

# **The Asian EFL Journal**

**June 2020**

**Volume 27, Issue 3.1**



**Senior Editor:  
Paul Robertson**



Published by the English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal  
A Division of TESOL Asia Group  
Part of SITE Ltd Australia

<http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>

©Asian EFL Journal 2020

This book is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception no reproduction of any part may take place without the written permission of the Asian EFL Journal Press.

**No unauthorized photocopying**

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the Asian EFL Journal.

[editor@asian-efl-journal.com](mailto:editor@asian-efl-journal.com)

Publisher: English Language Education (ELE) Publishing

Chief Editor: Dr. Paul Robertson

Associate Production Editor: Ramon Medriano Jr.

Assistant Copy Editor: Eva Guzman

ISSN 1738-1460



## Table of Contents

<b>Astrit Maria</b> .....	5
<i>Innovative Drilling Techniques for Language Teachers Practicing TEYL</i>	
<b>Nurdevi Bte Abdul, Murni Mahmud, Basri Wello and Syarifuddin Dollah</b> .....	17
<i>Instructional Communication: Form and Factors Affecting Students Participation at Higher Education Class</i>	
<b>Junette B. Buslon, Ericson O. Alieto , Vilma L. Pahulaya and Aubrey F. Reyes</b> .....	41
<i>Gender Divide in Attitude towards Chavacano and Cognition towards Mother Tongue among Prospective Language Teachers</i>	
<b>Presley V. de Vera</b> .....	65
<i>Gender Mainstreaming the Organizational Communication Policies and Practices of Local Government Units in Pangasinan</i>	
<b>Reza Raissi, Maryam Beiki and Neda Gharagozloo</b> .....	76
<i>The Effect of Collaborative versus Cooperative Pre-writing Task on Writing Ability of Iranian EFL Learners</i>	
<b>Muhammad Anwar, Yusri and Hasmawati</b> .....	106
<i>Improving Student's Speaking Performance and Self-Confidence Using Mind Mapping Model in Foreign Language Learning</i>	
<b>Fitriah Fahrudinigrum</b> .....	119
<i>Mixing Use of Sasak and English Languages among the Mandalika Community in Kuta Beach (Central Lombok, Indonesia)</i>	
<b>Joel M. Torres, Leila M. Collantes, Emily T. Astrero, Arceli R. Millan and Carlo M. Gabriel</b> .....	138
<i>Pandemic Humor: Inventory of the Humor Scripts Produced during the COVID-19 Outbreak</i>	
<b>Chaidir Malik, Murni Mahmud, Anshari Anshari and Kisman Salija</b> .....	165
<i>EFL Teachers' Strategies in Teaching English at Kampung Inggris Pare, Kediri, Indonesia</i>	
<b>Maryam Beiki, Neda Gharagozloo and Reza Raissi</b> .....	193
<i>Iranian EFL Learners' Perceptions towards the Cooperative Learning (CL) Implementation in Islamic Azad University</i>	
<b>Rowena P. Balinon and Boyet L. Batang</b> .....	221
<i>Effects of Teaching Strategies on Reading Comprehension Development</i>	
<b>Murni Mahmud</b> .....	253
<i>Managing Respect among English Students in Social Media Conversations (Whatsapp Chats) through Polite Expressions</i>	
<b>Abbas H. Al-Shammari</b> .....	277
<i>A Vision of the Second Language Teaching and Neurolinguistics</i>	

<b>Adel Refaat Mahfouz</b> .....	302
<i>False Friends in Egyptian and Saudi Dialects: A Socio-Semantic Study</i>	
<b>Sami Hussein Hakeem Barzani</b> .....	325
<i>The Perceptions of EFL Teachers and Students on the use of Short Stories to Enhance Reading Comprehension</i>	
<b>Malak Ibraheem Almansour and Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal</b> .....	342
<i>Enhancing the Speaking Proficiency of Undergraduate ESP Students through the Use of Blended Learning Approach</i>	
<b>Raja Muhammad Ishtiaq Khan, Noor Raha Mohd Radzuan, Muhammad Shahbaz and Tribhuwan Kumar</b> .....	356
<i>An Investigation of the Reliability Analysis of Speaking Test</i>	
<b>Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal and Nadia Muhammad Awdh Hussein</b> .....	374
<i>WhatsApp as a writing tool in EFL Classroom: A study across two universities in Saudi Arabia</i>	
<b>Seham Elashhab</b> .....	393
<i>The Impact of Translanguaging on the EFL Competence Development of Arabic Speaking Learners</i>	
<b>Reham Ibrahim Alkhudiry</b> .....	414
<i>Teaching English Using One-Way and Two-way Communication: A Case Study in an EFL Context</i>	



## **Innovative Drilling Techniques for Language Teachers Practicing TEYL**

**Astrit Maria**

*English Graduate Program of Mataram University*

*Majapahit No.62, Gomong, Selaparang, Mataram, West Nusa Tenggara*

*83115, Indonesia*

### **Bio-Profile:**

**Astrit Maria** is a graduate student of English education in Mataram University. She earned her bachelor degree of English education in the State University of Surabaya. Her research focus is on innovative teaching, TEYL, and teaching students with special needs. She can be contacted by email at [astritmaria@outlook.com](mailto:astritmaria@outlook.com).

### **Abstract**

Drilling has been existing for decades ago. However, its implementation is mostly underrated. Given the fact that teachers back then implemented drilling as the only technique employed monotonously, it created boredom, focus loss, and interest loss of the students toward English subject. Specifically for TEYL, drilling was considered horrible because it was done forcefully and with no fun. In contrast, drilling can actually be a very effective technique if implemented innovatively and communicatively. As it is combined with more various media, drilling manages to be fun and addictive. This paper, therefore, performed to discover the innovative drilling techniques that are suitable for contemporary TEYL. To do so, participant observation and audio recording were conducted in one of private schools in Surabaya for EFL classes containing pupils aged five to twelve. This paper managed to result that there were currently seven different drillings that expert teachers in TEYL mostly implement. These varieties of innovative drillings go in line with the notion of providing options for teachers practicing TEYL across the world. Thus, the findings explained in this paper will be beneficial for global readers in need.

**Keywords:** *TEYL, drilling, foreign language teaching, innovative techniques*

## **Introduction**

Drilling has been a popular technique since over fifty years ago. Principally, drilling is an explicit attempt to make language proficiency stronger by repeating language models provided by the teacher and commonly focuses on pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or any aspect related to target language that needs to strengthen (Joyce, 2009; Setiyadi, 2006; Richards et al, 1986). As it is originally the part of Audio Lingual Method (ALM), this technique used to be well-known for improving accuracy rather than fluency. ALM mainly emphasizes the need to speak grammatically correct that teacher always concerns on learners' exact imitation upon grammatically correct language model instead of learners' comprehension upon context and communicative talk. This practice caused controlled and unnatural response in communication. As a consequence, learners were unable to provide spontaneous response in conversation. Moreover, when students received unexpected question that has never been exposed previously, they would have no idea about what to say in return. Given the fact that students could only reply to questions using answers that have been exposed in class, the implementation of drilling started to diminish. Equally important, back then, when teacher implemented ALM, monotonous drilling-controlled repetition- was applied as the only technique during the whole lesson. As a result, such monotonous drilling led learners to boredom as it was not very attractive to them. By so doing, creating effective language learning process is impossible.

Despite the issues mentioned above, many agree that the practice of drilling gives rise to the fluency improvement if applied communicatively and dynamically by involving other lively techniques and approaches (Rathakrishman et al, 2018; Yusri, et al, 2017; Fransiska and Jurianto, 2016) such as, drilling with pictures, video, hands-on activities, and many more. Hence, drilling technique facilitates enjoyable learning for the students. Additionally, the implementation of drilling should not only require students' exact repetition during learning process, but also their active involvement of cognitive process as well as physical movement. This aims to trigger their thorough comprehension and the implementation of what they have understood. Specifically when teaching young learners, the implementation of innovative drilling is a must to create lively and attractive language program. As do very little examine this topic, the need for reliable reference dealing with innovative drilling techniques for teaching young learners remains high. Especially for EFL teachers, the use of various and up-to-date drilling techniques is essential that can facilitate fun learning.

Regarding this, this article is eager to elaborate some innovative drilling techniques that are commonly implemented by several experienced teachers in the practice of contemporary TEYL in the attempt to build up pupils' language proficiency.

### **Teaching English for young learners (TEYL)**

Many claim that young learners are categorized from age eight to fourteen, five to thirteen, five to eleven, three to twelve, and many more (Pinter, 2011; Cameron, 2001). However in this study, children aged five to twelve years old are considered the proper age for Indonesian context because the current age range is the age from kindergarten to primary school level.

