & Mimi, 2014), in Israel (Shay, 2015), in Iraq (Al-Ani & Ibrahim, 2015).

There seem, at this point, to be more and more evidence that a language is universal in the behavior of multilingual speakers, or – to employ a shorthand definition of code-switching – using several languages or language varieties in the course of a conversation is based on conversation-internal mechanisms observable in various social contexts all over the world. Code-switching is then seen as one of the ways people use their language repertoire. Following Gumperz (1982), identifying code-switching in communication assumes that the language users have at least two languages they use in interaction and that in situational events, they are aware of the existence of the languages and the purpose of code-switching.

Methods

This mini-research involved 50 young female Indonesian aged 18 – 20 years old. Hailed from places in Indonesia, they lived in Jakarta, doing their study at STIKS Tarakanita Jakarta, Indonesia. They were selected purposively based on accessibility and availability at the time of data collection.

The data were collected using a questionnaire administered to the participants. It was an adapted version of an open-ended interview protocol developed by Martinez (2013) consisting of ten interview questions: the first six questions were used to identify the languages used by the participants in their personal and social lives, while the last four questions were used to identify whether they were aware of code-switching in communication. They were asked to give reasons for their answers as well, especially the reasons for doing code-switching.

This mini-research was conducted to identify, first, the participants' language awareness of their language use in communication, including code-switching, and second, the reasons for their code-switching. The data were tabulated and presented in percentages. They were then analyzed and explained. The reasons for code-switching were categorized following Holmes (2008). The open-question questionnaire was posed to prompt the participants to give some explanations to their answers. The complete set of the questionnaire was available in the Appendix.

Findings and Discussion

The results of the questionnaire are presented below in two parts. The first part presents the participants' language awareness of their language use, including code-switching, and the second part presents the participants' reasons for doing code-switching.

Language Awareness of Language Use

The participants showed language awareness of languages they use in communication. They were aware that they had a variety of languages in their repertoire. The majority, 92% of the participants claimed that their first language was Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesian. This is an undeniable fact as Indonesian is the national and official language in Indonesia used in almost all aspects of life, from children's upbringing to education at all levels, from daily communication to business communication to media and politics. It seems that just like other Indonesian children in general, the participants were raised in Indonesian. Only a very small percentage, 8% of the participants, claimed that they were raised in both Indonesian and their respective local languages, namely Sundanese, Javanese, Bataknese, and Manadonese, to name some.

When the participants communicate with their immediate family members, parents and siblings, 74% of them claimed that they used Indonesian. Some 16% claimed to use both Indonesian and a local language at home. Ten percent of the participants claimed that they used both Indonesian and English at home. It is not surprising though because more and more people are acquiring and actively using

English in communication. This confirms Lauder (2008), Crystal (2018), Kachru (1990).

Ninety-two percent of the participants claimed that Indonesian was their best-spoken language, a not surprising finding due to its function as a national language and the official language of Indonesia. Around 6% of them claimed both Indonesian and English as their best-spoken languages. Again, this confirms what Kachru (1990), Lauder (2008), and Crystal (2018) put forward. A very small percentage (2%) claimed a certain local language as their best-spoken language, but it seems that they used it in their limited circle only. The finding showed that the participants relied on their best-spoken language, Indonesian, to communicate with their friends in their family and social settings: family members, teachers, friends, and even strangers.

Indonesian was also the language the participants used when they communicate with friends outside the classrooms. 84% of them used Indonesian with reasons as follows:

1. It's a familiar language.
2. It's easy to use.
3. All of my friends use Indonesian every day.
4. It's more comfortable to talk in Indonesian than in English.
5. I don't like talking in English with my friends; many of them don't understand English.
6. When I started talking in English, my friends gave me a nasty look.

A few participants (4%) claimed that they used both a local language and Indonesian to communicate with their close friends outside classroom settings sharing the same local language; thus, the goal was to show that they belong to certain cultures and communities, according to Holmes (2008). It was the same reason when some of them (4%) did code-switching between Indonesian and Mandarin.

Some participants who were more capable of English used both Indonesian and English to communicate with their friends (8%). They did code-switching between Indonesian and English citing the following reasons:

1. Just want to try it with some friends.
2. Preparing a talk for speaking class.
3. I don't want to be judged by others as snobbish.
4. I don't want to be misunderstood by other people.

Most of the participants did code-switching by using Indonesian as the main language and English words were inserted in the utterance or sentence. This phenomenon confirms Auer (1998) who stated that the most common form of code-switching is discourse-related insertions.

In their education domain, the participants were identified to do code-switching from English to Indonesian and vice versa. More than half of the participants (54%) did code-switching between Indonesian and English when they spoke to their teachers in the classroom and it was limited in English classes only. They did this for the sake of clarity and understanding. Only 8% of them used English only in English classes and 38% used Indonesian, particularly in non-English subjects.

It seems that the classroom was a safe place where most of the participants used English and did code-switching between Indonesian and English to bridge a communication gap. This is in line with Sert (2005) stating that Eldridge's (1996) concept of 'equivalence' functions as a defensive mechanism for students as it allows the students to continue communication by bridging the gaps resulting from foreign language incompetence. This type of code-switching is only possible when the two interlocutors share the same language. In the Indonesian EFL context, both teachers and students share the same first language (L1), Indonesian. This prompted the students to codeswitch between English and Indonesian.

First language (L1) is very dominant in language use. 92% of the participants admitted that they talked to their teacher in his/her office in Indonesian, even if this particular teacher was an English teacher. English was used only when they talked to English teachers in classrooms. Code-switching between Indonesian and English was used for clarification. Only 8% of them admitted that they did code-switching between Indonesian and English when they talked to their teacher on her/his office, stating the following reasons:

1. Indonesian is easy to use.
2. Indonesian is more effective in communication.
3. My English teachers also speak Indonesian.
4. I don't know some words in English.

To facilitate communication, people tend to suit their languages to the situation they face by using their most familiar language and sometimes, by code-switching. For example, there is a tendency for Indonesian to greet English teachers in English, saying, "Good morning, Sir" or 'Good morning, Mam", but they greet non-English teachers in Indonesian, saying, "*Pagi, Pak*" or "*Pagi, Bu*". This is in line with Holmes (2008) who stated that

> "code-switching is used to show that they belong to a certain group and share ethnicity with an addressee, even though they are not really capable of using the language, they are willing to utter brief and simple phrase" (Holmes, 2008, p. 25)

Holmes (2008, p. 38) stated further that a switch may also reflect a change in the formality of interaction. This is obvious in the different languages they used when the participants spoke to their English teachers in the classroom (i.e. formal interaction) and in their offices (i.e. informal interaction).

Table 2 summarized the findings of the participants' language awareness of their language use.

Table 2. The participants' language awareness of their language use

No	Settings	Indonesian	Indonesian & Local Language	English	Indonesian & English	Indonesian & Other*
1	First Language	92%	8%	-	-	-
2	Language Spoken at Home	74%	16%	-	10%	-
3	Best-spoken Language	92%	2%	-	6%	-
4	Language Used with Friends Outside Classroom	84%	4%	-	8%	4%
5	Language Used with Teacher in Classroom	38%	-	8%	54%	-
6	Language Used with Teacher in his/her office	92%	-	-	8%	

Note: *Some students mentioned Mandarin*

Reasons for Code-switching

Being young people in the metropolitan city of Jakarta in this era, the participants were exposed to English usage in communication. This condition was amplified by technological advancement which supports more platforms of communication and opportunities to communicate in English and other languages, as well as the opportunity to communicate with people from all over the world. All of these formed a fertile ground for code-switching.

The last four questions in the questionnaire inquired about the participants' awareness of code-switching and their reaction to this phenomenon. Table 3 below shows the participants' awareness of code-switching.

Table 3. The participants' awareness of code-switching

	Questions	Yes	No
7	Do you switch between Indonesian and English?	92%	8%
8	Do you notice when you switch between Indonesian and English?	75%	25%
9	Do you notice when other people switch between Indonesian and English?	96%	4%
10	Do you like being able to switch between Indonesian and English?	86%	14%

Using a language in communication, including code-switching, implies an awareness of languages and language use. Ninety-two percent of the participants were aware of their code-switching and admitted that they switched between Indonesian and English with reasons as follows:

1. Code-switching helps me clarify certain ideas or intentions.
2. I have the words just on the tip of their tongues, but I can't let it out.
3. I don't have a lot of vocabulary to express what I am thinking.
4. Some English words sound good to express some words in Indonesian.
5. I can use both languages well.

On one side, because of their lack of vocabulary to express their thought, the participants inserted the words in Indonesian into their English utterances. On the other side, proficiency in both Indonesian and English triggered code-switching. This, once again, confirm Auer (1998) on one of his categorization of code-switching, i.e. discourse-related insertions.

8% of them claimed they did not do code-switching between Indonesian and English, stating some reasons (some wrote their reasons in Indonesian) as follows:

1. *Saya tidak bisa berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris* (I cannot speak in English).
2. *Kalau gonta-ganti bahasa, malah pusing* (Code switching gave me headache).
3. I don't like mixing languages in communication.

Seventy-five percent of the participants claimed that they noticed their code-switching. This showed that they were aware of their doing code-switching between these two languages. They did it consciously because of its function, i.e. to convey their messages in communication. It seems that they inserted Indonesian words into their English as a communication strategy, most likely to overcome a lack of vocabulary or grammatical problems they had.

Twenty-five percent of the participants did not notice that they were code-switching, claiming that they just did it spontaneously. It is likely because both languages were in their language repertoire and, both languages were used seamlessly. Spontaneity happens and is usually triggered by the need of code-witching in communication. This is exactly what was pointed by Verschueren (1999, p. 119) when he stated that 'code-switching, a cover term for language or code alternation, is an extremely common occurrence and a flavored strategy, especially in oral discourse. It may serve many different functions'.

In social settings, it was identified that 96% of the participants claimed that they noticed other people's code-switching between Indonesian and English: their teachers, people on TVs, their friends, their family members. The participants agreed that people did code-switching to bridge the communication gap. This confirms Holmes (2008) on one of the functions code-switching, i.e. to discuss a particular topic for an affective and referential function. 4% of them did not even notice other people's code-switching.

When asked whether they liked being able to switch between Indonesian and English, 86% of the participants answered "Yes". It seems that they were positive towards this ability, citing reasons such as

1. It (being able to do code-switching)'s cool.
2. It (being able to do code-switching)'s fun.

3. I'm proud of it (being able to do code-switching).
4. It (code-switching) helps me practice English.
5. I can show off a bit about my ability.
6. I want to be able to speak like native speakers, so I try my best.
7. I'm proud of my achievement.

It seems that these young girls considered themselves using English mixed with Indonesian as something to be proud of. According to Holmes (2008), this is what is called code-switching for affective function and at the same time, signaling that they are members of a kind of English-speaking community in the making. Meanwhile, 14% of them disliked code-switching citing some reasons as follows:

1. It is confusing.
2. I don't know English much.
3. I don't want other people to misunderstand me.
4. I want to speak English well, not mixing it with Indonesian.

Table 4 summarized the findings of the participants' reasons for code-switching.

Table 4. The participants' reasons of code-switching

No	Reasons
To discuss a particular topic	
1	Code-switching helps me clarify certain ideas or intentions.
2	Some English words sound good to express some words in Indonesian.
3	Preparing a talk for speaking class.
4	Indonesian is more effective for communication.
5	Indonesian is easy to use.
6	It (code-switching) helps me practice English.
To signal a change of dimension	
7	My English teachers also speak Indonesian.
8	I can use both languages well.
To show affective function	
9	Just want to try it with some friends.
10	It (being able to do code-switching)'s cool.
11	It (being able to do code-switching) 's fun.
12	I'm proud of it (being able to do code-switching).
13	I don't want to be judged by others as snobbish.
14	I don't want to be misunderstood by other people.
To signal a group membership	
15	I want to be able to speak like native speakers, so I try my best.
16	I have the words just on the tip of their tongues, but I can't let it out.
17	I don't have a lot of vocabulary to express what I am thinking.
18	I don't know some words in English.
19	I can show off a bit about my ability.
20	I'm proud of my achievement.

Conclusion

The participants were identified to have an awareness of the language in their repertoire and the language they used in communication in their domains. The majority of them claimed Indonesian as their first language, and therefore, they were very keen on using it at home with their family members as well as with their close-knit such as classmates and friends outside the classroom, with their teachers in the classroom and their offices. This is not a surprising finding as Indonesian is the national and official language in Indonesia.

A small number of them claimed to be raised in one of the many local languages in Indonesia and to have an ability to use it in their close-knit sharing the same local language. A few participants claimed to use both Indonesian and English in communication with family members and some friends signaling that their interlocutors shared English. Some participants even claimed English as their best-spoken language.

In the education domain, most of the participants were identified to tend to use English as a means of communication with their English teachers but limited to the use in the classroom only. When the participants talked to the teachers in their office, they tended to switch into Indonesian considering that they shared the same language with their teachers. It seems that the participants were aware of their code-switching between Indonesian and English.

The participants were identified to do code-switching for some purposes: to discuss a particular topic, to signal a change of dimension, to signal a group membership or shared ethnicity, to show affective functions, and to express solidarity.

Code-switching is a growing and expanding research field, especially because of the recent development where languages co-exist and intertwine in a more complicated context than ever. This phenomenon surely invites researchers to look deeper and further, embracing the concept of World Englishes proposed by Kachru (1990). This study only touches a tiny part of the big idea of code-switching. Therefore, more and deeper research work on this area is welcome, especially the work using corpus and other kinds of data obtained from the way people use languages (English, Indonesian, and local languages) in communication in many settings.