It has been generally known that young learners hold the best category of period for learning. A number of advantages of young learners learning language since the early age have been commonly elaborated in many literatures. Enever and Moon (2009), Johnstone (2009), Paradis (2004), and Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) explained that young learners have at least three most important advantages that help them acquire the target language better. First, young-aged children are the best imitators who can reproduce language and sounds exactly like the input they receive. They may not understand the concept of the language, yet their ability to imitate the language model and sound is invincible (Saville-Troike, 2006). Second, affective filter in young children is less than in adult learners. The smaller degree of anxiety surely fosters children's enthusiasm to acquire better when learning a language. Third, as learners start at early age and continue receiving exposure for a longer period of time-compared to those who start learning at teenage age or adult, greater proficiency will improve by the time as the result of stronger and longer learning process (Choi and Mantik, 2017).

In spite of its strong advantages that contribute to producing greater results, there have been a number of disadvantages as well that should be put into consideration so that they do not hinder the expected results to happen. Spalding (2013) preferred teaching adult class rather than pupils. The biggest rationale for this is that adult students attend class with conscious willingness. They come for particular purpose and this internal motivation does impact on their involvement, progress, and achievement. Compared to children, most of them do not hold any internal motivation when attending language class. Second, discipline problems in the class of younger-aged students are real. This is because they are not fully aware of how to behave in certain setting. Third, very little number of young children perform responsibility. In addition, adult students "bring more life experience that ultimately give more to each other" as well as to the teacher (p.15). Compared to younger aged learners, the greater experience and knowledge of adult learners' do contribute to the more innovative class activities. Meanwhile,

young pupils cannot be expected to share and include their broad horizon into the class activity. Even when they do have excellent knowledge, it is very difficult to make use of it in the context of language program for children.

Ihejirika (2013) agreed that teaching young learners is challenging. While adult learners can focus on the lesson being discussed, children's attention span is very short that requires five-minute gainful activities. In an hour language class, teacher should creatively provide at least eight different innovative techniques. Therefore, these shortcomings should be handled properly so that these do not hinder the success of teaching foreign language (FL) to young learners. By the use of fruitful, easy, hands-on, and fun techniques, young students can keep themselves excited and actively involved during the lesson.

### **Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) and the importance of drilling**

There have been many methods created to fulfill the needs of various settings' and contexts' in FL teaching. Minati (2013:81) mentioned that "*Grammar Translation Method (GTM), Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), Oral and Situational Method, Silent Way, Total Physical Response (TPR) and Suggestopedia*" are the commonly used method in FL teaching. The emergence of those methods aims to support specific needs of the learners'. As the time goes by, more methods are established. One of which is PPP, a method aiming for grammar teaching in FL context that includes two-way learning, fully practical involvement, intensive practice, communicative performance, and other creative innovations (Harmer, 2009; Richards and Renandya, 2002; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). PPP stands for Presentation Practice Production. The main principles of this method are two. First is that every lesson should be taught through context that students can use it communicatively in the proper context. Second, lesson begins with teacher's full control at the first stage and ends with learners' creativity in developing topic into effective communication at the last stage. As its name suggests, this method includes three stages.

Presentation stage aims to introduce what lesson to learn in that meeting. Teacher has to set up a context that leads to the discussion of what particular language use to apply when dealing with this specific situation. This is called context setting. Setting up a context can be done in a number of ways such as, listening, video, past experience, picture describing, and many more. After that, the presentation section of intended lesson should be done. In this section, teacher must exemplify the correct language use. If necessary, teacher can explain the grammar of the language. In practicing TEYL, this explanation section can be skipped.

Practice stage involves <sup>1</sup>drilling- strengthens students' comprehension through rapid and concise practice- and intense <sup>2</sup>controlled practice (CP) that the language structure employed in the practice is what teacher expects students to produce. Drilling can be in the form of imitation, substitution, question and answer, transformation, and chorus drills (Mauliyana, 2016). While drilling is mostly in the form of oral practice with rapid pace, CP should consist of both written and spoken practice to promote correct spelling as well as more fluent oral production in a slower pace. Its time allocation also performs longer than drilling. In spite of drilling's short allocation, its presence becomes a compelling part giving massive influence towards students' greater fluency as it embraces information processing activity in a quick pace. The habitual practice of responding to a spoken interaction quickly must benefit language learners to speak fluently as in natural interaction settings. In this practice stage, errors and corrections are very normal to happen (Gass and Selinker, 2008). Corrections should be made between one practice and the next one to evaluate previous practice and apply corrections in the next practice.

Last but not least, production stage provides a final phase where learners have understood and undergone several practices fostering their language competence. Therefore, this stage allows teacher to provide one topic for the students to develop into dialogues, role plays, and many others based on their own imagination and interest. As learners have undergone a series of practices, errors and mistakes are surely lower in this final stage. Thus, corrections are hardly necessary.

### **Drilling techniques for young learners (YL)**

Many have developed drilling techniques to meet the needs of modern ELT for FL contexts, including TEYL. Especially for young pupils, techniques in drilling must facilitate the needs of children's as well as learning style. As mentioned beforehand that children do not always attend class wholeheartedly, give more discipline problems, have less prior knowledge, and very short attention span, these weaknesses must be strongly considered that language learning can be an effective process. Here are some considerations of how drilling for YL should be.

Firstly, not few pupils attend classes because their parents ask them to. Many of them are not interested in the subject of FL. With this in mind, drilling has to be an activity that makes them curious, eager to try, and feel fun during the lesson (Saville-Troike, 2006; Gass and Selinker, 2008). To illustrate, teacher must provide various attractive topics allowing them to explore further from what they currently know. Secondly, discipline problem is very common in YL classroom. This is because they still find it difficult to behave in various contexts. Their

parents provide different ways of disciplining the children and the code of behavior that is made to form appropriate habit varies among all students (De Graaff and Housen, 2009). Hence, teacher cannot make judgment that other pupils are more troublesome than the others. Instead, teacher must adjust the drilling to the classroom setting and needs. Thirdly, young pupils' prior knowledge is not as broad as adults'. Thus, drilling used in class must match pupils' level of understanding and imagination. As the illustration, it is possible indeed to hear them respond questions by including dragons, mermaids, and other imaginary characters during the lesson. Unlike adults, pupils' level of understanding upon fact is lower while their imagination is far broader. Fourthly, their short attention span allows them to receive and practice less than ten new vocabularies in one activity. Besides, activities lasting for more than five minutes surely causes boredom, discipline problem due to focus loss, as well as drop of mood.

## **Methods**

Qualitative approach was applied to figure out the innovative drilling techniques that experienced teacher commonly applied in practicing contemporary TEYL. The use of qualitative approach worked best for this study as qualitative contributes to explore certain concern related to complexity of individual's use of preferred drilling techniques through words (Creswell, 2012).

This study collected data using two data elicitation methods, which were participant observation as well as audio recording. Participant observation aimed to truly experience the real setting of the condition being observed (Creswell, 2012). By so doing, the observer was able to record any authentic data occurred during the observations as she was the member of the society. The setting of observations was in private school, called The British Language School, located in Surabaya, East Java. The classes were for kindergarten level-five to six-and primary level-seven to twelve years old.

The recording session was done for three different FL classes for young learners aged five to twelve years old. These participants were engaged in accordance with the principles of purposive sampling which covered reachability aspect towards the participants.

After conducting observation, data was sorted to the appropriate categorization. Then, a list of drilling techniques was figured out. After that, the description of each technique was made. Detailed description through words in this step was composed to elaborate innovative drillings implemented by expert teachers practicing TEYL.

## Findings and Discussion

Finally, we have come to findings after collecting data through participant observation as well as recording. It was found seven innovative drills that are suitable for contemporary TEYL.

Firstly, we have *take a train and stop!* In this drilling, teacher has to arrange flash cards in circle and pupils need to stand in line following the circle outside the flash cards (FC). Next, the pupils and the teacher go around the outer circle while singing. Teacher will decide when to stop and let each pupil stand right in front of one flash card. After that, depending on the students' level of ability, the question can be from the teacher or from the peers. As the instance, they talk about things in the house. The FCs will be about toilet, closet, sink, shower, sofa, bed, and so on. The question will be based on the picture laying in front of the each pupil such as, "where is the sink?" and the pupil with the corresponding picture should answer "the sink is in the toilet." The next question should talk about another item that enables all the pupils to answer quickly.

Secondly, we can play *what's missing?* Teacher will always need FCs given the fact that no abstract concept is easily understood by young children. Teacher should put the cards on the floor in an arranged display like 3x3, 2x2, or 4x4 depending on how students are comfortable with. The number of flash cards displayed can vary whether it is 6, 8, or 10 cards in one game. Again, the arrangement should adjust how the pupils can cope with. If 10 cards are okay, then it is no big deal. Teacher and students should say the all of the cards two or three times, for example, "toilet, sink, shower, sofa, fridge, mirror, and ...." They also have to name the cards quickly. After repeating the step, pupils close their eyes and teacher hides one card away. Then, teacher ask them to open their eyes and ask "what's missing? What's not here?" Based on the observation, many students could answer what cards were missing from the display for several rounds.