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WHO AM "I" IN ACADEMIC WRITING?: THE STUDY OF AUTHORIAL IDENTITY

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Abstract
In this paper, we attempt to examine the identity of researchers in writing their research articles (RAs) by exploring the linguistic forms indicating the identity of the authors in English RAs, determining the functions these forms serve in the discourse, and revealing the socio-cultural aspects implied from the use of the authorial identity. We will identify the English first-person pronouns used by native and non-native authors in Scopus-indexed linguistics and education academic journal articles. This study applied the corpus linguistic method to collect the data and to draw conclusions about the authorial identity presented in the articles. Hopefully, this paper will help to not only comprehend the role and the importance of the authorial presence but also encourage researchers to represent their identity in their own RAs.

Keywords: academic writing, authorial identity, discourse functions, first person pronouns.

Introduction
Impersonality in academic writing has encouraged academic authors in reporting their research in the form of research articles. Not only is it suggested by writing guidance books, but some researchers also agree that impersonality in academic writing can show objectivity and open-mindedness (Arnaudet & Barrett, 1984; Lachowicz, 1981 in Hyland, 2001). Hyland's study (2002) in Hongkong showed that students used impersonality in their essays because first-person pronouns had a strong indication of self-representation in writing. Thus, they felt uncomfortable to use the first-person pronouns in their research essays. As regards the need of the authors as part of an academic community, they need to stay "hidden" as a sign of respect for the academic community and focus more on their investigation rather than emerging their existence in their writing (Karahan, 2013; Molino, 2010).

However, Hyland (2001) states that authors cannot avoid projecting themselves in their writing. Therefore, academic writing, such as research articles, should allow the authors to express their existence. This act of showing the authors' existence should not be judged as a discouragement for the objectivity of their research. Instead, authorial presence in their research articles can be considered a way of telling their identity. Research has shown that authorial presence in RAs can give several advantages, such as promoting authors' credibility from the research as it is used for claiming knowledge and opinion (Harwood, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland, 2001) and helping authors to engage with the readers and community (Hyland, 2002; Kuo, 1998). Moreover, present-day academic writing tends to encourage authors to market or promote themselves as the scientific community provides them a "competition arena" of scientific contribution (Harwood, 2005a) so that the authorial presence is considered necessary to show the authors "self" in the RA.

Many studies investigating the authors "self" in the RAs have been conducted (e.g. Çandarli, Bayyurt, & Marti, 2015; Carciu, 2009; Gu, 2010; Işık-Taş, 2018; Karahan, 2013; Li & Deng, 2019; Vassileva, 1998; Susanti, Kurnia, & Suharsono, 2018). Those studies were conducted in countries where English is not the native language for the community there. The reason for investigating the authorial presence in cross-cultural, native-nonnative English research articles is that each academic community has cultures that can be compared. The contrastive studies of the authorial presence can help to understand the factors underlying the writing and papers, which affect the authors around the world in showing themselves in their RAs.

In this study, we aim to find out the authorial identity of English Native and Non-native authors that are reflected in the use of personal pronouns and references in English language education RAs and to explore the discourse functions that construct the authorial identity in the RAs.

Authorial Identity in Research Articles

Ivanič (1998) states that "writing is an act of identity in which people align themselves with socio-culturally shaped possibilities for self-hood, playing their part in reproducing or challenging dominant practices and discourses, and the values, beliefs, and interests which they embody." In other words, writing itself is the representation of its author regardless of whether the authors are truly present in their writing or not. Identity in academic writing can be traced back when Cherry (1988) introduced two kinds of identity offered by the authors when they are writing, namely *ethos* and *persona*. *Ethos* refers to the personal characteristics and *persona* to the roles that authors employ in composing their articles (Tang & John, 1999). Ivanič (1998) brought this concept of identity into her ways of interpreting the identity of a person in the act of writing, in which she called them "the selves", namely (1) autobiographical self, which refers to the identity that brought by the authors into their writing such as their origin or their gender, (2) discoursal self, i.e. the identity constructed through the discourse characteristics of a text, which is related to values, beliefs and power relations in the social context in which they were written, and (3) self as author, which expresses the voice of the writer, in the sense of the writer's position, opinions and beliefs. This study will focus on discoursal self since we deal with how the authors represent themselves in a RA discourse and how the RA discourse constructs the identity of the authors themselves.

Tang and John (1999) proposed a framework based on first-person pronouns usage in RAs, namely (1) “I” as the representative, (2) “I” as the guide through an essay, (3) “I” as the architect of the essay, (4) “I” as the recounter of the research process, (5) “I” as the opinion holder, and (6) “I” as the originator. This is based on what Ivanic (1998) has mentioned about the continuum from not using “I” to use “I” in academic writing. Since Ivanic did not develop the criteria of those continua, Tang and John (1999) then introduced the six classifications that consecutively categorize the roles taken by the authors in the RA from the least powerful to most powerful identity.

Following Tang and John’s framework, Harwood (2005b) also mentioned his interest in authorial presence by focusing on the inclusivity and exclusivity of personal pronouns in RAs. Inclusive pronouns allow readers to be involved in the authors' point of view. Through inclusive pronouns, the authors build the bridge to their readers to gain the same assumption towards the authors’ knowledge. While exclusive pronouns tend to specify those who involved in the authors’ research. Mainly, exclusive pronouns only take the authors and their research team to be included in the authors’ research.

We will take the Tang and John’s framework to classify the discourse function that was served by the linguistic forms we examined. We will also identify the personal pronouns through how the authors refer to their role as the writers and engage the readers in *inclusive* pronouns and how the authors suggest their role as the writers and other people associated with the writers in *exclusive* pronouns.

***Personal Pronouns as Authorial References in Research Articles*.**

Personal pronouns refer to which the grammatical distinction of person applies (Huddleston & Pullum, 2007). Most researchers studying authorial presence in RAs focused on how the first-person pronouns in English revealed the way the authors showed themselves in RAs (e.g., Can & Cangır, 2019; Carciu, 2009; Chavez Munoz, 2013; Dontcheva-Navrátilová, 2013; Mur Dueñas, 2007). The first-person pronouns indicated the references to the speakers or in this case the authors. The English first-person pronouns examined in this study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. English First Person Pronouns (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002).

	Nominative	Accusative	Genitive	Reflexive
Singular	I	Me	My, Mine	Myself
Plural	We	Us	Our, Ours	Ourselves

However, in most cases, the authors of RAs have also expressed themselves in a form other than first-person pronouns. In addition to the first-person pronouns, the references were the nouns that described the role of the authors, namely *the researcher*, *the writer*, and *the author*. Thus, in this study, we will also see how those references are used to convey the identity of the authors in RAs.

The use of first-person pronouns in research articles was common in the past but it changed gradually as the academic cultures developed (Kuo, 1998). In the past, scientific articles were mostly written in the form of letters. Most of the scientist at that time believed that human played the most important role in the scientific investigation. Thus, using the first-person pronouns in research articles was considered as personal honesty and modesty. As the interest of research was changed from experimental report to investigation, the focus was also shifted from the scientist into the investigation itself. Impersonality in writing scientific articles was distinguished as the characteristic of scientific reporting. Nowadays, the researchers are demanded not only to report their results of the investigation but also to claim and to be significant in their research so that they can be considered contributive to their academic community.

Methodology

In this corpus research, we took the data from four English language Scopus-indexed journals, namely Journal of English for Academic Purposes, Journal of Second Language Writing, Linguistics, and Education from Science Direct and Language and Education from Taylor & Francis. Those journals focus on empirical studies of English language education. Each article consisted of Abstract, Introduction, Method, Result, and Discussion (AIMRD). The total articles used for the data were 36 articles, which were divided into two categories, namely native author (18 articles) and non-native author (18 articles). The total lengths of words of the journal articles we examined are explained in Table 1 as follows:

Table 2. Total words from the data source.

No	Data Source	Article Lengths Native (words)	Article Lengths Non-Native (words)
1.	Journal of English for Academic Purposes	33.446	40.357
2.	Journal of Second Language Writing	41.261	43.280
3.	Linguistics and Education	35.074	35.908
4.	Language and Education	23.628	27.085
	Total	133.409	146.630

As the articles were in PDF, we changed their format into *txt* to insert them into our corpus tool, i.e. WordSmith (Scott, 2008). The *txt* version of each article section was filtered using the WordSmith feature called concordance. In the txt format of article sections, the concordance selected the linguistics form of authorial identity, namely the first-person pronouns and other common authorial references (the author/s, the researcher/s, and the writer/s).

For the quantitative analysis, given the fact that each RA was different in word length, we applied a normalization per 100.000 words to make a fair comparison between the frequencies of each authorial reference. We also applied a chi-square test using SPSS 23 to test the probability of the authorial references' occurrence in native and non-native RAs. We did a qualitative analysis using Tang & John's (1999) framework to categorize the authorial references used by the authors. This categorization will show the discourse functions existed in authorial references found in the RAs, revealing which identity being carried by the authorial references. The analysis also determined the inclusive and exclusive functions of the authorial references. In the end, we also interpreted the identities revealed from the authorial references used in the RAs.

Findings and Discussion

Frequencies of Authorial References

Table 3. Frequencies of First Person Pronouns used in Native RA.

First-Person Pronouns in Native RA	Raw	Normal
We	349,00	261,60
Our	218,00	163,41
I	86,00	64,46

Table 4. Frequencies of First Person Pronouns used in Non-native RA.

First-Person Pronouns in Non-Native RA	Raw	Normal
We	242,00	165,04
Our	125,00	85,25
I	48,00	32,74

From this study, we found that "We" is the most commonly used first-person pronouns as the authorial references in both native and non-native RAs. The pronouns "We" were mostly found in native RAs, although "We" were also the most commonly used first-person pronouns in non-native RAs. Other first-person pronouns frequencies that were also more likely to be used in both RAs were surprisingly the same, namely "Our" and "I" respectively. We believe that since most of the RAs were written by many authors or by a research team, they tended to use "We" as often as "Our" to refer to the authors. Since the studies are about elaborating ideas, we assume that pronoun "We" are needed the most because it shows the researchers as the subject of the study. After all, syntactically, "We" belongs to the subject of a clause/sentence. In English, personal subject pronouns are significantly used to determine the agent of a process (Molino, 2010). The pronoun "Our" expresses the claim towards the ideas which belong to the researchers since it belongs to the possessive pronouns category. It aligns with Hyland's (2001) statement that possessive forms are applied in order "to promote the writer's contribution by associating them closely with their work". The same case happened in the use of pronouns "I" when the RA was written by a single author.

Table 5. Frequencies of Authorial References used in Native RA.

Authorial References in Native RA	Raw	Normal
Researcher*	17,00	12,74
Author*	8,00	6,00
Writer*	0,00	0,00

Table 6. Frequencies of Authorial References used in Non-Native RA.

Authorial References in Non-Native RA	Raw	Normal
Researcher*	23,00	15,69
Author*	1,00	0,68
Writer*	0,00	0,00

***Researcher, Writer, and Author references include the singular and plural reference

For the other references, both native and non-native authors used "researcher" in the first place. While "author" and "writer" were less commonly found in the native and non-native RAs. We assume that the terms "author" and "writer" contain other specific references, i.e. "those who write or produce a writing" while by using "researcher", the authors can infer their readers that they are the one who "do the research and study on the subject" in the RAs. Moreover, we also found that the authors use "author" and "writer" to refer to their object of study, such as when they examine someone's writing, they will refer to someone as "the author" or "the writer". Thus, by using the term "researcher", the authors agree with the idea as the one who is responsible for their research in the RAs. Likewise, the decision of taking "researcher" as the authorial reference in both RA was caused by the design of the RA itself. Since we focus only on empirical studies research, the term "researcher" expresses the feeling of being involved in a study. Even though "researcher" was used less in non-native RAs, it still described the necessity of those authors being existed in their research.

Based on the frequencies of all authorial references found in this study, the chi-square test shows that the probability of the first-person pronouns and other references used in RA were insignificant ($p < 0.05$).

Table 7. Chi-Square Test.

Test Statistics		
	Native	Non-Native
Chi-Square	3.077[a]	3.077[a]
df	10	10
Asymp. Sig.	.980	.980

($p < 0.05$)

This means that there are no relations between authorial references and their occurrences in English Education Language Journals, both written native and non-native authors. Since most of the RAs examined in this study were issued from 2017 to 2019, we assume this indicates the changes of the authors' perspective toward their existences in their RAs if we relate it with Kuo's (1998) statement. We expect that most of the authors in English Education Language Journals examined in this study are aware of their roles in their research. Thus, they found that using authorial references to show their existence in their study are not considered as disruption to their objectivity in research.

The results are surprising because we expect that the non-native authors will feel the greater pressure and responsibility in mentioning themselves in their arguments as also found in Hyland's (2002) study of his students in Hong Kong. We expect that the non-native RAs will contain much less authorial references than the native RAs. The results of our study echo with the results of Walková's (2019) study, which revealed that the authors of L1 Slovak and L2 English used more self-mentions in their writing. Walková assumes that L1 Slovak and L2 English authors feel "safer" in mentioning themselves in smaller academic communities (Walková, 2019). However, we doubt whether the RAs we examined in this study are considered as small academic communities. The pronouns as the authorial markers in the RAs were important because they enhanced the researchers' roles as the authors of RAs (Rezvani, 2013). They reflected the efforts of enhancing the authors' role in RAs because all of the RAs we examined in this study employed the empirical method in their research. We believe that by enhancing the authors' roles in the RA using authorial references, the readers can be ensured about the contribution made by the authors in their RAs.

Interpretations of Authorial References

The authorial references in RA can also be interpreted to find out the identity carried by the authors. In this study, we try to apply the comprehension of authorial identity brought by Tang and John (1999) from their study of classroom essays. By interpreting the discourse functions of authorial references, we will show that the identity of authors exists, which can be seen from how the authors use the authorial references. We provide examples of how we can interpret the identity and try to explore the roles of the authors in the RAs.

"I" as the Representative

The "I" as the representative means that the authors identify themselves to be the representative of the statement in the RAs. The authors give a general understanding of what they have mentioned in their RAs. As Tang and John describe, the authors "signal ownership of some universal or common property. "

> **Sample 1**. File Name: Native RA, LNE_N02I
> *To inform my analysis of how individual beliefs about language derive from and ultimately develop apart from socially shared beliefs about language, I drew upon Bakhtin's (1981) notion of voice. Bakhtin explained that our language is never solely ours; instead,* ***we*** *voice the*

*ideas and thoughts of others as **we** move through individual consciousness.*

In **Sample 1**, there are two pronouns "we" in one sentence. The sentence mentions a theory in 1981 by Bakhtin. In this sentence, the authors try to explain what Bakhtin mentioned in his theory. Given the context from the previous sentence in the sample, we assume that the authors try to apply Bakhtin's theory not only in the authors' RAs but also in building a bridge to the readers' world by making it relatable to the readers' world. In other words, the authors wanted the readers to also feel about how Bakhtin's theory impacted their world the same way the authors felt about the theory impacted their study in their RAs. In this regard, the authors are representing what Bakhtin's theory is by making the theory sounds comprehensive to the readers. The authors' identity as the representative is the least powerful in Tang and John's discourse functions since the authors show the effort of "not overpowering the field" by taking the readers into the same world as the authors. We can address this identity as an inclusive "We".

"I" as the Guide through the essay

The identity brought by this discourse function is like a "tour guide" based on Tang and John's interpretation. In this type of identity, we also specify that if there is the authors' role as the guide, there will be a "guideline" that functioned as the context of the "guide" or the authors.

Sample 2. File Name: Non-native, EAP_NN04R
*As indicated in Table 1 and the following extracts 5, 6 through 7, **we** see a predominant occurrence of expansive citation options in reporting the opposed knowledge claim.*

The pronoun "We" in **Sample 2** is specified as the guide identity. If we take a look at the context of the sentence, we will find out that this sentence tries to take the readers to take a look at the authors' research results mentioned in the table the authors had made. This effort of authors can be easily interpreted as the guide because the authors are trying to "guide" the readers towards the research results. We conclude that "Table 1" here becomes the "guidelines" that the authors refer to as they lead the readers' attention in the RA.

Sample 3. File Name: Native, LNE_N01R
*Yoojin (F:13), who had spent a year living in the U.S., found English as a way to subtly subvert politeness dynamics in adult deference. As she described, "I feel more freedom when I speak English because I can act less polite," referencing the honorifics embedded into the Korean language used when addressing elders. She accompanied this statement by saying this makes her "feel more American." Here **we** see Yoojin deriving a degree of pleasure, or freedom, from using English, likely for the way the language allows her to exercise less*

social deference, a linguistic performance she associates with feeling "American."

Similar to **Sample 2**, in **Sample 3** we can notice that the authors create a "guideline" which is the object of the study named "Yoojin". Inclusively, the authors take the readers to confirm the statement made by the authors. If we refer to the context before the underlined sentence, we will understand that the authors in this RA were trying to make the readers refer to "what kind of person Yoojin is". Simply, the sentences before the underlined sentence are the "guidelines" for the authors in guiding the readers. Since the authors are taking the readers together to take a look at a particular condition, we can conclude that the pronouns "We" in this identity are considered as inclusive.

"I" as the Architect of the essay

Although there might be several similarities between "architect" and "guide", we try to give clear boundaries between those identities. While the "guide" attempts to make the readers pay attention to the "guidelines" that often have existed in the RAs, the "architect" manages to deliver the main focus of the authors in the RAs. This is why the "architect" identity has more power than "guide" because of the authors as the "architect" role as the one who ensures the outline of the RA to the readers. **Sample 4** informs that the authors are outlining their study by mentioning the specific theory they adapted into their RA.

Sample 4. File Name: Native RA, SLW_N05I
*In this paper, **we** adopt Lu's (2010) definition of a complex nominal, based on Cooper (1976), which refers to a noun modified by an attributive adjective, possessive noun, post-preposition, relative clause, participle, or appositive; a noun clause; or gerund and infinitival subjects (see Lu, 2010, p. 483, for further explanation).*

Sample 5. File Name: Non-native, SLW_NN01I
***The researchers** wanted to see whether (1) modeling was more effective than self-practice, and (2) collaboration was more effective than working alone in enhancing students' detection, revision and commenting skills.*

In **Sample 5**, the authors' "architect" identity emerges on what we usually call the objective of the study. It makes sense for the authors to be the "architect" in this part of RA because the objective of the study should mention the purpose of the study, thus expressing identity as the one who outlining the study can be considered crucial for the authors in writing RA. In this kind of identity, we notice that "We" does not refer to the readers but only to the authors. Therefore, "We" in this identity can be considered as the exclusive pronoun.

"I" as the Recounter of the research process

The identity of the recounter of the research process can be found in the methodology section of the RAs. The recounter of the research process here means that the authors are identified as the ones who describe the step by step of how they conduct their research. This identity is the exclusive one since it represents the authors who recount their research process. The recounter can be easily noticed by referring to material process verbs (i.e. work, collect, interview, read, prepare) following the authorial references (Halliday, 1994 in Tang and John, 1999). The example of how the pronoun carried the recounter identity can be seen in **Sample 6**.

> **Sample 6**. File Name: Native, EAP_N01M
> *The reason that the interviews with the students were conducted in a small group was to reduce potential anxiety and logistical reasons. **The researcher** prepared a set of questions for the respondents and asked follow-up questions.*

"I" as the Opinion-holder

This identity is called opinion-holder since it considers the authors like the ones who share their ideas, view, and arguments in their RAs. We assume that identity as the opinion-holder is critical and exclusive because it shows how the authors are credible in giving their arguments in RAs. Verbs that indicate the authors' assumption are the most common signs of opinion-holder identity. **Sample 7** and **Sample 8** can give a vision of how the opinion-holder is carried by the pronouns "We" and "I".

> **Sample 7**. File Name: Non-native, EAP_NN02M
> ***We** assume that the ending move should be equally important because it is the move that gives a sense of conclusion to the personal statement. Therefore, the ways in which Rosy opened and ended her personal statements were particularly examined to demonstrate her rhetorical choices.*

> **Sample 8**. File Name: Native, LNE_N02M
> *Furthermore, **I** wondered if and how her stances might have evolved given her experience in the professional development group.*

"I" as the Originator

The last identity is considered as the most powerful identity in RAs because it exclusively aims to show the authors as the inventor or the owner of knowledge.

> **Sample 9**. File Name: Non-native, LAE_NN03I
> *Significantly, **we** argue that disrupting language and register boundaries through processes of disinvention and reconstitution not only enabled the students to take up confident positions as 'knowers' but also enabled the students' current understanding of concepts and*

registers to surface giving a fine-grained view of mis-understandings that required further pedagogical explanation.

This kind of identity takes the authors from delivering their arguments into claiming their arguments based on what they have found in their study. The pronoun “We” in **Sample 9** is the originator identity because it is followed by the verbs “argue”. The authors in this significant RA express their opposite view toward other perspectives and give their version of the new knowledge-based on what they have studied in their RA. If the authors want to be the opinion-holder, they will simply write an argument to share their views. But, if they want to be seen as the originator, they have to show the capability of not only sharing their ideas but also claiming something new from the study they conducted. This is why originator is the most powerful identity because it will no doubt indicate the authors’ credibility in conducting the research.

Conclusion

In this study, we found that both native and non-native RA authors were using first-person pronouns and authorial references in their RA with slight differences in numbers. The most commonly used first-person pronouns found in this study were “We”. Since the RAs were written in English, the use of “We” makes us aware that it becomes the indicator of the subject of a certain process. Thus, we implied the use of “We” expresses the authors' openness as the readers will suggest that the authors disguised in pronouns “We” are responsible and credible to the findings in RAs. The most used authorial references, “the researcher”, are considered reasonable because it is related to the title of the authors themselves. This indicates that they mostly wanted to be positioned as the people who did the empirical studies directly, not just writing the results on the papers.

Since the number of authorial references between native and non-native was not significantly different, we conclude that the authors mostly understand their existence in their RAs. Thus, it makes them aware that using authorial references will enhance their roles and expose their contribution to the RAs. The authors’ selection of authorial references indeed can be the reflection of the authors in their RAs. Thus, every RA contains the authors' identities and their expectations of how they want to be seen by their readers and their community. In this sense, stating that authorial references can cause subjectivity in RAs becomes a rigid statement since the objectivity can be committed as the identities from authorial references are impacted by the use of other linguistic devices (verb, adjective). In the end, the question of “what is being investigated in the RAs?” can also be juxtaposed with the question of “who are the authors in the RAs and how do they want to be interpreted in their RAs?” The authors must be confident about their existence since it can be beneficial not only for the authors but also for the readers and the academic communities.

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EFL INSTRUCTORS' BELIEFS ABOUT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SMARTBOARD IN LANGUAGE TEACHING PRACTICES

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Abstract
Recently, the use of ICT in today's English language teaching is quite massive. However, EFL instructors' beliefs about the use of smart boards in language teaching practices are scarcely explored. This study aimed to investigate EFL instructors' beliefs about the implementation of the smart board as ICT-based learning media. Three EFL instructors across English learning centers were voluntarily involved in this study. Observation and semi-structured interviews were employed as the data collection technique. The data were described and interpreted based on the research questions. The results of this study showed that EFL instructors had positive responses towards the implementation of the smartboard. They stated that the smartboard made the explanation clearer and it was not difficult to be operated. Besides, students enjoyed using the smartboard during the lesson. Finally, the EFL instructors agreed that the smartboard could be implemented in classrooms with high control or supervision by the teachers.

Keywords**:** ICT based learning media, smart board, and EFL instructors' beliefs

Introduction
English learning media have developed quickly during the late 20th century. It begins with the notion of media that can assist the process of transferring knowledge and information. With the spirit of supporting the effectiveness of transferring knowledge, many experts propose various types of learning media. In the past, English teachers used traditional media, such as textbooks, blackboards, newspapers, brochures, OHP, etc. Nowadays, English teachers use more developed learning media, such as the internet, computer, social media, e-learning, e-books, etc. New media which are very popular in the 21st century are basically in digital formats. It happens because the education system has followed the rapid development of information, communication, and technology (ICT). The incorporation of information technology into language classrooms boosts autonomous learning, maximizes targeted outcomes, motivates learners and helps

learners to improve their performance in the EFL classrooms (Ardi, 2017; Azmi; 2017). Besides, the education system is also affected by the development of the industrial revolution. According to Nielsen (2014), there are four phases of the industrial revolution, namely (1) mechanical production by water and steam power (late 18th century), (2) mass production and electrical energy (early 20th century), (3) computer, electronics, and automation (the early 1970s), and (4) cyber-physical system (now). Education comes up with the development of industrial revolution phases and today's learning media follows the industrial revolution 4.0 which emphasizes the use of internet and information technology.

The rapid development of information and communication technology brings a new experience in education. ICT provides learning media that can match to the recent world changes. Galloway (2007) differentiates between information technology (IT) and information & communication technology (ICT). The former refers to the tools and skills for a job while the latter refers to what people do with them. Computers, cables, internet, wireless connections, handled devices, digital cameras, and even mobile phones belong to IT. Then, word-processing, emailing, video-conferencing, and searching on the internet refer to ICT. In line with the previous ideas about ICT, Rank et.al (2011) stated that ICT which stands for information and communication technology has been adopted in schools and colleges in place of IT to wider the use of technology, not merely only for processing information but also for education matter. Moreover, Chan et.al (2011) mentioned that computer-based presentational media which allow users to navigate and to select contents are grouped as interactive media. Thus, ICT based learning media can also be assumed to be interactive media. ICT is perceived as an important tool in improving performance, collaboration, learning experience, and learning outcomes (Albugami & Ahmed, 2015).

Essentially, learning media are used to help teachers deliver learning materials to students easily. A medium (plural, media) is a means of communication and a source of information. It is derived from the Latin word meaning "between" and this refers to anything that carries information between a course and a receiver. Examples of learning media include video, televisions, diagrams, printed materials, computer programs, and instructors (Heinich 2002). Therefore, in English language learning, media are expected to reduce the gap between students' understanding and learning materials given by teachers. Many teaching media can be used by teachers. When using learning media, the teacher needs to choose the most appropriate media by considering the context of the learning materials. Harmer (2007) argued that some teaching aids can be used by English language teachers. They are pictures or images, overhead projector (OHP), board, bit & pieces, language laboratory, computer, and homegrown materials production. Those media will help teachers delivering knowledge to the students effectively.

According to Howell (2012), digital pedagogy is how to teach using digital technologies. It means that teachers utilize technology for helping them carrying out the materials to students. Furthermore, in the 21st century, using ICT for English learning media is more and more popular. Schools, colleges, universities, and English language centers have revitalization on their learning media. They change from the traditional ones to modern learning media. Galloway (2007) mentioned the kind of activities pupils might do in ICT lessons. Those are (1) creating and revising text, (2) creating and revising graphics, (3) combining text and graphics, (4) collecting and analyzing data, (4) performing calculations, (5) modeling situations and answering "what if" question, and (6) Controlling real and virtual machines.