Thirdly, *spin and say* can be implemented to effectively drill pupils' oral fluency and accuracy. There will be a pile of cards collected in the middle of the class while teacher and students are sitting down circling the FC. There will be a pen or marker needed to spin. Pupils can take turn spinning the pen and when the tip of the pen points at one person, that person should take one card in the middle. With the card from the middle, pupil needs to say a sentence based on the picture he gets. To illustrate, the FC reads a picture of shower. So, the pupil will quickly say "the shower is in the bathroom". To make it more communicatively, the peers can be asked to ask "where is it?" then the corresponding pupil responds with the appropriate answer. The pupil who just got a turn can do the spinning.

Fourthly, playing *tic tac toe* is very entertaining to pupils because they have to compete to win the game. This is like the common tic tac toe, but the grids must contain the target language that teacher want pupils to focus on. The following figure will show how it looks like.

Figure 1. Tic tac toe grids

Shower	Sofa	Bed
TV	Toilet	Sink
Mirror	Fridge	Stove

Pupils need to make appropriate sentences by the word prompt in each grid. Once they succeed, they can mark the grid with their preferred mark either X or O.

Fifthly, the next drill is *hula-hula strip*. There will be word form and picture form of various vocabularies. This drill is surely meant for those who are able to read or learning to read. Some five-year-old children can read words. The word form is torn to half separated from each other just like hula-hula skirt in Hawaii. In one right edge, each word is separated from the other. In the other edge, they are all together as one paper. The picture form should be displayed on the board. Pupils will line up to tear one piece of word. They have to read the word and stick it under the correct picture on the board. Then, they have to say the word and point at the correct picture. Pupil can be asked to name three pictures, one picture that they finished and two others that their peers have done before him. For those who are still learning to read, they can be asked to read the word form before sticking to the picture.

Sixthly, *gap fill vocabulary* sounds so challenging and makes pupils curious. This drill also practices both written and spoken skills. There will be pictures displayed on the board and words under the pictures. However, the words have to be like “w \_ n \_ \_” that pupils can fill the blank spaces with the correct letters.

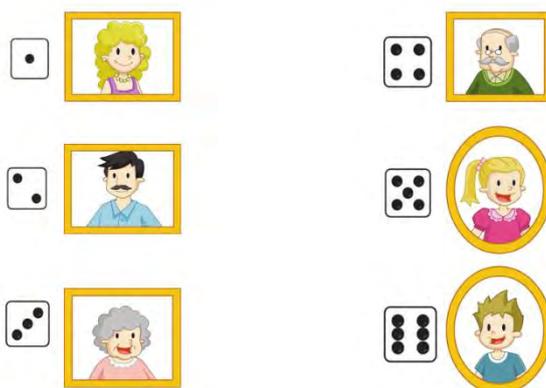
Figure 2. Gap-filling flashcard



With this picture (Figure 2), the exercise should be “w \_ n \_ \_” to form “windy”. Pupils can be asked to make sentence after filling the blanks if considered capable. For instance, “it is windy today. I need to bring jacket.”

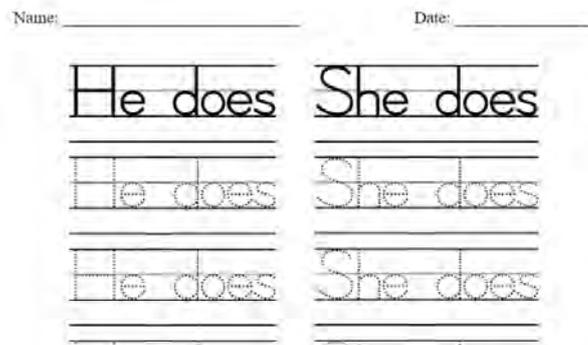
Seventhly, we can do *roll and trace*. Just like the two previous drillings, this practices both written and oral fluency. There will be pictures on the board such as, about family. The pictures will consist of mom, dad, grandma, grandpa, brother, sister, and so on. For beginner level, core family will do. Moreover, this game uses dice to roll so the pictures should be six. Each picture must have number from 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. Teacher should previously prepare a piece of worksheet for each pupil containing “yes, she does” and “yes, he does” that students will trace based on the dice number. The aim of this drilling is to get them used to the difference between “she” and “he”. Figure 3 shows how the display pictures should be.

Figure 3. Roll and trace display picture.



So, after the dice is rolled and shows particular number, for example 3. Teacher should ask, “Who is that?” The correct answer is “she” so pupils respond, “She is my grandma.” After that, teacher can further ask “does she like ice cream?” and pupils are expected to say “yes, she does”. Then, pupils are asked to trace the worksheet handed previously. Thus, the amount of the sentence being traced depends on the number shown on the dice.

Figure 4. Roll and trace worksheet.



## Conclusions

All in all, the innovative drilling techniques presented above are suitable for contemporary TEYL because they all involve communicative approach as well as proper strategies regarding the weaknesses of teaching young learners mentioned beforehand. If the weaknesses are not handled through employing suitable and effective techniques, the teacher sets herself for a failure. This sends a message that more successful language learning will come true if teachers are able to apply and develop more innovative techniques. Hence, drillings and other techniques used in class must be up-to-date and various. Additionally, the seven varieties of innovative drillings can be the references for teachers across the world that find creating a lively class through drillings difficult.

## References

- Cameron, Lynne. (2001). *Teaching Languages to Young Learners*. Cambridge University Press.
- Choi, H. J., & Mantik, O. (2017). The Relationships between English Language Acquisition of Young Children in a Korean Private Kindergarten and Their Gender, Teacher–Student Relationship, Temperament, and Intrinsic Motivation. *The Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles*, (100), 4-26.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th Ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.

- De Graaff, R. & Housen, A. (2009). Investigating the effects and effectiveness of L2 instruction. In M. Long & C. Doughty (Eds.), *The Handbook of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Blackwell (pp. 726-755).
- Enever, J., & Moon, J. (2009). *New global contexts for teaching primary ELT: Change and challenge*. In J. Enever, J. Moon, & U. Raman (Eds.), *Young learner English language policy and implementation: International perspectives* (pp. 5–21). Reading, UK: Garnet Education.
- Gass, S. M., and Selinker, L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition – An Introductory Course*. New York: Routledge.
- Harmer, J. (2009). *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Harlow: Longman. pp. 64 et seq.
- Ihejirika, J. C. (2013). Teaching Strategies for Adult Learners: Implications of Learning Characteristics for Effective Teaching-Learning Transaction. *Academic Research International*, 4(2), 310 – 315.
- Johnstone, R. (2009). An early start: What are the key conditions for generalized success? In J. Enever, J. Moon, & U. Raman (Eds.), *Young learner English language policy and implementation: International perspectives* (pp. 31–42). Reading, UK: Garnet Education.
- Joyce, Bruce. (2009). *Models of Teaching: Advance Organizer*. New Jersey: Pearson education Inc.
- Kamarudin Hj. Husin. (1994). *Asas Pendidikan I: (Dinamika Sekolah dan Bilik Darjah)*, Petaling Jaya: Longman Malaysia.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., and Long, M. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. London: Longman.
- Mauliyana, I. (2016). *The Implementation of Drill Technique in Teaching Speaking at SMA YP Unila Bandar Lampung*. Undergraduate Thesis, University of Lampung, Lampung.
- Minati, M. (2013). *Students with special educational needs and foreign language instruction*. Published Thesis, Università degli Studi, Padova.
- Pinter, Annamaria. (2011). *Children Learning Second Languages*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Rathakrishnan, M., Raman, A., & Haniffa, M. A. (2018). The Drill and Practice Application in Teaching Science for Lower Secondary Students. *International Journal of Education, Psychology and Counselling*, 3(7), 100-108.
- Richards, J. C., and Theodore S.R. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*. United States of Underhill, N.1987. Testing Spoken

- Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press America: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Saville-Troike, Muriel. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Setiyadi, A.B. (2006). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu.
- Spalding, D. (2013). *How to Teach Adults*. ISBN 978-0-9887204-1-1.
- Yusri, Romadloni, A., & Mantasiah R. (2017). Intercultural approach in foreign language learning to improve students' motivation. *The Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles*, (98), 61-73.



## **Instructional Communication: Form and Factors Affecting Students Participation at Higher Education Class**

**Nurdevi Bte Abdul**

*[nurdevi@unismuh.ac.id](mailto:nurdevi@unismuh.ac.id)*

**Murni Mahmud**

*[murnimahmud@unm.ac.id](mailto:murnimahmud@unm.ac.id)*

**Basri Wello**

*[mbasriwello6@gmail.com](mailto:mbasriwello6@gmail.com)*

**Syarifuddin Dollah**

*[syarifuddindollah@unm.ac.id](mailto:syarifuddindollah@unm.ac.id)*

*Universitas Negeri Makassar*

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Nurdevi Bte Abdul** is an English lecturer at Muhammadiyah University of Makassar (UNISMUH), one of the private universities in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. She is currently doing her Doctoral program at English Education Department, Post-Graduate Program of Universitas Negeri Makassar. Her research interest is mainly on TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign language).