The function of ICT based learning media is still the same as traditional learning media. Yet, ICT based learning media can adjust to the development of technology. Hismanoglu (2012) stated that ICT presents a powerful learning environment for learners in the classroom. ICT plays a role in renewing educational practices effectively. However, not every region has high attention in the development of the education system. McGrath & Hu (2012) stated that the insufficiency of financial investment in education makes the progress of implementing ICT learning media slower. Thus, it makes the learning process left-behind and developed lately. In line with the idea, it is highly suggested that education stakeholders should give more attention to their education system, especially for the ICT learning media facilities. Although ICT based learning media has helped teachers to deliver materials, teachers need to provide instruction that adheres the effective learning naturally or based on contextual learning (Murray, 2008).

Smartboard is one kind of ICT based learning media. Some people also call the smart board as an interactive whiteboard or digital board. Its form is like any other conventional whiteboard, but it is designed electronically. Smartboards can also be categorized as multimedia because of their various functions. According to Herman (2017), the word multimedia is derived from multi and media. Multi means many or various while media mean tools for delivering information or messages through texts, pictures, sounds, and video. Another expert said that multimedia instruction refers to learning activities providing words and pictures rather than words alone (Mayer, 2009). Browsing files on your computer, annotating powerpoint/word documents, handwriting recognition, dragging and dropping images are some functions of the smartboard. Smartboard comes up with technology that serves good accessibility in displaying learning materials. A smartboard or interactive whiteboard can accommodate all teaching styles and can be used to support whole-class, small-group and personalized teaching (Betcher & Lee, 2009). Some studies reveal that the smartboard is innovative and powerful enough to support language acquisition in foreign language teaching practices (Jelyani et.al, 2014). Supporting the interaction-conversation in the classroom, contributing to the presentation of new cultural-linguistic elements, and promoting the oral skills are the examples of the way how smart board contributes to the language teaching (Al-Saleem, 2013).

Moreover, Manny-Ikan et. al (2011) found that smartboard can support students to develop their thinking and learning skills which are appropriate for the 21st century such as information skills (literacy), critical thinking, creativity, communication-cooperation skills, skills to use technological tools and autonomous learning. Conversely, Moss et. al. (2007) claimed that there was no impact of using smartboard for classroom teaching covering three subjects, namely English, Math, and Science, over 30 schools in London. Thus, the positive impact of the smartboard on the classroom depends much on the way the teachers use it. It will enhance the teaching and learning process when the smart board is implemented wisely and vice versa (Betcher & Lee, 2009).

On the other hand, dealing with teaching practices in English learning centers, EFL instructors may have some conceptions about the situation of language learning in which the smart board is applied there. Therefore then, their beliefs will reflect on the deep opinions about the use of the smartboard for teaching English. According to Pehkonen & Pietila (2003), a belief is a kind of knowledge that is subjective and experience-based. Then, Raymond (1997) defines the term belief as a personal judgment that is formed experiences. In line with those definitions, Gilakjani (2012) proposes that a belief is any premise that starts with the idea of "I believe that". Regarding some definitions of belief from some experts aforementioned, it can be concluded that belief is something important in a person's life used to guide him/her to do every single activity. Moreover, beliefs are formed from the real experiences that happen in a person's life. Further, teachers' beliefs are beliefs that owned and trusted by teachers or instructors. According to Clark & Peterson (1986), teachers' beliefs show a large number of knowledge and teachers understand their world by shaping a complicated system of personal and professional knowledge. Beliefs involve both subjective and objective aspects and act as the background to teachers' classroom actions (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Therefore, the way the teachers teach in the class is based on their teaching and educational experiences in the past.

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to investigate EFL instructors' beliefs about the implementation of smartboard for English language teaching practices. The result of this study is expected to give a contribution to any English learning centers, schools, colleges, universities in terms of the consideration for using the smart board as one of their learning media. Two research questions addressed in this study, namely:

1. What are the EFL instructors' beliefs about using the smartboard for the teaching and learning process?
2. What are the EFL instructors' beliefs about students' responses in learning English by using the smartboard?

Method

Since this study aimed to explore the EFL instructors' beliefs about using the smartboard for teaching English, the qualitative research design was chosen to be employed as the procedure in conducting this study. This involved three EFL instructors from several English learning centers from three provinces, namely Special Region of Yogyakarta, Central Java, and East Java. The participants were selected by their willingness and their experience in using the smart board for teaching English. The data were collected through observation and interview. The format of the interview was semi-structured with open-ended questions, as the researchers wanted to get a wealth of valuable data. Furthermore, the interview was conducted one-on-one, recorded and transcribed verbatim to facilitate subsequent data analysis. In terms of the instrument, the researchers used an observation checklist and interview guidelines. To ensure the validity of the interview protocol, the researcher used IPR (Interview Protocol Refinement) Framework proposed by Jones, Torres & Arminio in Montoya (2016). The IPR Framework covers four phases, namely (1) ensuring interview questions align with research questions, (2) constructing an inquiry-based conversation, (3) receiving feedback on interview protocols, and (4) piloting the interview protocol.

Findings and Discussion

Based on the classroom observations and interviews on three EFL instructors, the researchers gained some information related to their beliefs about the implementation of smartboard for teaching English. In general, most of the EFL instructors had a positive response towards the application of the smartboard. However, they suggested to not only rely on technology (smartboard) but also rely on real and interactive activities for engaging their students. The followings are the results of the data based on the research questions aforementioned.

EFL instructors' beliefs about using the smartboard for the teaching and learning process

Since the smart board is new to be used in the English learning centers, most of the EFL instructors already used it for around 2 months until one year. The observation results showed that most of the EFL instructors were already skillful in operating the smartboard. It seemed that they did not have any problems in operating it. In this case, they already did something good dealing with the smart board since teachers' lack of knowledge on operating the smartboard becomes one of the challenges in promoting smart boards for classroom teaching media (Momani et. al, 2016). It happened because they got some training when the smart board was firstly installed in the classrooms. In terms of the first impression of using the smartboard, most of the EFL instructors were excited. They said:

> *My feeling was very excited because that was my first time to use that kind of ICT. But at the same time, I also confused. There was no training for me to use*

that media. I just tried to touch everything to explore how to use this smartboard by myself. In short, my feeling was excited to use this media.

Interviewee 1

Well, actually I'm really impressed to use smartboard because it's sophisticated media. And I have never used that media before I taught English in this institution.

Interviewee 2

I was very excited about using that media for the first time. It helped me a lot. It made every step of teaching was easier.

Interviewee 3

It seems that most of the EFL instructors were good at operating the smartboard. However, they found difficulties for the first time when they were using it. They said:

I didn't operate it well. But now it can be said that I'm at the intermediate level in the operating smartboard.

Interviewee 1

Yes, I can operate it well now. But first, I'm still a bit confused to use this media.

Interviewee 2

Well, I can operate it well now. But you know, at first, I'm still a bit nervous about using it because it has so many features.

Interviewee 3

Moreover, the problems that they found in using the smartboard were various. However, all of them were related to technical problems, such as bad internet connection, bad computer performance, and unfamiliarity with the media. Teachers' inability to fix technical problems and lack of preparation made before the class also became the problems that may discourage teachers to use smartboards (Korkmaz & Cakil, 2013). The instructors admitted:

Ya. Using a smartboard is not difficult, we just need to have more practice to use that media. But I get a problem dealing with how to connect the smart board to the laptop. In addition, the laptop provided in my office is MacBook. I'm not familiar with this laptop, so it's rather difficult to operate that smartboard. Later, I tried to practice using the smartboard before the students come to the classroom. Then, now I can operate it.

Interviewee 1

Actually, I don't find big problems using this media. I only get a problem at the first time when I started to use this media. Ya, you know. Most of the new English instructors here are not familiar with the smartboard for the first time.

Interviewee 2

I ever got some problems with using it. Sometimes, there was a bad internet connection so I could not find any learning materials and show them to my students. Besides, sometimes the laptop provided in my office did not work well. There were some errors in computer systems.

Interviewee 3

The result of the observation also showed that the teaching and learning process looked more efficient since the instructors could write texts, shows pictures/ videos, remove some words, modifying pictures easily. When using a smart board, teachers are easy to navigate the presentation of the material. They may focus more on monitoring their students and talking to them. This enhances the conversation activities (Al-Saleem, 2013). Moreover, the students' vocabulary mastery is reinforced since the teachers can be easily underlining, highlighting or citing texts (Jelyani et. al, 2014). In short, it can be said that the smartboard helps them to maximize the delivery of the materials. The instructors said:

Yes, I believe that. Even if all English instructors can use the smartboard, it will give a good impact on the teaching and learning process. Because we can give a clearer explanation using a smartboard. For example, when we want to describe something, we can just take some clear and best pictures from the website, crop it, modify it, and explain it to the students. It makes the explanation clearer, it can increase students' motivation, and it's really practical. It's easy to use, we can erase the writing easily and our hand will not be dirty because we don't use board marker. Of course, it's sophisticated media. But everything will always have disadvantages. You know, when we deal with technology, sometimes there will be technical problems and it takes a long time to fix it. I mean it is wasting our time. Then, if the instructor is not familiar with the smartboard yet. Thus, it may distract the students, when the instructor cannot operate the smartboard.

Interviewee 1

Ya, I think so. Because this media can help the instructors to describe/ explain materials clearer to the students. Besides, students also enjoy using this media. They may write texts freely using various colors of pen and drag any kind of pictures from the website then describe it. This media is like a conventional whiteboard or blackboard but the smartboard can have more interactive functions. For example, we can use it as an LCD projector, write/draw everything freely, crop/drag pictures, coloring/modifying pictures, adding some text, removing the text easily and it doesn't make our hand dirty like when we use conventional board marker or chalks. However, when we deal with technology, it is always possible to have a technical problem like when the smartboard doesn't work properly. It takes time to repair that media. And instructors need to use any other media to run the lesson.

Interviewee 2

Ya, I agree that the smartboard gives a good impact on the teaching and learning process because it provides some features that make us easy in delivering learning materials. I and my students can write texts freely with various colors and can erase them easily. We can also present pictures, videos, edit or modify them based on what we want. This is interesting. With technology, we feel enthusiastic to engage with the teaching and learning process. In terms of disadvantages, I found some technical problems such as bad internet connection and the smart board screen is not responsive enough. But it is normal because it can be repaired soon.

Interviewee 3

EFL instructors' beliefs about students' responses in learning English by using the smartboard

During the observation, students showed some responses to the learning process which utilized the smartboard. The students were motivated and engaged with the lesson although they were not amazed by the smartboard. In line with this, some findings of previous research proved that smart boards can increase student engagement (Allen 2010; Beel, 1998). It happened because some of them already knew the smartboard. They admitted:

The students are engaged with the class. They pay attention to me and look comfortable with the use of the smartboard. Some of my students are impressed with that because they that it's sophisticated media and then they are motivated to learn. Meanwhile, other students are already familiar with the smartboard.

Interviewee 1

Ya, the students follow my class and pay attention to my explanation. For new students they may feel surprised with the smart board but for older students, I mean students who have been learning here for a long time, they just feel that it's common learning media. Not surprised anymore. Like what I've explained before, only new students are surprised with a smartboard. But actually, all students pay attention to my lesson and enjoy using the smartboard.

Interviewee 2

Well, I can say that most of my students are engaged with the lesson when I am using a smartboard. Talking about their impressions, I think only some of my students are surprised by the smartboard because they never use it before. But some other students who have been studying here for a longer time, let say almost one year, are not surprised. It is because they are already familiar with it.

Interviewee 3

Lastly, based on the result of the interview, most of the EFL instructors thought positively about the massive implementation of smartboards for schools. They believe that it will give a good impact just like what happens in their English learning centers. They said:

Yes. It can be. But for big classrooms like in schools, it may be risky. The students get open access to the classrooms every time and they may use/play the smartboard appropriately. I think it can be applied for small classrooms like in the English course/learning center because the students only use that smartboard when there are a class and a teacher. Maybe, the smartboard can be used in controlled classrooms like in the computer laboratory.

Interviewee 1

I think so. Schools may implement the smartboard to their classrooms like our classrooms here. But remember, it should be in good control because the smart board is expensive enough. Students at schools may use this media inappropriately when there is no teacher supervision.

Interviewee 2

I think it is good to use smartboard in schools. It can be an alternative way to increase students' curiosity and motivation to learn English. I believe that technology will always help the teaching process as long as we can use it appropriately.

Interviewee 3

Furthermore, the results of the observation and interviews are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. The Summary of Interviewee's Responses

Aspect of beliefs	Interviewee 1	Interviewee 2	Interviewee 3
The experiences in using the smartboard	A smartboard is easy to use. We just need to have training or more practices so we will familiar with it.	Impressed to use the smartboard for the first time. Feel confused at first, but later it is easy to use.	It is exciting to use this media for the first time. It helps me a lot in delivering learning materials.
The impact of smartboard on the teaching and learning process	It gives a good impact on the teaching and learning process. It helps the English instructors to give a clearer explanation.	It helps the English instructors to deliver materials easily. It makes our explanation clearer.	It makes my students more engaged with the lesson. Besides, the features provided by the smartboard makes my teaching process more effective and efficient.
Students' responses	New students are impressed while older students are already familiar with a smartboard.	New students are surprised and older students feel common with the smartboard.	Only new students who are impressed with the smartboard. However, in general, they respond it positively.

The massive application of smartboard	A Smartboard may be applied for small and controlled classrooms.	A Smartboard can be applied in schools. But it's needed highly supervision to operate the smartboard since it is expensive media.	Smartboards can be innovative in providing better learning facilities in schools.

Based on Table 1, it can be concluded that the EFL instructors gave positive responses to the implementation of the smartboard. They agreed that the smartboard could make the teaching and learning process more effective. This finding was also supported by other research that investigated the implementation of a smartboard or interactive whiteboard for teaching English. The research results showed that teachers and students had overall positive perceptions of interactive whiteboards (Corbo, 2014; Oz, 2014). They felt comfortable and believed that it was a very innovative and powerful support for language acquisition. The school culture also embraced technology integration for the success of the teaching and learning process. Another researcher, Martin (2015) mentioned that teaching vocabulary using interactive whiteboards was effective enough. The ability of interactive whiteboard in demonstrating interesting and various texts or pictures encouraged students' motivation to learn vocabulary. Using new technological learning media needed effort because teachers were necessary to be common with its new features. Thus, Turel & Johnson (2012) stated the result of his research that training for teachers in using interactive whiteboards needed to be improved. Good teachers who are experts in using interactive whiteboards will make the learning process more effective.

Conclusion

This study aimed to reveal EFL instructors' beliefs about the implementation of smartboard as the ICT based learning media at several English learning centers. According to the research findings and discussion, it can be concluded that generally, EFL instructors have positive responses towards the implementation of the smartboard. Some literature studies also assert that commonly teachers have positive attitudes towards the smartboard (Kennewell & Morgan, 2003). They stated that the smartboard made the explanation clearer and it was not difficult to be operated. They just needed to have training or practices to use that media. Besides, students enjoyed using the smartboard during the lesson and some of the new students were impressed with a smartboard. Finally, the instructors agreed that the smartboard could be applied to other classrooms with high control or supervision by the teachers there. In terms of pedagogical implications, the findings indicate that the smartboard was beneficial for both students and teachers. Smartboards can enhance students' motivation and engagement during the learning process since they experience an interactive classroom environment. Thus, smart boards can encourage participation, interaction and the improvement of student learning (Jelyani et. al, 2014). Meanwhile, smart boards allow EFL instructors to have better accessibility and flexibility in presenting materials to their students. In this case, smart boards facilitate the instructors to integrate multimedia resources such as written texts, video clips, soundtracks, and diagrams into their class (Levy, 2002).

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ENHANCING ISOLATED GRAMMAR TEACHING THROUGH TRANSLATION: SENTENCE LEVEL AND BEYOND

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Abstract

Associated with grammar-translation method, translation is still often seen as a mere replacement of linguistic forms, which is a far cry from its nature as an act of communication. On the other hand, while being criticized for not assisting learners enough to use grammar in a communication context, isolated grammar teaching has its own merits and is still widely practiced. By implementing translation for meaning-making, this action research seeks to examine how translation may be integrated into the traditional grammar teaching to assist tertiary EFL students to learn L2 forms in communicative contexts. With translation employed at the sentence and discourse levels after the practice session, it was revealed through the participants' reflections that translation exercises may further consolidate students' knowledge of how to use specific forms in various contexts, especially as it relates to lexico-grammatical aspects, help deal with L1 interferences, and are an effective way to raise students' awareness of the essential role of grammar in meaning-making.

Keywords: translation, explicit instruction, grammar teaching

Introduction

With the role of L1 being increasingly recognized in language teaching and learning, translation has been reassessed and slowly reintroduced to enhance language learning. More and more research demonstrates no reason why translation cannot be applied in L2 classrooms (Carreres, 2006; Dagilienė, 2012; Fernández-Guerra, 2014; Kim, 2011; Liao, 2006; Machida, 2008; Van Dyk, 2009). Despite this, there is still very little research on how translation may be applied to assist language learners, especially in grammar learning as a case in point. After being shunned for decades due to its negative associations with the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), its utilization in grammar learning seems to be still highly stigmatized. Often viewed as a mere replacement of linguistic forms, translation is frequently misunderstood to have little communicative value. However, as a skill of mediation between languages and hence cultures, translation may potentially assist grammar learning beyond just producing grammatically acceptable forms. As grammar has a crucial role in language learning (Thornbury, 2002), it is paramount to explore ways on how the act of translating may assist students in learning L2 forms. Pertinent to this, it is imperative to explore ways to improve students' learning experience in isolated grammar teaching, which is still commonly implemented at tertiary EFL programs. Despite its superiority in assisting learners to gain explicit knowledge of L2 forms, it does not allow them enough opportunities for meaning-making in a communicative context. To overcome this problem, this action research aimed to discover how translation may enhance the grammar teaching approach using translation practice at the sentence and discourse levels. This article will be of interest to EFL language practitioners, especially those working at higher education, and those interested in grammar teaching in general.

Literature Review

Grammar teaching and learning

With grammar playing an essential role in language learning, scholars and practitioners have seen it crucial to address form in language learning programs (Ellis, 2016). In general, grammar learning may be delivered separately or integratively, which are often differentiated as *focus on forms* and *focus on form* (Long, 2016). The term focus on forms (FonFs) usually refers to the more traditional way of grammar teaching, which utilizes explicit techniques to attend to form as an object of study and typically involves direct reference to rules. On the other hand, focus on form (FonF) is "various techniques designed to attract learners' attention to form while they are using L2 as a tool for communicating" (Ellis, 2016, p.409).

Each approach has its own merits and downsides, but both may be regarded as complementary in language learning (Ellis, 2015). Focus on form (FonF), being associated more with a 'communicative' way of learning, seems to be more theoretically favored. It allows students to learn about form in L2 communicative contexts with more individualized feedback and is believed to be more useful to develop grammar competence. Despite this, the traditional way is still widely practiced (Larsen-Freeman, 2015), especially in EFL settings with large classes (see Poole, 2005). It is considered to be more effective to facilitate "noticing" forms to help students understand the meanings of grammatical items and to promote accuracy (De Keyser, 1998; Murtisari, Hastuti, & Arsari, 2019; Murtisari, Salvadora, & Hastuti, 2020; Sheen, 2005). Conducting an experimental study on FonF and FonFs, Sheen (2005) found that his sixth-grade participants who received a FonFs instruction significantly improved their grammar scores in a posttest, while those receiving a FonF one continued producing largely incorrect forms. Therefore, he does not believe that FonFs should be excluded from second language learning.

However, with less communicative content compared to that of focus on form, the traditional method may not facilitate students to understand how to use L2 forms naturally. Such non-alignment between explicit instruction and usage may reduce the chance to transfer the form to productive use (see Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Furthermore, although explicit knowledge has stronger short-term effects, it diminishes over time (Umeda, Snape, Yusa, & Wiltshier, 2017). Follow-up is imperative to assist students to gain further benefits from traditional grammar teaching.

Use of translation in grammar teaching

The use of translation in grammar class seems limited to GTM, which is usually non-communicative. This method traditionally used L1 as a medium of instruction, and the teacher, who becomes the center of the class, does not have to be fluent in L2. Besides, grammar learning is carried out deductively in which students are asked to memorize the rules and practice them in the exercises. A typical activity in GTM is translating decontextualized inauthentic sentences from L1 into L2 or the other way around. Emphasis is given to formal accuracy rather than fluency (Zhou & Niu, 2015). With all these characteristics, GTM is considered boring (Scheffler, 2013) and not designed to assist students to communicate in L2 in real-life settings. It is therefore not surprising that as Celce-Murcia (2012) pointed out, "[T]he result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of students to use the language for communication" (p. 5).

However, none of the traits generally associated with GTM are inherent features of the use of translation for teaching grammar (Thornbury, 2010). As Thornbury noticed (2010, par.5-6), “They are simply excess baggage that [grammar translation] accreted in its passage through the nineteenth century”, and “[t]he notions of fluency, skills work, and whole texts are not in the least incompatible with a translation-mediated approach”. Therefore, the use of translation in language teaching/learning needs to be advocated as a mediation skill, rather than just an activity of finding verbal equivalence across languages. The translation practice in general needs to be aimed to produce ’functional’ translations that meet the purpose of the communicative context and use natural expressions of the target language. Utilizing authentic communicative texts at the sentence level and beyond will make such tasks possible as they usually reveal semantic and pragmatic differences between L1 and L2. However, the translation items should be carefully adjusted to the language level of the learners so they will not be too challenging to translate (see also Salem, 2012).

Advantages may be gained by students from translating in their grammar learning. First, by acknowledging the relevance of L1 in L2 learning, translation may scaffold students' learning with the students' mother tongue and enable teachers to deal with issues related to L1 use. As a crucial means of learners' cognitive functions, L1 is inseparable from the process of L2 learning. Besides facilitating students in constructing meaning in L2, using translation may also increase their awareness of differences between L1 and L2. According to Cook (2010, p.55), "conscious awareness of [L1-L2] differences" is indispensable for students to be able to negotiate meaning interlingually for various situations, audiences, and purposes. Rather than cause disruptions as some individuals consider, translation helps students find more natural forms in L2. Instead of utilizing only mental translations, learners can mediate between L1 and L2 forms through communicative translation practices.

Second, translation may offer students more interactions in meaning than the use of a “trigger-structure association”, like by changing the main verbs into certain forms and other cloze exercises (Salem, 2012). Although the application of cues in a "trigger-structure association" is widely done in grammar learning, it is challenging, because in real-life "language is not normally elicited by triggers" but "it is produced to convey meaning" (Salem, 2012, p.147-8). Hence, grammar is not only used to communicate, as it is connected with vocabulary elicitation, comprising the semantic and pragmatic features of the statement. Furthermore, by aligning the form to students' L1, which tends to be the predominant cognitive system, translation may help learners to make L2 forms more meaningful and further internalize them in their thinking processes.

The use of translation in grammar learning can be very versatile as a general means of scaffolding with the use of L1. However, to significantly enhance the study of specific grammatical forms, it should be given a substantial amount of time to allow deep learning. During the translation practice, learners not only construct sentences in L2 but also need to mediate meaning between L1 and L2 by considering different lexico-grammatical and pragmatic aspects, which requires time to do. The resulting translations also need to be assessed and discussed when students produce problematic renderings. According to Salem (2012), care is also necessary for designing the materials to avoid problems such as if the L1 trigger is too difficult to translate or has "textual flaws" (p.147) because they are "poorly worded" (p.153). For the latter, Salem identified, the L1 sentence may be redundant and needs to be paraphrased to produce a proper L2 sentence, or the L1's context is unclear or ambiguous. It is also essential to be careful with items that potentially lead to unnatural responses in L2. Such items should only be used to highlight common differences between L1 and L2 which may affect students' use of the target form. When involving challenging but useful idiomatic L2 expressions, students also need ample support to be able to produce desirable renderings (for instance, by being given the L2 expressions). This kind of issue needs to be addressed because, unlike skillful translators, learners' capacity to translate is still limited due to restricted L2 knowledge.

Method

Context of the study

This study was conducted to discover how translation at the sentence and discourse levels may help overcome the downsides of isolated grammar teaching where students are normally more focused on learning the formal features of discrete L2 forms but do not have enough opportunities for meaning engagement in an authentic communicative context. This small scale action research was carried out in an English undergraduate program of a well-respected university in Central Java, Indonesia. The topic of the differences between the simple past and the present perfect was selected because Indonesian students often find it difficult to differentiate the two.

In the English program where the study took place, grammar was taught both in separate courses and integratively in skill-courses. In the independent courses, grammar was typically taught using the PPP method (presentation, practice, and production). With the time limitation, however, the isolated grammar teaching session in this preliminary study only consisted of presentation and practice. It was then followed by translation practice.

Participants

A total of ten third-year EFL students enrolled in a four-year bachelor's degree program participated in this research. They were taking an introductory translation course in which language focus is an integral part.

Instruments and data collection

Students' reflections were used as instruments to collect data on how they perceived the use of translation practice in learning L2 forms in isolated grammar teaching. Before writing their reflections, they were given a short briefing to write what they thought as honestly as possible and assured that their opinions about the use of translation would not affect their grades.

The procedure of grammar teaching

For the present research, grammar teaching was conducted in two meetings with English as the main medium of instruction. They were taught by the researcher with the following structure.

1. The presentation and practice of the grammar lesson (First meeting - 2x50 minutes)

In the first meeting, the students were taught about comparing the simple past tense and the present perfect tense based on teaching material developed by Bolton and Goodey (2013). This material was written for pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate students, which suited the levels of the study participants. The presentation and practice session may be further clarified as follows.

a. Presentation

The presentation began with a brief introduction to prepare the students for the topic by asking them whether they had had lunch and what time they had it ('Have you had lunch?'; 'When did you have it?'). The students were also requested to ask the instructor the same questions. Then the instructor guided the students to formulate the rules of the two tenses on the board. After this, the participants were given printed material adapted from Bolton and Goodey (2013). The material consisted of four parts, each supplemented with a short text (around 80 words) illustrating different aspects of the target forms and followed by an explanation about them. All the texts were related to each other about a missing teenager. The four parts covered the differences between the past and simple and common time expressions that could be used with them. Every part ended with four questions to check students' comprehension of the meanings/uses of the relevant forms.

b. Practice

Following the presentation session, the instructor gave a very brief summary to contrast the simple past and the present perfect tenses. After this, the students did three exercises, which consisted of one matching exercise, one cloze exercise, and choosing the correct form for a specific context. Altogether, they consisted of 30 items that required students to select forms representing the simple past or the present perfect tense. The students were asked to work individually, and then the answers were thoroughly discussed. For most of the session, English was used without sacrificing students' understanding to give students more exposure to the foreign language.