**Murni Mahmud** is a lecturer of Anthropolinguistics and Discourse Analysis at English Literature Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Her research interests are in Anthropolinguistics, Discourse Analysis, Gender Studies, and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language).

**Basri Wello** is a senior lecturer at English Education Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. His research interests are in Business English and Communication and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language).

**Syarifuddin Dollah** is a lecturer at English Education Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. His research interests are in English for Academic Purposes and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language).

### **Abstract**

This study is concerned with instructional communication in teaching English as foreign language in Indonesian higher education class. It focused on elaborating lecturers' perceptions on students' participation in the class. This research used qualitative research method with descriptive design. It was conducted at the campus of state and private universities in South Sulawesi. Six lecturers from two different universities were explored to find out their perception toward the use of instructional communication in teaching English as foreign language. Data were collected during academic semester through observation and in-depth interview. The findings of students' participation were elaborated into form of students' participation and factors affecting students' participation in English language teaching. The form of students' participation consisted of preparation, contribution to discussion, group skill, communication skill, and attendance. The students' participation was affected some factors such as lecturers' instructional strategies, personal characteristics, multicultural students, and scoring motivation. These results asserted that EFL lecturers aware of their role to engage the students participation actively in the classroom.

**Keywords:** *Instructional, communication, participation, English foreign language teaching*

### **Introduction**

Communication has many forms and functions. The communication used by the teacher and lecturer in the class is called instructional communication. Instructional communication is advanced study. It involves a model of instruction and outcomes of each phase, students' needs, ways of meeting students' needs, students' test anxiety, students' classroom anxiety, student's learning styles, classroom management, instructional strategies, students' misbehaviour, teacher misbehaviour, student self-concept, instructional learning systems, and teacher burnout (Richmond, McCroskey, & McCroskey, 2009).

This study is based on a series of studies dealing with instructional communication. There are several recent researches that provide insight into the instructional communication discipline. Preiss and Wheelless (2014) and Richmond and Frymier (2010) review the development of the instructional communication discipline. They pay attention to the Source-

Channel-Message-Receiver model of communication that influenced much of the instructional communication research. Mottet and Beebe (2009) introduce rhetorical and relational perspectives to the study of instructional communication and review the methods instructional communication researchers employ. Their study focuses on teacher communication behaviour. Nussbaum and Friedrich (2005) explain the study of instructional communication differs from the study of developmental communication. Waldeck, Kearney, and Plax (2001) offer a content analysis of the research conducted by instructional communication researchers. They identify eleven theories associated with instructional and developmental communication research, and six categories of instructional communication (student communication, teacher communication, mass-media effects on children, pedagogical methods/technology use, classroom management, and teacher-student interactions).

In line with those studies, instructional communication study should be continued and developed by the scholars. It is because, the successful of language learning depends on many aspects; one of them is communication. Mahmud (2017) states communication has a crucial function in English language teaching because failure in communication will result in unsuccessful process. As the communicator in the class, the lecturer has the responsibilities to teach, guide, motivate, facilitate and mould learners to become useful and competent persons. In addition, Learners, on the other hand should absorb, seek and apply skill and knowledge shared in the classroom or other learning activities.

From the first investigation, many complaints on students' participation in the classroom. In one hand, some of them pay attention to the lecturer by taking note, giving opinion, asking question, responding question, and completing the task given effectively. In short, the students actively participate in the classroom activities. On the other hand, the students are silent, noisy, cheating, chatting, whispering, playing with their smart phone, coming late, sleepy, and participating passively in the class. Similarly, Kaplan, Gheen, & Midgley (2002) found students were as teasing, talking out of turn, getting out of one's seat, disrespecting others—and more seriously but less frequently—violence and vandalism, has been acknowledged recently as a growing problem in schools—indeed as one of the most serious concerns of teachers and parents (Bean, 1998; Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1996). In line with this finding, Abdullah, Bakar, and Mahbob (2011) students still do not actively participate and become passive in the classroom despite encouragements and use of various teaching methods by the lectures to stimulate active participation from the students. From these facts, it can be stated that there are two types of students in the class namely active and passive students. This categorization is made on the basis of students' participations toward the activities given

by the lecturer. The lecturers can minimize passive participation and engage active participation by communicating the activities clearly and effectively. Lee (2014) studied about the teachers' perception found that teachers had difficulties in implementing the communicative ways of teaching.

Furthermore, the interview data shows there are some factors influence students' participation in the classroom, such as materials, self-esteem, technology, culture, activities, teaching method and strategy. The result of observation checklist shows that the lecturer applied various strategies to keep students participating actively in classroom, such as the teacher is not only as speaker but also as moderator and facilitator. Other studies concerning with strategies used in the classroom are Mahmud (2017) who applied classroom presentation as a teaching strategy to build good interaction between teachers and students and among students in the class, and Daddi (2016) who utilized strategies of checking attendance, seating arrangement, teaching-learning activity, correction, and assessment in language learning. In addition, Tsoi (2013) offered organizational interaction as strategy to make classroom interaction and classroom talk more authentic. Engaging students' participation could be done by call on students by name, as for elaboration, praise students for their contribution (Nunn, Brandt & Deveci, 2016). Keeping students participate actively in the classroom is depending on the instructional communication strategies used by the lecturers. It indicates lecturers and students have the same expectation in language learning process in terms of strategies used by the lecturers and active participation form the students.

Dealing with those facts above, finding out instructional communication in terms of the form and factors affecting students' participation is imperative because teaching is as a communication process and participation is a form of communication and it serves a purpose. Engaging students to participate in classroom activities is the lecturers' task. By knowing the form and factors affecting students' participation, the lecturers can apply appropriate strategies to gain students' participation in teaching and learning process.

## **Method**

This research used qualitative research method with descriptive design. This research was conducted in natural setting. The researchers collected the data in the field where participants experience the issue or problem under this study. It provided thick description of the research focus. The main purpose of this study is to explore lecturers' perception on students' participation in English language teaching. After exploring the perception, the data

were elaborated and presented in the form of students' participation and factors that affect students' participation EFLT classroom.

### ***Participants***

This study was conducted at the campus of state and private universities in South Sulawesi. There were two campuses involved in this research, namely State University of Makassar and Muhammadiyah University of Makassar. These universities used similar curriculum. However, materials, teaching strategies and methods might be different for the reason that they employ different lecturers from various backgrounds. The participants consisted of six non-native English lecturers. They were selected based on gender, age, and teaching experience.

### ***Procedures of Collecting Data***

In collecting data, the researchers conducted observation and interview. The researchers employed nonparticipant observation or external observation in which they did not involve in the situation being observed. All classroom activities during the class were noted. After conducting observation for five meetings, the researchers interviewed all lecturers to gain data about instructional communication strategies applied by lecturers to engage students' participations. Type of the interview was semi-structured interview in which some questions were prepared before interviewing and some additional questions were asked on the spot. The interview sessions were organized during class time and office hour time and all of the responses were recorded by using *handy camera*.

### ***Data Analysis***

To analyze the data, the researchers applied the six steps of Creswell (2014). The data were analyzed in a linear hierarchical approach building from the bottom to the top. The raw data were organized and prepared for analysis. This involves transcribing interviews typing up field notes, sorting and arranging the data into different types depending on the sources of information. The researchers provided a general sense of the information and an opportunity to reflect on its overall meaning. The researcher wrote notes in margins of transcripts or observational field notes, or start recording general thoughts about the data at this stage. Start coding all of the data. The researchers organized the data by bracketing chunks and writing a word representing a category in the margins. It involved taking text data or pictures gathered during data collection, segmenting sentences (or paragraphs) or images into categories, and

labelling those categories with a term, often a term based in the actual language of the participant. Use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis. *Description* involved a detailed rendering of information about people, places, or events in a setting. Researchers generated codes for this description. Then, the researchers used the coding as well for generating a small number of *themes*. Advance how the description and themes will be *represented* in the qualitative narrative. The researcher used a narrative passage to convey the findings of the analysis. This might be a discussion that mentions a chronology of events, the detailed discussion of several themes (complete with subthemes, specific illustrations, multiple perspectives from individuals, and quotations) or a discussion with interconnecting themes. In making an interpretation of the findings, the researchers related and compare the findings with information gleaned from the literature or theories, form interpretations that call for action agendas for reform and change. The researchers also discussed the literature at the end of the study. In interpretation, it also involves Discourse Analysis approach collaboratively to present the data in extract form.

## **Results**

This particular result asserted that EFL lecturers were aware of thier role to engage the student participate actively in the classroom. When looking thoroughly at the data for this research objective, it is found that the lecturers gave similarity perception toward students' participation in the classroom. Form the findings, it indicated that students' participation can be seen from two aspects namely form of students participation and factors affecting students' participation.