2. The translation practice (Second meeting – 2x50 Minutes)

The second meeting was conducted the next day and started with a brief review of the differences between the two tenses. The students were later given three types of translation exercises at sentence and discourse levels which required students to work individually to decide which tense to use. The sentences and texts were designed to reflect authentic daily communication, which is crucial to link between the explicit instructions and the contexts of use of the target forms.

a. Translating sentences (16 sentences)

This sentence-level practice was aimed to assist students to produce complete propositions in the target forms at the lowest level. The meaning context was made clear to help students construct the desired response. Most sentences normally had one expected answer (see sentence a-b), but several had two or more possible correct responses (see sentence c), with possible different meaning nuances (e.g., formal/informal overtones). Such a variety of items can help develop students' language awareness and understanding that translation is not based on straight-forward meaning equivalence.

Examples:

a) *Saya sudah makan dua kali pagi ini.* (Time: It's still in the morning) – (expected response: 'I've eaten twice this morning')
b) *Saya makan dua kali pagi ini.* (Time: It's 1 pm now) – (expected response: 'I ate twice this morning').
c) *Kakak perempuan saya belum pernah ke Salatiga*. (possible answers: 'My (older) sister's never been to Salatiga' or 'My (older) sister's never visited Salatiga').

b. Translating conversations (4 short exchanges)

This type of exercise was meant to teach students how the grammatical form(s) may be used in communicative speech discourse.

Example (with possible translations):

Andi: *Saya sudah lama tidak melihat Toni.* ('I haven't seen Toni for ages/ a long time')
Budi: *Oh, dia sudah pindah ke Semarang.* ('Oh, he's moved to Semarang')
Andi: *Yang betul? Kapan dia pergi?* ('Really?/You're kidding/You can't be serious/Are you sure? When did he leave/move?')
Budi: *Tahun lalu.* ('Last year')

c. Translating a very short news text (3 long sentences)

This discourse-level practice served to introduce how the target forms may be used in a written text. The discussion of students' translations might involve issues of coherence, such as how the word repetitions should be minimized. In the example below, for instance, the word "boy" was used for the first time, and then "child" was used to avoid redundancy. The topic of the text was made similar to the texts given in the presentation session (first meeting) to help students relate to what had been studied and facilitate a better understanding.

Example:
Seorang anak laki-laki yang hilang akhir minggu lalu di Philipi East sudah ditemukan. Sivenanthi Marongile menghilang saat bermain dengan seorang teman pada hari Sabtu. Polisi mengatakan bahwa anak tersebut ditemukan Minggu pagi.

(A boy who went missing in Philipi East last week has been found. Sivenanthi Marongile disappeared while playing with a friend on Saturday. The police said the child was found on Sunday morning.).

Findings and Discussion

The data were analyzed using a thematic analysis which was done by frequently reading the reflection to familiarize the researcher with the content and a basis to establish the emerging themes. An examination of the reflections revealed three aspects of students' experiences in using translation to learn grammar. These aspects consisted of their feelings and opinions about the translation practice, and their reasons for them, which constituted their perceived benefits of using translation in their grammar practice. Overall, the study revealed favorable beliefs towards the application of translation in learning L2 forms, which refute, as Liao (2006) points out, the commonly held assumption under the communicative language teaching approach that translation is detrimental to language learning.

Feelings and general views

The participants reported positive feelings towards the use of translation in the grammar class. Two students (S5 and S8) mentioned they were pleased to join the grammar class, especially the translation session. One student (S3) said the class was motivating. She believed the translation activities were more stimulating than the previous part of the grammar class. As she put it, "The usual grammar practice made me sleepy, and I did not pay a lot of attention [to the lesson]." Two other students said doing the translation exercise was fun (S3 and S6). This demonstrates that translation is not necessarily a dull activity for learning grammar when appropriately incorporated. One possible reason for this is it is more cognitively engaging (Duff, 1989) than conventional grammatical exercises because students are involved in meaning-making (Salem, 2012). One may argue that to take learners to a higher order of learning like this, one does not have to resort to translating. By writing directly in L2, one may also achieve this. However, considering that mental translation from L1 is common among L2 learners (Cohen, Brooks-Carson, & Jacobs-Cassuto, 2000; Hu, 2003), translation exercises may provide a tool for checking students' L2 production for possible L1 areas of interference and deal with them to help learners consolidate the new L2 information into the already established L1 knowledge.

Furthermore, while not all the participants expressed their feelings about the translation component, all of them had positive views towards it. S1, S2, S4, S5, S6, and S7 said that the translation exercises were helpful. S3 and S4 believed that the translation practice was essential to help them learn the specific L2 forms being taught. Three students (S1, S3, and S4) reported that differentiating the simple past and the present perfect was perplexing, and the translation exercises were challenging (S1 and S3). This may have been because they had to work harder to reproduce the meanings from L1 to L2 rather than just construct the correct forms with the available words like in the previous traditional practice. Regardless, all of these participants felt the translation exercises assisted them greatly. S1 and S3 reported an excellent understanding of how the two tenses differ, while S4 mentioned that the translation practice was an "effective" way of learning grammar. All these positive feelings/views strongly echo positive previous research findings on students' perceptions or attitudes towards the use of translation in language learning/teaching (e.g. Carreres, 2006; Dagilienė, 2012; Liao, 2006; Machida, 2008).

Benefits of integrating translation in grammar teaching

The participants' reflections showed the following recurrent themes on the benefits of incorporating translation into grammar learning, such as:

1. Allowing deeper learning of specific grammatical items

S1, S2, S3, S6, and S9 or half of the participants believed that the translation component allowed them to learn the target forms deeper than they did in the first meeting of the grammar class. According to S1, this was because they not only had to choose which particular form to use in a specific context but they also practiced other relevant aspects of using the target form like how to use related vocabulary words. This finding corroborates Colina and Lafford's (2018) view that translation may help illuminate various aspects of texts, which allows for a more comprehensive understanding of how L2 forms work in context. Here, the translation practice could significantly enhance traditional grammar teaching beyond just enabling students to understand the meanings of specific forms and construct them correctly. By mediating meaning from L1, it further engaged students to learn grammar as a practice of meaning-making to be able to communicate effectively in L2.

2. Increasing language awareness

The incorporation of translation into grammar teaching fosters the students to increase their language awareness. First, the students understand the meanings and uses of vocabulary items that frequently co-occur with a specific grammatical form. Half of the participants reported that the translation component allowed them to learn the semantic nuances of words relevant to the use of the target forms. S8, for instance, wrote that she learned the difference between 'gone to a place', which is a literal translation of an Indonesian source text, and 'been to a place'. Another student (S6) mentioned how the word 'yet' in 'I haven't done it yet' makes the meaning different from 'I haven't done it'. In Indonesian, both of the sentences may be expressed in the same form, not capturing the specific meaning of 'yet'. Here, it was interesting to note that although the use of words such as 'yet' and 'already' had been addressed in the previous meeting, the students did not notice their meanings until they applied them in the translation practice (often inaccurately due to the literal translation from Indonesian). This shows that the integration of translation may promote learning of the lexico-grammatical aspect, which makes up an area of translation sub-skill (Leonardi, 2011). This benefit will be invaluable in language learning because "grammar and lexis are completely interdependent” (Salem, 2007, p. 2012) and is therefore central in developing grammar competence for communication.

Second, the students understand the importance of grammar in expressing meanings. Two students (S2 and S8) realized that grammar is not only about form because it plays an essential role in conveying meaning. S8 wrote how the use of 'be’ in the passive may make a substantial difference in meaning. He pointed out that “Grammar affects the quality of translation”. S2 realized how the use of the form is closely linked to the context of meaning. She stated she became more motivated to learn grammar to express meanings correctly in English. Such realization is crucial in language learning because many EFL students tend to pay more attention to vocabulary than grammar (Poole, 2005) and see the latter just as a matter of mechanical rules. This lack of awareness often reduces their motivation to learn L2 forms autonomously.

Third, the students understand the differences between L1 and L2. Two students (S1 and S8) wrote how Indonesian is different from English in grammar usage. S1 revealed that Indonesian has a different system of time marking from English. Because of this, she felt she needed to learn grammar to be able to express herself in English well. S8, on the other hand, wrote how one needs to adjust to the conventions of L2 in translating. Awareness that L2 works differently from L1 is paramount in language learning to deal with L1 interferences (Cook, 2010).

All the positive aspects of L2 from the reflections above show that translation may significantly enhance students’ learning in isolated grammar teaching. One student (S3) believed that the translation component was indispensable in her process of understanding the simple past and the present perfect tenses. She wrote:

> If I had not joined [this translation practice], I wouldn’t have understood the differences between the simple past and the present perfect tenses. [T]hey have different forms, but the meanings are very similar.

This study supports previous research findings that translation practice is a very effective means for consciousness-raising pertinent to various aspects of language learning (Kim, 2011; Murtisari, 2016; Scheffler, 2013).

Conclusion

This study shows that translation practice may assist students to learn grammar at higher levels in isolated grammar teaching. Using authentic communicative contexts, it may link explicit instructions with the contextual use of grammatical forms and engage students with meaning-making they can implement in communication. As revealed by students' reflections, translation enabled them to consolidate their previous knowledge of the target forms by understanding their meanings and uses more in-depth, helped them gain awareness of the essential role of grammar in communication, and assisted them in dealing with L1 interferences. A crucial finding was how translation may help students learn about the meanings and applications of common vocabulary words that co-occur with the target form(s), which may assist them to produce more natural expressions in L2. With a limited number of participants, this small-scale study’s findings are not generalizable but overall support the view that translation can be integrated into a grammar class to create more opportunities to learn how to use L2 forms in authentic communicative contexts. More research is necessary to reveal how the integration of translation may help learners to use the target forms in the production phase of the PPP method and how translation may be more creatively integrated into grammar instruction across different levels of L2 competence. Ultimately, the latter should lead to the development of an instructional model that may optimally help tap the potentials of translation to assist grammar learning.

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TEXTUAL AND LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

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Abstract
One of the most important parts of a research article is abstract. With limited space and words, writing English abstracts is a challenging task for inexperienced EFL writers. Analyzing the rhetorical structures and linguistic features of abstracts is a practical and effective way to assist unskilled writers in writing their abstracts correctly and provide them with a clearer insight into the genre. The present paper analyzes the rhetorical structures and linguistic features of English abstracts written by Thai authors. Data were collected from 30 applied linguistics abstracts published in six TCI-indexed journals. Verb tenses, voices, and interpersonal devices in the abstracts were examined. The findings showed that the product move was the most frequent. The occurrence of verb tenses and voice varied according to the moves. Both active and passive voice appeared frequently in the method move. The frequency of attitudinal markers was higher than that of other interactional resources. It was found in the present study that the employment of rhetorical moves with their linguistic characteristics and metadiscoursal devices can be a useful tool for Thai writers to write their research article abstracts in the field of applied linguistics. Besides, the findings will serve as a guideline for teachers in designing genre-related materials for teaching EFL learners.

Keywords: textual organization, move, research article, abstract

Introduction
An abstract is an important section of a research article (RA) since it is used to capture the essence of the whole article. By reading the abstract, readers can learn some of the key points contained in a journal article. However, it is a challenging task for unskilled authors, especially non-native writers of English, to write abstracts in English. This is because writers need to establish their main claims and also present themselves as competent members of a language community (Hyland, 2005) in a language that is not their mother tongue. Since English has now become a lingua franca for international communication, being able to write an abstract in English is one of the requirements for international publication or academic conferences. It is now common that an English version of an abstract should be published even when the articles are written in languages

other than English (Lorés, 2004; Martín, 2003). This practice makes the English abstract a vital part of international RA publications.

Analyzing the rhetorical structures of RA abstracts and their linguistic realization serves as one of the approaches for providing a clearer and deeper understanding of the abstract genre. A move analysis model has been gradually established and applied to assist inexperienced authors in acquiring a better understanding of the rhetorical structure of RA abstracts. The move analysis, as stated by Swales (1990), encompasses a type of communicative event serving a particular communicative purpose used by a particular discourse community. A sequence of distinct moves to realize the overall communicative purpose of an abstract varies according to the genre which is a socially recognized way of using language by members of the same discourse community (Hyland, 2002). Moves can be realized by certain lexical features and grammatical constructions. Therefore, the linguistic features of an abstract are important and play a vital role in a move-based analysis.

To fully understand the structure of abstracts, most move-based research studies tend to identify not only the use of moves, but also the linguistic realizations of each move, such as tense, voice usage, and metadiscoursal markers (Indrian & Ardi, 2019; Liu & Huang, 2017; Suntara, 2018; Tseng, 2011; Walková, 2019; Zhang, Thuc, & Pramoolsook, 2012). As stated by Salager-Meyer (1992) and Santos (1996), moves are realized by different linguistic resources. For example, the present tense was extensively employed in abstracts to convey a summary of the articles while the past tense was found to be used in concluding the research findings (Cooley & Lewkowicz, 2003). Furthermore, some research studies (see Amnuai, 2019a; Tseng, 2011; Zhang et al., 2012) found that present tense was used to give some background knowledge of the research being conducted while past tense was applied to state the methodology and present the results of the research. Each move can be classified based on its linguistic realizations, such as grammatical subject, tense and voice usage (Pho, 2008). As demonstrated in a comparative study by Amnuai (2019b), only the present tense was found in the purpose move in the international corpus while in the Thai corpus this move was expressed using both present and past tenses. Therefore, analyzing the rhetorical moves and key exponents used to realize these moves will broaden EFL students' knowledge of the genre-based approach to academic writing. In this regard, learners will be benefitted from being able to differentiate the rhetorical moves of abstracts and their linguistics features, and this will help them to have a clearer picture of how abstracts are constructed.