### ***Form of Students Participation***

The result of students participation form was collected by using observation and interview. Then, the data was analyzed in accordance with the theory of Dancer and Kamvounias (2005) and Bartley, Dimenäs and Hallnäs (2010). Dancer and Kamvounias (2005) consider student participation is an active engagement process which can be sorted into five categories: preparation, contribution to discussion, group skills, communication skills, and attendance. Bartley, Dimenäs and Hallnäs (2010) believe that the key words for student participation are negotiation, dialogue, cooperation and personal responsibility. From the data, students participation are categorized in the following form:

## ***Preparation***

### Extract 1

*“...so the studnets need more times to read and need to add their prior knowledge in case of they can understand about...”*

In extract 1, the lecturer gave time to the students before asking them to present their topic in front the class. From lecturer’s consideration, the course subject is quite difficult for the students and they have no prior knowldge about it. It is expected that by giving time to the students, they can understand the materials and explore issues in depth from a variety of viewpoints. Therefore, the sudents can discuss with their freinds and find some related sources from book or internet.

### Extract 2

*“..everything needs preparation, so I gave them time because I want them to prepare theirsself, it’s really impossible to give the students task or presentation without prepartion.”*

In extract 2, the lecturer emphasised that giving time to the students is important. Usually, the lecturers explain the material first, then give some minutes to think before asking the students to present thier idea. Sometimes, the lecturer also give one week to the students to make preparation, therefore the students can show well presentation or answer the tasks correctly. It is because, the students are still lack of knowledge of the topic. By giving time, the students can explore the references of the topic given.

### Extract 3

*“..there is no chance to open a book in grave. Preparation can influence students’ ability...”*

In extract 3, it indicates that for the students needs time to give comprehensive answer from the instructions given by the lecturers. The students cannot present the task directly. It is because they lack of vocabulary, less confidance, and they have no idea of the topic. Giving time means the students have chance to prepare well their prsentation, either individual or group in the classroom. It is shown by bringing thier concept that have been written in a paper.

### Extract 4

*”...by students preparation lecturer can find out how well the students learn the materials and their autonomous learning is.”*

In extract 4, the lecturer explained preparation based on contexts called in the context of deciding the students' need, evaluating and learning process. In the context of deciding the students need, lecturer does not need to lead them to preparation, so lecturer can identify what the students need in learning naturally. In the context of evaluation the students need preparation because their preparation can influence their ability to answer questions or to achieve good result in their evaluation, besides by students preparation lecturer can find out how well the students learn the materials and their autonomous learning is.

Extract 5

*"...before the students take participation in the classroom, I give them time to prepare what they're going to present in the class, I give them twenty minutes or twenty five minutes to prepare..."*

In extract 5, the lecturer states it is important to give time to the students before they take participation in the classroom. It is because the students need time to develop their ideas and the lecturer have to encourage them to understand about the topic or the materials. They students also need to discuss with their group or pair. Sometimes, the lecturer gives one week to work the task at their home for preparing their group presentation.

### ***Contribution to Discussion***

Extract 6

*"...to explain or discuss something in quite complicated for them because the materials for them is new..."*

In extract 6, the lecturer perceived that discussion can be used in EFLT class for discussing difficult or complicated materials. The lecturer believed that the students will be easier to understand the subjects because the students can discuss the special terms that related to the group topic. In EFLT class, for certain subjects, the students are divided into some groups and they get different topic to discuss, and then each group presented in front of the class. The lecturer considered only the difficult subjects need group discussion. During the discussion, the students who are as audience give some related questions to the group presenters.

Extract 7

*"...another thing that I emphasized even the students work in pair or in group when they present the assignment I told them that I always evaluate their participation individually..."*

In extract 7, the lecturer emphasized that the students' participation in group discussion is evaluated individually. The score given based on their contribution of group presentation in terms of presenting the topics and answering the questions from the floor. The lecturer expected the discussion is not handled or dominated by one student. Even the students work in group, their score is individually. By knowing the rule, the students are active to give contribution in discussion. The lecturer did not also focus on students' participation in presenting the materials but also consider the students' competence during the class discussion.

#### Extract 8

*"...they show their participations by presenting their paper, answering questions coming from their friends, giving questions to the group presenting paper, and expressing their views on the issue discussed."*

In extract 8, the lecturer encourages students' participation by doing group presentation. The students can give their contribution in discussion by presenting paper based on the issue given, answering the questions that are coming from their friends, giving questions to the presenters, and the students also expressed their views on the issue discussed. Additionally, the lecturer also encourage students' participation by making the discussion enjoyable, as the following statement.

#### Extract 9

*" They participate because I try to make the discussion enjoyable, and each material or issue discussed I try to correlate it to their life experience, and of course I give them opportunity to prepare their selves before the discussion..."*

In extract 9, the lecturer added the students participate because he made the discussion enjoyable, and each material or issue discussed he try to correlate it to students life experience, and gave the students opportunity to prepare themselves before the discussion. The students were asked to read the materials and find out some problems they still do not understand about the materials relating to their experiences in their life. For motivating them in the discussion he gave them scores for those who are active during their presenting their paper, answering questions, giving questions or idea.

## ***Group Skill***

### Extract 10

*“...they as members of group can build good cooperation among them, they can place their roles effectively..”*

In extract 10, the students have good skill to cooperate with group members. Each member has role in thier group as moderator and presenter for diffrent sub topics. The students shared ideas and showed their responsibility in discussion. They took turn in responding the questions from the other groups and giving additional comment.

### Extract 11

*“...you have to make it clear what are the job for each speaker in the group, if those are clear, so the outcome of why do you want to put students in group will also be achieved..”*

In extract 11, the job for the members of the group must be clear. It is important to keep the students work together. By knowing the job, the group task can be completed effectively. It is because each students search the sources individually, later on they bring the sources in group to discuss.

### Extract 12

*“...they can share their ideas to others and respect differences in their group...”*

In extract 12, students skill in group show by sharing thier ideas to the members of the group and all of thier friends in the classroom. They have to respect the differences idea in their group discussion. The lecturer lets all the students to speak and deliver their idea of group topic.

### Extract 13

*“...actually the students skill in group when they’re presenting the discussion, I mean based on the topic given to their group..actually actively participated...”*

In extract 13, the lecturer states that the student group skill is shown in presenting discussion in front of the class. They are actively participated in that discussion. It is because before group presentation, the lecturer pushed the students to study hard about the materials, and devided the students in to some groups. Then, the lecturer also explained the job description for the members of group.

## ***Communication Skill***

### Extract 14

*“...because most of the students here are students actively deliberated to some events some competition so this one indication indicated that their communication skill is quite good...”*

In extract 14 above indicates the students' communication skill is quite good. The lecturer informed that most of the students are actively deliberated in some events and competition. It means that the students have experiences and easier to communicate their ideas in the class. Involving into some events support the students communication skill.

### Extract 15

*“Students are regarded to have good communication skill when they can build good interpersonal communication among their group..”*

In extract 15, the lecturer explained good communication skill refers to interpersonal communication. The students can share their idea to others, respect differences in their group. They should not also interrupt their friends when they are speaking, avoid miscommunication during presenting the material. Even though, they do not agree with others but they can express their disagreement nicely. If they express their thoughts they try to do it with words that are easily understandable or the points of their thoughts are clear. Those kinds of communication skills that required to be implemented in the classroom.

## ***Attendance***

### Extract 16

*“We have to understand that in speaking and I believe also the others topics or course, every topics in every meeting correlate each other...”*

Extract 16 indicates that attendance is also considered as form of students' participation in classroom. It is because lesson topic for each meeting is correlated with the other meetings. The students should attend in the classroom for each meeting. Attendance is also one of the criteria for getting final score. The students are forbidden to take final test if the students' attendance lack of 70%. It is one of the content in lecture contract in the first meeting.

Extract 17

*“How do the students show their participation in the teaching learning if they often miss the class”*

Extract 17 shows that students participation can be seen from their attendance in the classroom. by attending the class the students know the topic discussed, thus they can determine their participation such as giving questions, answering the questions, and help their friends to understand the topic deeply. The students also can give additional information to the lecturer about that topic. It means that, attendance is one of the forms of students' participation in the classroom.

### ***Factors Affecting Students' Participation***

There are some factors that affect students' participation in the classroom. They are as follows:

#### ***Instructional Strategies***

Teaching and learning strategies used in the classroom is called instructional strategies. From the interview data, all of the lecturers perceived strategies used by the lecturers are the main factor that affect the students' participation. Some related extracts of this issues are as follows:

Extract 18

*“...generally they are always enthusiastic, interested, and active, but there are still students passive and usually I know them because they have other problems, so my perception we should always look for strategy that could more improve students' participation.”*

The extract above indicated that the lecturer should find out instructional strategy to improve students' participation in the classroom. Even though, most of the students are active, enthusiastic and interested in the course, but passive students are still found in the classroom. It means that, the lecturer should always update the strategy and look for other strategies that could involved all the students to participate actively.