It is clear that a move analysis involves the identification of the communication purposes of particular text units and that each move should be realized by using certain linguistic resources, such as tense, voice and metadiscoursal devices. There has not been any study that focused on these issues, particularly with an analysis of applied linguistics RA abstracts written by Thai writers in English. Therefore, two research objectives were set to fill this gap. The first was to find which rhetorical moves are used by Thai writers when writing their abstracts in English. The second was to investigate how those rhetorical moves are realized linguistically.

The results of the analyses will reflect the rhetorical structures and their linguistic realizations employed in the abstracts written by Thai writers. This will provide practical guidelines for authors who are interested in writing and publishing their research articles in English.

Methods

Data collection

The corpus of the present study was compiled from 30 English abstracts written by Thai authors in the field of applied linguistics. The abstracts that were written with foreign co-authors were excluded. The abstracts were selected from international journals published by well-known universities in Thailand. The journals can be accessed via an electronic database. Six journals were selected, including (1) Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences Studies, (2) Journal of Studies in the English Language, (3) LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network, (4) PASAA, (5) Suranaree Journal of Social Science, and (6) The New English Teacher. These journals were qualified for the analysis because they were classified in Tier 1 and Asian Citation Index (ACI) indices, which were ranked by the Thai-Journal Citation Index Center (TCI), and can be tracked through https://tci-thailand.org/. In addition to these two recognized indices, *PASAA* journal has also been included in the SCOPUS index. Using purposive sampling, five RA abstracts were taken from each journal. The abstracts chosen from these journals were published during the years 2016-2019. All of the RAs selected were constructed using the conventional section format of Introduction-Method-Result-Discussion/Conclusion.

Data analysis

To analyze the moves in the abstracts, Hyland's (2000) model (see Table 1) was adopted. This widely-used framework is appropriate for analysis since it has been developed from the analysis of a large number of abstracts (800) across eight fields. Furthermore, it has been used as a model for move analyses in many studies (e.g. Amnuai, 2019a; Darabad, 2016; Li & Pramoolsook, 2015; Zanina, 2017; Zhang et al., 2012). This model contains five moves, namely Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product, and Conclusion, which fully cover the communicative functions of the abstracts in the field of applied linguistics. The cut-off points for move classifications were based on Kanoksilapatham (2005)'s criteria, which classified the frequency of occurrence of each move ranging from obligatory, to conventional, and to optional (i.e. 100%, 60%-99%, and less than 60% of the corpora, respectively).

Table. 1 Hyland's (2000) move model

Move	Function
Introduction	Establishes the context of the paper and the motives for the research.
Purpose	Indicates the purpose, thesis or hypothesis, and outlines the intentions behind the paper.
Method	Provides information on the design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.

Product	States the main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.
Conclusion	Interprets the results, examines the implications, draws inferences, and points to applications or wider implications.

The analysis of the metadiscoursal devices was based on Hyland (2005). Five interactional metadiscoursal types were identified in the present study (see Table 2). In Hyland and Jiang's study (2018), the metadiscoursal device was divided into two types (interactive and interactional resources). The first type includes a group of resources that "allow the writer to manage the information flow to establish his or her preferred interpretations" (Hyland & Jiang, 2018, p. 20). The second type is centered on "the participants of the interaction and display the writers' personae and a tenor consistent with community norms" (Hyland & Jiang, 2018, p. 20). However, the present study focused on only the interactional devices because these devices express the author's opinions to involve the reader in the arguments or to mark the degree of intimacy with his or her readers through language. In the present study, besides tense and voice, interactional devices were also included in the analysis. These linguistic features are important since previous studies found that these features discouraged non-native learners when writing research articles (e.g. Flowerdew, 2001; Pho, 2008; Walková, 2019). As shown in their study, Thai postgraduate students faced difficulties in writing academic papers because of having a low proficiency in English. Their limited knowledge of the grammar for academic writing as well as their limited word used in the fields also contributed to their writing difficulties (Srikrai, et al., 2016).

Each abstract was analyzed in terms of its rhetorical moves and linguistic features (tense, voice, and metadiscourse) manually and then the results were coded and compared. To avoid any subjectivity in coding the moves, and in the identification of the moves and linguistic features, they were analyzed independently by the researchers. The agreement between the identification of the moves and their linguistic realizations needs to be identical in terms of frequency and position. When there were disagreements on identifying moves and their linguistic realizations, a discussion took place. The results of the analyses are presented in terms of frequencies and percentages.

Table.2 Hyland's (2005) Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse	Function	Examples
Hedges	To withhold the writer's full commitment to a proposition	might/perhaps/possible/about
Boosters	To give emphasis, force or show writer's certainty of a proposition	in fact/definitely/it is clear that
Attitude Markers	Express the writer's attitudes to a proposition	unfortunately/I agree/surprisingly
Engagement Markers	To refer to something explicitly or to build a relationship with the reader	consider/note that/you can see that
Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	I, we, our, my, etc.

Results and Discussion

Analysis of the textual organization

The results for the frequency of moves with their percentages are in Table 3.

Table 3. Frequency of Moves in the Abstracts

Move	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Introduction (I)	23	77%
Purpose (P)	21	70%
Method (M)	27	90%
Product (Pr)	29	97%
Conclusion (C)	15	50%
*Structuring the Presentation (SP)	5	16%

As shown in Table 1, the five moves proposed by Hyland (2000) were found in the present study. The frequencies of the moves for the Introduction, Purpose, Method, and Product moves ranged from between 60-100 percent. Only the Conclusion move was optional as its frequency of occurrence was 50 percent. It was found that five of the abstracts contained a certain communication function which signaled to the readers what the article contained (see Example 1). This new move was called Structuring the Presentation (SP). Its position was at the end of the abstracts and it always consisted of one or two sentence(s). According to Nwogu, (1997), the occurrence of a new move should be about 50 percent regularly. However, the present study did not discard the new move even if its occurrence was less than 50 percent. This is because its function reflects some important characteristics of the genre of applied linguistics abstracts. Its frequency of 16 percent (5 abstracts) in the corpus was particularly significant for understanding the rhetorical structures used by Thai writers.

The high frequency of occurrence of the Product move was also found in previous studies. Its frequency reached nearly 80 percent in some other applied linguistics corpora (e.g. Can, Karabacak, & Qin, 2016; Pho, 2008; Ren & Li, 2011; Suntara & Usaha, 2013). For example, the frequency of this move was one hundred percent in a corpus of applied linguistics RA abstracts conducted by Pho (2008). The Presenting results move was relatively high at over 80 percent, such as in agricultural abstracts in Zang et al. (2012), Tourism (Ahmed, 2015), dental abstracts (Vathanalaoha & Tangkiengsirisin, 2018), and an ICT abstracts (Amnuai, 2019a). This implies that this move is an important part of an abstract and should be applied in nearly all disciplines. Therefore, it is essential for the writing of an abstract.

Example 1

The pedagogical implications were also suggested. (Abstract 15)

Move ordering pattern

The five ordering patters for the most linear moves in the present study are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Five Most Frequent Linear Move Sequences

Move	Frequency
1. I-P-M-Pr-C	6
2. I-P-M-Pr	4
3. I-M-Pr-C	3
4. P-M-Pr-C	3
5. P-M-Pr	3

Table 3 presents the ordering patterns in the abstracts of the corpus. Five linear move sequences were found. The preferred sequence was the linear I-P-M-Pr-C pattern. This is different from Hyland's (2000) study which found that pattern number 5 (P-M-Pr) was the most frequent structure in his large corpus. From the findings of the present study, it can be seen that Thai authors prefer to develop their abstracts in the linear sequence of "I-P-M-Pr-C", that is, the abstract begins with the background information and then states the objective of the study. The methodological usage and the research findings were then subsequently described. Finally, the abstract ended with the conclusion in which the results were interpreted and their wider implications suggested. This implies that the Thai authors were likely to adopt the conventional structure when writing their RA abstracts. In a similar study conducted by Vathanalaoha & Tangkiengsirisin (2018), the ideal pattern of "I-P-M-Pr-C" showed a relatively high frequency in their international dental RA abstracts. They found that abstracts published in international journals were formed in the five linear patterns beginning with giving the background, stating the purpose, describing methods, presenting results, and ending with a conclusion while abstracts written by Thai dental authors were different. By contrast, the abstracts of Thai dental authors started with the purpose followed by methods, results, and the conclusion. The Introduction move was used less often in their study. The linear I-P-M-Pr-C structure in the present study is dissimilar to Ahmed's (2015) study. He found that the nonlinear pattern was found more frequently than the linear pattern which he believed may have been affected by the application of moves in organizing abstracts in that particular discourse community. Also, types of research design, as well as the authors' style, were the causes of variations in the order of the moves (Almed, 2015).

The results show 11 non-frequent move patterns as delineated in Table 4. They show the variety of structures used in applied linguistics abstracts. Interestingly, there were five embedded patterns where the authors tried to merge two moves within a sentence. The combined moves were the Purpose and Method moves. It was found that all the embedded moves were constructed as complex sentences. Therefore, only the independent clauses of the sentences were counted for the frequency of the moves. The embedded structure is shown in Example 2, where the Purpose move (italic) was used to start the sentence and followed by the Method move (bold).

Example 2

(Purpose Move) *To understand more about the roles of English in a print advertisement in Thailand*, (Method Move) **this study analyses the language used in 100 facial cosmetic advertisements available in Thai magazines**.

Table 4. Non-frequent move patterns

Structure	**Move**	**Frequency**
Linear	1. I-P-Pr	1
	2. I-M-Pr	1
	3. I-*P*+*M*-Pr	1
Embedded	4. I-*P*+*M*-Pr	1
	5. P-M-*M*+*Pr*-C	1
	6. M-I-*P*+*M*-Pr-C	1
	7. *M*+*P*-M-Pr-SP	1
	8. I-P-M-Pr-C-SP	1
New Moves	9. P-SP	1
	10. I-M-Pr-SP	1
	11. I-P-M-Pr-SP	1

In the present study, a new move was found and named "structuring the presentation." The function of this newly added move was to guide readers towards the points presented in the research article. Five abstracts contained this new move and they were structured in different forms. However, these five abstracts were similar in one respect, namely, that the new move was at the end of the abstracts. Two possible reasons can be used to explain this. First, the authors tried to persuade the readers to continue reading the whole paper or, secondly, they might have had only a limited space in the abstract for that information. Therefore, the authors preferred to leave out this information in the abstracts because the readers would read it in the paper. Although the present study shows a limited frequency for the use of the new move, it nonetheless reflects the rhetorical structure of RA abstracts generated by Thai writers.

Tenses and voice usage

The following section presents the findings concerning the tense and voice used in the corpus.

Table 5. Verb Tense Frequency in Each Move in the Corpus

Move Types	**I**	**P**	**M**	**Pr**	**C**	**SP**	**Total**
Total Number of Abstracts Containing Move Types	23	21	27	29	15	5	100
Past tense	1	11	23	23	1		59
Present tense	18	11	4	8	14	5	60
Present perfect tense	7	-	-	-	-		7
Future tense	-	1	-	-	-		1

Active voice	12	21	8	20	12	73
Passive voice	4	2	7	1	-	14
Active + Passive voice	6	-	11	7	3	27

As shown in Table 5, the present simple tense was the most frequently used tense in all five moves, especially in the Introduction and Conclusion moves. This high frequency of the present simple tense in the Introduction and Conclusion moves can be explained by the fact that the authors tried to relate their studies to the field and referred their findings to the discourse community. It was found that the present perfect tense was used only in the Introduction move. This is because the function of the Introduction move is to establish the context of the paper, provide the background to the study and show the importance of the topic to the community. Using the present tense adds the effect of liveliness and contemporary relevance (Swales & Feak, 2004). In their study, Swales and Feak (2004) found that abstracts in the hard sciences, such as physics, chemistry, and astrophysics, are likely to use the present tense more often than the social sciences. Conversely, the present tense was the most frequently used tense in the present study. The shift to a dynamic and active tone by using the present tense could to some extent be the result of the Thai authors trying to make their research lively and fresh to their readers.

The past tense was the second most frequently used tense in the corpus. It was frequently used in the method and product moves. Such a high frequency correlated with that reported in previous research studies (Alhuqbani, 2013; Kanoksilapatham, 2012; Lim, 2006; Zang, et al., 2012). According to their functions, these two moves are used to address work that has been completed at the time of writing, thus the style of writing of these two moves is likely to require a direct and objective tone. The Method move aims to describe the methods employed and the Product move aims to show the results of the study, which leaves little opportunity for the authors' argumentation or comments. Therefore, the use of the past tense was relatively higher than that of the other tenses.

The use of the active voice was much more frequently used than the passive voice and it occurred in nearly all moves. However, the passive voice was found frequently in the Method move. It was found that the combination of active and passive voices was the second most frequently used pattern in the corpus. Generally, writing texts in the active voice is considered to be easier for understanding than the passive voice (Lorés, 2004; Swales, 1990), and the passive voice is frequently used to depersonalize information (Weissberg & Buker, 1990). The writers in the present study tried to avoid the agent by placing the emphasis on the methodology procedure and how the treatment was carried out or how the instruments were used. Tu and Wang (2013) and Hanidar (2016) found that the passive voice was the preferred choice for describing research methods in various fields. Analyzing a large number of abstract corpora in four disciplines (Biology, Mechanical Engineering, Linguistics, and Medicine), Hanidar (2016) reported that the passive voice was found in all fields but with different degrees of frequency. These findings illustrate the need for focused instruction in academic writing classes on raising English language learners' awareness of the conventions in using verb tenses and voice when writing abstracts for publication.