Extract 19

*“...depend on teaching method in the classroom, if the teacher active, the students also are active..”*

The extract emphasizes that teaching method affects the students' participation in the classroom. To create active or passive students, they depend on teaching method used by the lecturer in the classroom. It can be stated that active students are formed by the active lecturer.

Extract 20

*“ passive or active student is the ending of effort sequences that conducted by the lecturer, it is not the effort by students ”*

Based on extract, the lecturer should have sequences effort to involve students participate actively. Making the students active is not the effort by the students, they are object of the learning. Thus, passive or active students are the ending of sequences effort by the lecturers in the classroom. The sequences effort refers to instructional strategies, the ways of lecturers to instruct learning activity to the students.

Extract 21

*“...before coming to the class or the, i mean that the previous meeting that i told to them, okay next week we have discussion class or we have this topic, so please read the material to get try or knowledge about the material that we are going to discuss...”*

Extract 21 shows that the lecturer gave clear instructional to students. The students have to read the material before coming into the class. The students can get knowledge and know the topic for the next meeting. They are informed at the previous meeting, thus the students can make well preparation at thier home.

### ***Personal Characteristics***

Some of the students did not participate actively in the classroom because they were shy, lack of confidance, lack of knowledge of the materials, and lack of preparation.

Extract 22

*“...some of the students also shy to speak, they don't want to rise the hand to answer the question...eee... give the idea, but when I point to one of the students, they can answer.. repsond the questions correctly*

In extract, it shows one of personal characters affect students' participation is feeling shy to speak. It is occured because that student regard himself/herself has bad English like grammar and pronunciation. They feel shy to be laughed by thier classmate. When the lecturer pointed to the student, he/she can repsond the question or intruction given correctly.

Extract 23

*“ When I ask to one of my students, why do you just keep silent in the class, she said I’m shy...I have bad pronunciation...I think some of them are still lack of confidence..”*

Extract 23 above indicates that another factor affecting students’ participation in the classroom is lack of confidence. The thought of their feeling like bad pronunciation make the student afraid to do mistake and laughed by their friends. Keeping silent in the class does not mean they are do not know or understand about the materials but they still time to practice their confidence to use good English.

### ***Multicultural Students***

University classroom consists of multicultural students who come from different regions, ethnic, and language. They need much time to adaptate with new situation and to know each other in the classroom. It is happenend only for freshmen students as the following extract:

Extract 24

*“...usually the students don’t want to participate in the classroom because they are shy with thier friends, eee...I mean they are still first semester and don’t know each other.”*

From 24 extract above, the students did want to participate because they did not know each other. Feeling shy is the main reason for them to keep silent in the classroom. Even though, some of them are from the same regency and using same local language, but it does not mean they know each other. Thus, most of the lecturers gave an opportunity for the students to introduce thier self in the first meeting. The similar result in terms of multicultural factors is given by another lecturer as follows:

Extract 25

*“..they come from various regencies and don’t know their friends characters, so..they just keep silent in the class and will answer the questions when the lecturer pointed to the student.”*

Based on extract 25 above, multicultural factors affect students’ participation because the students are come from various regencies or hometown. The students are only answer or respond the questions because the lecturer pointed to him/her. Actually, the new students are in the same class but they have different characters. It means that, they need time to know each other to make friends. by knowing the characters, they are getting to closer and communicate. They also break their shyness to be active in the class.

## **Motivation of Scoring**

### Extract 26

*“...the first that external factors that when I told them okay when you are participate in the classroom, you get a score...”*

In extract 26, the lecturer said that external factor could affect students' participation in the classroom. Scoring system is regarded as external factor by the lecturer. Only the participated students get the score. By motivating students with scoring, they will prepare to be active in the class.

### Extract 27

*“..I said to them that I am going get score from you if you participate, is that to gain the score is the first one...”*

In extract 27, another lecturer gave the same perception on scoring system. The lecturer motivated the students by saying scoring is only given to the active students. In this case, the students must be active if they want to pass from the course.

### Extract 28

*“ At the beginning I tell the student, they have to be active..if they are active they get two benefits, the first is they can practice their skill and the second they get score..”*

In extract 28, the lecturer told students at beginning in her class all of students have to be active. It is delivered at lecture contract at the first meeting. The students must keep in their mind that active is as one of pass indicators of the course. They will get two benefits when they participate actively. First, they can practice their skill and the second is they get score from their participation.

## **Discussions**

When looking thoroughly at the data for this research objective, it is found that the lecturers gave similarity perception toward students' participation in the classroom. From the findings, it indicates that students' participation can be seen from two aspects namely form of students' participation and factors affecting students' participation.

The first form of students' participation is categorized into preparation form. Preparation is required by the students before performing their task or activity in the classroom. It is supported by Diwanji et.al (2018) states that being prepared in advance helps students to grasp the concepts taught during classroom sessions. Usually, the lecturer instructs lesson

activity at previous meeting, thus the students can do well preparation before coming into the classroom. The lecturer gave time to the students before asking them to present their topic in front the class. From lecturer's consideration, the course subject is quite difficult for the students and they have no prior knowledge about it. The students can discuss with their friends and find some related sources from 'book or internet. This result is in line with Alizadeh, Parmelee, Overman, and (2019) that experience has shown the quality of learning from the engaged learning classroom is highly dependent on the preparation. Therefore, it is expected that by giving time to the students, they can understand the materials and explore issues in depth from a variety of viewpoints. In addition, the lecturer should emphasize that giving time to the students is important. Inviting students directly to perform the presentation is ineffective. By doing preparation, it gives time to the students in preparing their comprehensive answer from the instructions given by the lecturers. The students cannot present the task directly. It is because they lack of vocabulary, less confidence, and they have no idea of the topic. Giving time means the students have chance to prepare well their presentation, either individual or group in the classroom. By doing well preparation, the students can be actively participate in the class interaction. It is in line with Heyman and Sailor (2011) who describe class participation as a form of active learning in which students publicly discuss the material. The same case in Indonesian EFL class, most of the lecturers attempt to apply active learning in the classroom. The EFL students proved their preparation by bringing their concept that have been written in a paper.

Additionally, the lecturer also explained preparation should base on contexts in terms of the context of deciding students' need, evaluating, and learning process. In the context of deciding the students need, lecturer does not need to lead them to preparation, so lecturer can identify what the students need in learning naturally. In the context of evaluation, the students need preparation because their preparation can influence their ability to answer questions or to achieve good result in their evaluation. Besides, by students' preparation lecturer can find out how well the students learn the materials and their autonomous learning is. The reveal of their preparation are reflected in the classroom discussion or presentation. In observation data, it indicated that the students are active such as rise hand to ask question and give answer. This result is in line with Vandrick (2000) claims that most teachers give idea of participation on requiring students to speak in class, answer questions, make comments and join in discussions. Dealing with preparation, the lecturer states it is important to give time to the students before they take participation in the classroom. It is because the students need time to develop their ideas and the lecturers have to encourage them to understand about the topic or the materials.

The second form of student' participation is categorized into discussion form. Discussion is one of the students' activities in the classroom. All of participants in this research applied discussion as strategy to provide active learning. It is in line with Dallimore and Platt (2004) that state classroom discussion is one of the most frequently used and often embraced pedagogical strategies. It is one way of lecturers' strategies to enhance participation during teaching and learning process occurred. The students' participation can be seen in class discussion. The students are not only sitting in the group, but they have to give contribution in discussion.

The lecturer encourages students' participation by grouping to involve the students participate actively in the classroom. The students can give their contribution in discussion by presenting paper based on the issue given, answering the questions that are coming from their friends, giving questions to the presenters, and the students also expressed their views on the issue discussed. It is important to create interesting discussion because it could encourages students participation and interaction. Likewise, Boyle and Nicol (2003) state teaching method that promote interaction and discussion are known to benefit learning. It means that, discussion can be applied as an effective way to promote students participation.

Encouraging students to participate actively is the lecturers' task. The students were asked to read the materials and find out some problems they still do not understand about the materials relating to their experiences in their life. Similarly, Pols and Hoogstyens (2016) in thier analysis show how participant structure and process thier experience, for example collecting, relating, and reviewing individual moments and actively interpreting them. It indicates sharing the idea based on experience is helpful for students in discussion. For motivating students in the discussion, scores were given to them who are active during their presenting their paper, answering questions, giving questions or idea.

The third form of students' participation is categorized into group skill. The students shared ideas and showed their responsibility in discussion. They took turn in responding the questions from the other groups and giving additional comment as Danser & Kamvounias (2005) and Ramsden & Moses (1992) state that the teacher may include class participation in their courses as an important teaching strategy because students actively involved in small group discussions are more likely to understand course material than if it were presented to them while they were simply sitting in a classroom.

Grouping the students is common way applied by the lecturer in higher education. The lecturer needs to arrange students seating during the class. Seating arrangement is considered to be a factor to engage students actively participate in class activities. They could collaborate

and finish the task effectively. Mittelmeier, Rienties, Tempelaar, and Whitelock (2018) supported this claim that grouping is one way to encourage collaboration between diverse peers. Students can be arranged in U-shaped, circular, and semi-circular position. These arrangements are more conducive to student participation in which students can see each other and communicate with each other. Counting participation as part of a student's grade, earning extra credit and allowing students to be a part of the participation grading process are helpful in increasing students participation (Fassinger, 2000; Boniecki & Moore, 2003; Zaremba & Dunn, 2004). These findings support lecturer's strategy which is the EFL students' in Muhammadiyah University and State University of Makassar are work in group to complete the instruction given by the lecturers.

The fourth form of students' participation is communication skill. The form of students' participation is viewed from communication skill form. They can show their ability to communicate effectively in classroom interaction. The findings indicate that the students' communication skill is quite good. The lecturer informed that most of the students are actively deliberated in some events and competition. It means that the students who have experiences will be easier to communicate their ideas in the class. This result is supported by Satriani, Emilia & Gunawan (2013) who conducted research about contextual approach and found there is relation between new information to life experiences or prior knowledge that students bring to the classroom. Teachers are able to overcome this obstacle and help students construct new knowledge with hand-on experiences that occur inside the classroom. Incorporating students' idea with life experience could support their communication skill.

The last form of students' participation is categorized in attendance form. Attending the course every meeting is also students' effort to be participated in the classroom. The interview result revealed that attendance is also considered as form of students' participation in classroom. It is because lesson topic for each meeting is correlated with the other meetings. The students should attend in the classroom for each meeting. If the students absent for one meeting, it means that they missed the materials and score at that meeting. For example, in one case, the absent students were asked in the next meeting about the previous lesson, but he cannot answer the questions and did not do the assignment given. It means that the students' participation is lack. Attendance is also one of the criteria for getting final score. The students are forbidden to take final test if the students' attendance lack of 70%. It is one of the items agreed in lecture contract in the first meeting.

In addition, by attending the class the students know the topic discussed, thus they can determine their participation such as giving questions, answering the questions, and help their

friends to understand the topic deeply. The students also can give additional information to the lecturer about that topic. For example in Lecturer 1 class, the lecturer always begins the class by giving quiz, the quiz materials have been given last meeting. It indicates, if the students were absent at that time, she/he will be difficult to answer the quiz questions given. Another example, Lecturer B, before presenting the materials, he reviewed the last materials by pointing to some students. The students must be ready for this situation. It means that, attendance is one of the forms of students' participation in the classroom as well as Rissanen (2018) absenteeism can have detrimental effect on grades and social integration of the student in the university community.

Dealing with the form of students' participation, factors that affecting their participation were also investigated. It is important to know those factors and formulate some strategies to engage actively participation in the classroom. Students' participation are affected by four factors, they are instructional strategies used the lecturers, lack of confidence, multicultural students, and motivation of scoring. These result are similar to Mittelmeier et.al (2018) who found students' participation comes from teachers, students, and classroom. They also demonstrate that teachers should pay adequate attention to their teaching techniques to increase students' involvement in teaching. The claim supports this study because it focuses on investigating teaching strategies used by the lectures in terms of instructional communication strategies to engage students' actively participation in the classroom. From the interview data, instructional strategies are the first factor affecting students' participation. Instructional strategies are strategies used by the lecturer to help students become independent, and strategic learners.

Additionally, the lecturer emphasizes that teaching method affects the students' participation in the classroom. To create active or passive students, they depend on teaching method used by the lecturer in the classroom. It can be stated that active students are formed by the active lecture. Making the students active is not the effort by the students, they are object of the learning. Thus, passive or active students are the ending of sequences effort by the lecturers in the classroom. The sequences effort refers to instructional strategies, the ways of lecturers to instruct learning activity to the students. Al-Ahmad & Al-Jarrah (2015) gave corrective feedback as a effort to encourage students participation in the classroom.

Another factor affecting students' participation in the classroom is lack of confidence. The thought of their feeling like bad pronunciation make the student afraid to do mistake and laughed by their friends. Keeping silent in the class does not mean they are do not know or understand about the materials but they still have time to practice their confidence to use good

English as Matsuda and Gobel (2003) demonstrated that self-confidence in speaking English, gender and proficiency played an important role in classroom performance of first-year students.

Multicultural background is another factor affecting students' participation in the classroom. University classroom in Indonesia consists of multicultural students who come from different regions, ethnic, and language. Collier and Powell (1990) argue for the importance of differentiating between issues of ethnicity in the classroom and issues of culture. The freshmen students are difficult to collaborate in the first time, it is because they do not know each other. They are hesitate to speak and to come forward to perform the task. Mittelmeier et.al (2018) highlighted that cross-cultural group work can be challenging and has hinted at potential social tensions. For the first time, the students looked individualistic. Even one of them has idea, she/he just keep in mind. They still need time to know the background and character each other as well as Moore and Hampton (2015); Van den Bossche et.al. (2006) who state placing students into groups with peers from other countries does not immediately lead to productive collaboration. However, by the time put them work in group could minimize challenging between them. It was running in the next meeting. They were more confidence to speak.

Besides, scoring motivation is also affected students' participation. It is similar to Hamzaoui-Elachachi & Graia (2014) who stated that motivation is often used as a key factor which determines the rate of success. It is the way to engage their actively participation. In certain situation, the lecturer did not give the same score for all members in the group, but the students' participation in group discussion is evaluated individually. The score given based on their contribution of group presentation in terms of presenting the topics and answering the questions from the floor. The lecturer expected the discussion is not handled or dominated by one student. Even the students work in group, their score is individually. In fact, the students are active to give contribution in discussion. The lecturer did not also focus on students' participation in presenting the materials but also consider the students' competence during the class discussion.

## **Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications**

Having explored instructional communication within empirical, interpretative, and critical perspective, it was founds there are some of forms of students participation in instructional setting, and it showed several factors affected their participation. The lecturers perceived that students participation is one of lecture indicators. The students participation in

the class is a common requirement of many universities courses. This particular result asserted that EFL lecturers were aware of their role to engage the student participate actively in the classroom. This study, however, has not touched the form of students participation in instructional technology. It is then recommended to the further researcher to use the results of this research as reference for the next research and and to conduct the similar research in instructional technology area. Regardless of those findings, this study has contributed significantly to the efforts of creating effective classroom interaction, which must become high concerns for English language and teaching practitioners.

## References

- Abdullah, M. Y., Bakar, N. R., & Mahbob, M. H. (2011). The dynamics of student participation in classroom : observation on level and forms of participation. *Procedia-Social and Behaviour Sciences*, 59(2012), 61–70. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.246>
- Al-Ahmad, S. & Al-Jarrah, R. S. (2015). The impact of direct corrective feedback type on the linguistic accuracy of EFL students' writing. *Asian EFL Journal*, 17(2).
- Alizadeh, M., Parmelee, D., Overman, I., & AlJasem, M. (2019). Preparing learners for learning in the engaged learning classroom. *MedEdPublish*, 8.
- Bartley, K., Dimenäs, J., & Hallnäs, H. (2010). Student participation in higher education—A question of governance and power. *Nordic Studies in Education*, 30(03), 150-164
- Bean, J. C.& Peterson, D. (1998). Grading Classroom Participation. *New Directions For Teaching and Learning Journal*, 1998(74), 33-4-.
- Boniecki, K. A., & Moore, S. (2003). Breaking the silence: Using a token economy to reinforce classroom participation. *Teaching of Psychology*, 30(3), 224-227.
- Boyle, J. T., & Nicol, D. J. (2003). Using classroom communication systems to support interaction and discussion in large class settings. *ALT-J*, 11(3), 43-57.
- Collier, M. J., & Powell, R. (1990). Ethnicity, instructional communication and classroom systems. *Communication Quarterly*, 38(4), 334-349.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th Ed). United States: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Daddi, H. (2016). Teacher's effort to develop thier students' equal participation in English speaking class. *TEFLIN Proceeding*. Book 3. Surabaya: Universitas Adi PGRI Adi Buana
- Dallimore, E.J, Hertenstein, J.H, & Platt, M.B. (2010). Class participation in accounting courses: Factors that affect student comfort and learning. *Issues in Accounting*

*Education*, 25(4), 613–629.