Interactional resources

The interactional metadiscoursal devices suggested by Hyland (2005) were found in different numbers according to the types of the move, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Interactional metadiscoursal devices

	I	P	M	Pr	C	Sub-Total
Hedges	3	0	0	4	4	11
Attitudinal markers	8	0	0	7	8	23
Boosters	1	0	0	2	4	7
Sub-total	12	0	0	13	16	Total 41

Table 6 shows the use of metadiscoursal devices in the abstracts written by Thai authors. There were a total of 41 devices in a corpus of 30 abstracts. Only three 3 out of 5 interactional resources proposed by Hyland (2005) were found in the present study. The most frequent interactional resource used by Thai authors in Table 6 was attitudinal markers, and its usage was comparatively high in the Introduction, Product and Conclusion moves. The second most frequently used type was the hedge and then, thirdly, the booster. Based on the number of overall occurrences, two types of metadiscoursal devices (engagement markers and self-mentions) were not found in the present study. However, Gillaerts and Van de Velde (2010) and Hyland (2005) reported that interactional resources played an important role in RA abstracts.

To some extent, the findings are similar to the study of Zang et al. (2012), who found that the distribution of the hedge and the attitudinal markers was quite high in agricultural abstracts. Hyland and Jiang (2018) examined the tendency to use metadiscoursal devices in journal articles in four disciplines over the past 50 years. Interestingly, they found a dramatic fall in the interactional markers in the field of applied linguistics. They also revealed that there had been a significant decrease in the number of interactional metadiscoursal devices in the soft fields. Their findings demonstrated that authors tried to show their objectivity in presenting research papers, especially in the field of applied linguistics. The reason behind this trend might be the influence of the guidelines and manuals on abstract writing set by the journals, which require an objective style (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010). It can also be due to the authors' lack of linguistic expressions for communicating their viewpoints and relationship with their readers (Zang et al., 2012). For these reasons, interactional metadiscoursal devices should be one of the instructional topics for writing classes, especially in EFL contexts.

The employment of the 3 resources (hedge, attitudinal marker, and booster) in only 3 moves in the present study must be the result of the functions of the moves. As we know, Introduction and Conclusion moves aim to give great importance to the authors' perspectives on their research or the previous literature related to their studies. This may be the reason why attitudinal markers and hedges were used. However, these findings are different from a study by Zang et al. (2012), which found that there were no metadiscoursal devices in the product move. But, in the present study, all three types of devices were found in the product move but with different degrees of usage. Although the function of the product move is to state the main findings of the research, the Thai authors appeared to add or reveal their personal views using the hedge, attitudinal marker, and booster, as shown in Examples 3, 4, and 5 respectively. These usages demonstrate how Thai authors construct their abstracts in the field of applied linguistics.

> Example 3
> More importantly, under the sub-types of citations, the international scholars tended to use considerably more non-integral structures, including source and identification, while the integral structure, verb-controlling, *seemed* substantially preferred by Thai scholars. (Abstract 3)

> Example 4
> The Pearson correlation coefficient between vocabulary size and years of study was significant and positive yet *relatively weak* (r=.201, p<.01) which indicated that years of study were partly related to vocabulary size. (Abstract 5)

> Example 5
> These were motivated by their sensitivity to a person of higher status and the Thai values of being caring and considerate, showing gratitude, and being modest. TEs, however, differed *significantly* from TTs *noticeably* in their use of direct strategies. (Abstract 15)

Furthermore, the omission of two other types of resources (engagement markers and self-mentions) is interesting. In academic writing, authors have a choice of presenting themselves to the readers in explicit or implicit ways (Walková, 2019). However, the Thai authors in this study did not interact with their readers by using any personal pronouns. This finding is in line with Zang et al. (2012), who found that only one abstract used the self-mention device. In contrast, Liu and Huang (2017) obtained different results. They found that the trend of using self-mention markers increased in economics abstracts written by Chinese authors. Walková (2019) also reported that the use of authorial reference in RAs written by native English writers was higher than that of L2 English writers. The native English authors used self-mention when stating their research procedures while the non-native English authors employed this device when announcing the purpose, intention, or focus of the study. Although in the past three decades, explicit self-reference has not been widely used in academic writing as papers using the device might be rejected for publication, first-person pronouns have gradually been acknowledged as “a powerful means by which writers express identity by asserting their claim to speak as an authority, and this is a key element of successful academic writing” (Hyland, 2002, p. 11).

The findings of the present study demonstrated how Thai authors wrote abstracts in the field of applied linguistics. They were not likely to communicate directly to their readers by using self-mention devices or engagement markers although it is possible to use them in mentioning the authors themselves or in addressing readers directly. This is because using personal pronouns can shorten the distance between the authors and their readers (Swales & Feak, 2004). To some extent, these results might provide a practical guideline for assisting inexperienced Thai authors or non-native writers to write their research abstracts effectively.

Conclusion

The analysis of 30 abstracts written in English by Thai authors in the field of applied linguistic yielded some useful information. Five moves proposed by Hyland (2005) were found with different degrees of frequency. The product move was ranked number one which was followed by the method move. The third rank was the introduction move and the purpose move was the fourth in rank with a frequency of 70 percent of the corpus. The least frequent was the conclusion move with a frequency of 50 percent. The new move "structuring the presentation (SP)" was only found in five of the abstracts (16%). The linear ordering pattern (I-P-M-Pr-C) was the most frequently used structure in the corpus.

The Thai authors tended to use the present tense in writing their abstracts, especially in the introduction and conclusion moves. The past tense in the passive form was frequently used in the method and product moves. The attitudinal marker was the most frequent interactional resource used by the Thai authors to communicate with their readers. The results show that only three metadiscoursal devices (hedge, attitudinal marker, and booster) were employed in the corpus. The conclusion move showed a very high usage of these devices.

The findings are expected to have pedagogical implications for the integration of a genre-based approach with linguistic features in terms of tense, voice, and interactional resources in various aspects of writing. The rhetorical organization and their linguistic realizations found in the present study can be actively incorporated into the programs or curriculum for Thai undergraduates or higher levels of studies, for example, in research writing courses for those who find it difficult to write well-structured RA abstracts for publication. That means teachers can incorporate the research findings of the rhetorical moves, linguistic features as well as the interactional metadiscoursal devices in their teaching materials by providing genre-based tasks or activities to raise students' awareness of the necessary rhetorical organization and its linguistic realizations. Such provisions would provide students with opportunities to experience the genre and the linguistic resources of RA abstracts and make them more sensitive to the styles of language usage set by their discourse community.

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BOOK REVIEW: PERSPECTIVES AND REFLECTIONS ON RACIAL LITERACY AS AN APPROACH TO CRITICAL WRITING INSTRUCTION

Title of the book	: Teaching Racial Literacy: Reflective Practices for Critical Writing
ISBN	: 9781475836622 (electronic)
Author	: Mara Lee Grayson
Publisher	: Rowman & Littlefield
Page	: 149 pages

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In the EFL/ESL classroom, the reflective teachers have to address issues on ethnicity and racism so that they can provide conducive, friendly, and harmonious environment where learners can feel they are accepted regardless of differences and diversities. Ethnography, as mentioned in the book of Grayson (2018), attests the need for language teachers to consider the concepts of race and ethnicity when they teach writing in the language classroom. There are instances when new students and even old feel intimidated because they cannot feel sense of belongingness or they don't feel welcome at all in the class. Through the initiatives and techniques of the language teacher, the students can see gradually the connections between them and their classmates. John Dewey, as cited by Grayson (2018), points out the functions of progressive education in social progress. Nieto (2003) on the other hand, supports diversity and race by explaining the importance of multicultural education in framing relevant curriculum framework for literacy.

Racial literacy and racism are both unnoticed issues in the composition/writing classroom. The researcher-reviewer attempted to explain, appraise, and describe the features and contents of the book authored by Grayson (2018). For a more effective review of the material, the researcher compared his own experiences and thoughts to the objectives and perspectives discussed in the book. As a language teacher, the researcher himself does not only focus on speaking, listening, and reading but among other essential skills, writing is clearly and equally important. The task of instilling among learners the value of this area may not always be successful due to some factors. First, learners may not be inclined or interested with writing. Second, the learners have not yet developed vocabulary to understand their own skills in writing which means they could hardly see meanings and directions. Another reason is the poor grammar skills of the learners, obstructing their desire to write purposefully and meaningfully.

Many teachers are not aware that racial literacy exists as an approach to teaching writing. They have knowledge on other pedagogies such as differentiated instruction, cooperative learning, project-based learning and so on. But this racial literacy is stranger to them. The book illustrates how useful this approach is. For instance, when students are engage into writing, if the language teacher inculcates with students the essence of diversity and culture, most likely, the learners can include (in their writing) various situations with respect and consideration to culture, ethnicity, and heritage.

It is noted that racism in the book refers to dominant culture and traits of the place and community where the learners live and interact. The book is effective in exposing to the readers and researchers the importance of being socially and culturally aware when they do writing activities.

Chapter 1 focuses on the glimpse and theories of the book. It emphasizes the importance of racism in teaching writing. Terms and issues are likewise presented. Chapter 2 provided detailed information on how to plan, prepare, and provide lessons for the literacy classroom. Chapter 3 deals with reading, writing, and modality where target readers can get holistic information for their instruction. It also advises teachers which selections and texts are appropriate for classroom purposes. Chapter 4 tackles the role of narrative lyrics as an approach to teach literacy. This is followed by Chapter 5, which discusses emotions and feelings in a racial literacy classroom. Chapter 6 is the next part, which describes and elaborates personal writing and position in writing. Chapter 7 advises language teachers the boundaries (and silences) of conversations in teaching racial literacy. Chapter 8 illustrates racial literacy as a form of service learning and community outreach. Lastly, Chapter 9 offers thoughts, suggestions, and activities on how students can deal with the challenges in racial literacy.

The author is insightful in elucidating that culture, literacy, and classroom are vital in developing the writing skills of the learners who are dealing with the challenges of the contemporary time. After their academic struggle and journey, they will go to the outside world (the worksite) where they will work and meet other people. Understanding about the culture of others plays significant role in making students dynamic and open to different situations and transitions. Meanwhile, the author is commendable in mentioning the role of literacy in preparing learners for social context and workplace. It is a big responsibility of language teachers to work on literacy education programs while they keep the minds of students aware on current events and traditions related to racism.

In one chapter, racial literacy is justified to be an important tool in critical writing instruction where students coming from diverse and multicultural settings are taught to write with social awareness. In the composition classroom, the students are involved in fruitful activities like sharing stories, feelings, and ideas. They can listen, respond, and interact with other members of the class and community, where they are living.

A part of the book discusses “prepare, plan, and provide” which is wealthy narration of how the language and composition teacher can implement racial literacy as a part of his instructional strategies. Among the complex processes learners have to do are observing, interpreting, questioning, and communicating. The book also instructs language teachers that in the planning and preparation stage, the institutional mission and vision has to be regarded with respect and obedience. Of course, the location is also important in the planning phase since it tells the participants what they should do and how they prepare for the writing tasks. Another concepts impressively stated by the author are discipline-based writing and interdisciplinary instruction both are outlined from the curriculum of the school.

Other plausible studies were tackled in this article to further support and explain the approach. Teng and Zhang (2019) investigated writing performance of a group of students using argumentative essays. The two argued and claimed that argumentative writing is known as the most notable and essential standardized assessment for second language learners. On the one hand, cognitive and metacognitive strategies are functional and important in building and developing the motivational regulation strategies of language learners as revealed by studies of Teng and Zhang (2018) and Teng, Sun, and Xu (2018).

According to the book, a tool effective in facilitating conversation is “asking questions” where the teacher could creatively and critically collect ideas from the members of the class. In this way, learners can share their thoughts and experiences regarding the community they have grown up with. Furthermore, it is amazing that the book provided example tools and strategies which the teacher can use in order to facilitate the instruction clearly and effectively.

On the other hand, song lyrics can be used as framework to embrace racial literacy as stressed by Grayson (2017) in her book. She explained how songs and lyrics are powerful tool to motivate students in expressing their thoughts and feelings bringing them closer to the goals of racial literacy.

Conclusion

Teaching writing skills is not a piece of cake. Learners always come to school with varied interests and reasons but it may not indicate they are all inclined into writing. To make learners proficient in writing is indeed a challenging task on the part of the teacher. A racial literacy is one of the effective and appropriate approaches that can be infused by the teacher to make classroom experience holistic and engaging. This article depicts issues about the use of the approach in an EFL and ESL classroom. Furthermore, some steps to racial literacy were examined by the researcher to ensure their effectiveness and relevance in teaching composition writing. The researcher realized that writing instruction can be exciting and informative if other approaches will be tested and applied in the classroom. From his personal observations and experiences, he realized that learners do not anymore stick to traditional walls but prefer something functional and authentic.

From the concepts and insights shared by the book, a great number of students and teachers can enjoy engaging in writing activities because they feel they are equipped. It is no doubt that the book authored by Grayson (2018) is highly recommended. Not only it does guide language teachers to teach racism in the writing class but it also orient teachers on how they could enhance themselves as better writing teachers who are at the same time, socially and culturally aware.

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