- Dancer, D., & Kamvounias, P. (2005). Student involvement in assessment: A project designed to assess class participation fairly and reliably. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 30(4), 445-454.
- Diwanji, P., Hinkelmann, K., & Witschel, H. F. (2018). Enhance Classroom Preparation for Flipped Classroom using AI and Analytics. *ICEIS*(1), 477-483.
- Elam, S. M., Rose, L. C., & Gallup, A. M. (1996). The 28th annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 78(1), 41.
- Fassinger, P. A. (2000). How classes influence students' participation in college classrooms. *The Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 38-47.
- Hamzaoui-Elachachi, H. & Graia, W. B. (2014). Motivation in the ESP Classroom: The Case of Algerian Biomedical Engineering students. *Asian ESP Journal*, 10(1).
- Heyman, J.E, & Sailors, J.J. (2011). Peer assessment of class participation: applying peer nomination to overcome rating inflation. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 36(5), 605–618.
- Kaplan, A., Gheen, M., & Midgley, C. (2002). Classroom goal structure and student disruptive behaviour. *British Journal of Psychology*, 72, 191–211.
- Lee, M. W. (2014). Will communicative language teaching work? Teachers' perceptions toward the new educational reform in South Korea. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(2), 1-17.
- Mahmud, M. (2017). Communicative styles of English students at the State University of Makassar. *Gema Online Journal of Language Studies*, 17(1), 223–238.
- Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System*, 32(1), 21-36.
- Mittelmeier, J., Rienties, B., Tempelaar, D., & Whitelock, D. (2018). Overcoming cross-cultural group work tensions: mixed student perspectives on the role of social relationships. *Higher Education*, 75(1), 149-166.
- Moore, P., & Hampton, G. (2015). 'It's a bit of a generalisation, but...': participant perspectives on intercultural group assessment in higher education. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 40(3), 390-406.
- Mottet, T. P., & Beebe, S. A. Mottet, T. P. 2009. Foundations of Instructional Communication. In T. P. Mottet, V. P. Richmond, & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Handbook of instructional communication: Rhetorical and relational perspectives* (Ch. 1). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

- Nunn, R., Brandt, C., & Deveci, T. (2016). Project-based learning as a holistic learning framework: Integrating 10 principles of critical reasoning and argumentation. *Asian Journal of English for Specific Purposes*, 12(2), 9-53.
- Nussbaum, J. F., & Friedrich, G. (2005). Instructional/developmental communication: Current theory, research, and future trends. *Journal of Communication*, 55(3), 578-593.
- Pols, J., & Hoogsteyns, M. (2016). Shaping the subject of incontinence. Relating experience to knowledge. *ALTER-European Journal of Disability Research/Revue Européenne de Recherche sur le Handicap*, 10(1), 40-53.
- Preiss R.W. & Wheelless,L.R. 2014. Perspective on Instructional Communication's Historical Path to the Future. *Communication and Education*, 63(4).
- Ramsden, P., & Moses, I. (1992). Associations between research and teaching in Australian higher education. *Higher Education*, 23(3), 273-295.
- Richmond, V. P., & Frymier, A. B. (2010). Communication Education and Instructional Development in J. W. Chesebro (Ed.). A century of transformation: Studies of the 100th anniversary of the Eastern Communication Association (pp. 310–328). New York, NY: Oxford.
- Richmond, V. P., McCroskey, J. C., & McCroskey, L. L. (2009). Organizational communication for survival: Making work. *Work*, 4.
- Rissanen, A. (2018). Student engagement in large classroom: The effect on grades, attendance and student experiences in an undergraduate biology course. *Canadian Journal of Science, Mathematics and Technology Education*, 18(2), 136-153.
- Satriani, I., Emilia, E., & Gunawan, H. (2012). Contextual teaching and learning approach to teaching writing. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(1), 10-22.
- Tsoi, J. C.L. (2013). Bestriding Boundaries: Towards Talk Authenticity in the Undergraduate Business Communication Classroom. *Asian EFL Journal*, 15(4).
- Van den Bossche, P., Gijsselaers, W. H., Segers, M., & Kirschner, P. A. (2006). Social and cognitive factors driving teamwork in collaborative learning environments: Team learning beliefs and behaviors. *Small group research*, 37(5), 490-521
- Vandrick, S. (2000). Language, Culture, Class, Gender, and Class Participation. TESOL Annual International Convention, Vancouver, Canada.
- Waldeck, J.H, Kearney, P., & Plax, T. G. (2001). Instructional and developmental communication theory and research in the 1990s: Extending the agenda for the 21st century. In *Communication yearbook*. Vol. 24. Edited by William B. Gudykunst, 207–229. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.

Zaremba, S. B., & Dunn, D. S. (2004). Assessing class participation through self-evaluation: Method and measure. *Teaching of Psychology*, 31(3), 191-193.



**Gender Divide in Attitude towards Chavacano and Cognition towards  
Mother Tongue among Prospective Language Teachers**

**Junette B. Buslon**

**\*Ericson O. Alieto**

**Vilma L. Pahulaya**

**Aubrey F. Reyes**

*Western Mindanao State University  
Normal Road, Baliwasan, Zamboanga City  
7000 Philippines*

*\*for correspondence*

**Bio-profiles:**

**Mr. Junette Berenguer Buslon** is a full-time faculty member of the Western Mindanao State University. He is presently assigned at the Integrated Laboratory School Elementary Department. He is finishing his Doctorate degree at the College of Teacher Education, WMSU. He has published several works in ISI and SCOPUS indexed journals.

**Dr. Ericson Olario Alieto** is an Associate Professor 1 and full-time faculty member of the College of Teacher Education of the Western Mindanao State University. He earned the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics from the De La Salle University, Taft Avenue, Manila. He can be reached through [ericsonalieto@gmail.com](mailto:ericsonalieto@gmail.com) / [ericsonalieto@wmsu.edu.ph](mailto:ericsonalieto@wmsu.edu.ph).

**Dr. Vilma Lopez Pahulaya** is an Assistant Professor 3 teaching Filipino at the Western Mindanao State University. She earned her degree of Doctor of Philosophy major in Filipino from the Mindanao State University – Iligan Institute of Technology. Her research inclinations include language education, language and gender, literature and language, and sociolinguistics.

**Dr. Aubrey Fernandez Reyes** is an Assistant Professor at the Western Mindanao State University in Zamboanga City. She earned her Bachelor of Secondary Education major in Filipino at University of San Jose-Recoletos Cebu City. She also finished her Master of Arts in Language Teaching (Filipino) at Western Mindanao State University last 2013. At present, she holds the degree of PhD in Filipino from Mindanao State University-Iligan Institute of Technology Iligan City. Her research interests include language and culture, literature, educational research and discourse analysis. She has presented research papers in various international conferences and has published research articles in a school journal.

### **Abstract**

The language policy component of the K-12 program has initiated the shift from the use of English to the utilization of Mother Tongue (MT) as the Medium of Instruction (MoI) or Language of Instruction (LoI). Attitude and Cognition have both been established to serve as either disabling or enabling factors relative to the compliance and practice as regards policy-implementers at the grassroots level. Against this need, this current study purposed to determine the Language Attitude (LA) and Cognition (Cog) of 1054 would-be-language teachers. Moreover, the construct of gender as influencing variable was investigated to determine differences in the LA and Cog of the respondents with the employment of a descriptive-quantitative-correlational research design utilizing research questionnaires developed through extensive review of literature, validated and tested for reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.947). The result of the analysis of data revealed that the respondents are '*slightly positive*' as regards their attitude (M-3.666, SD-1.057) and cognition (M-3.857, SD-0.545) towards the MT. Furthermore, the data showed the existence of significant difference in the LA and Cog towards MT across gender favoring the males. In addition, female language would-be language teachers should be exposed to more activities that may enhance their positivity in attitude and cognition.

**Keywords:** *Language Attitude, Mother Tongue, Gender, Would-be Teachers, Cognition*

## **Introduction**

### *Background of the study*

Gender as a construct is conceived differently by varied authors. Gormley (2015) simply explained gender as the grouping made on the basis of being a male and a female. However, Bilaniuk (2003 cited in Alieto, 2018) contended that the idea of gender goes beyond such simple classification. In fact, the same author explained that gender as a construct is complex. In a similar vein, Aydinoglu (2014) maintained that the idea of gender transcends from the simple traditional category of male and female; hence, gender is not synonymous to sex. Moreover, the same author claimed that gender is a 'social product' which means that the differences between males and females are dictated and defined by society. Supportive of this is the perspective of Tannen (1995) who maintained that society has the power to shape and to an extent reshape the concept of both femininity and masculinity. Despite the existence of varied perspectives and definitions of gender which most of the time are contradicting each other, authors come to a point of agreement that gender is a very important construct across cultures and society (Gormley, 2015). Certainly, it does not come as a surprise therefore to find the constant investigation of the impact of gender on different research topics which suggests its importance as a variable.

This investigation on the language attitude and cognition of would-be language teachers is essential at multiple levels. First, the study is directed to prospective language teachers who were determined to have fallen in the cracks of curriculum shift. Burton (2013) explained that the shift from the old curriculum to the new K-12 curriculum was done in haste. This resulted not only to difficulties in the creation and production of resource materials, but a failure to align tertiary offerings to the demand of the curriculum. This means that would-be language teachers have not had the needed training, lessons and workshops needed to prepare them for the task of teaching of the Mother Tongue as a subject and using the same as language of instruction. Second, this group of pre-service teachers were not checked on their held beliefs or cognitions about the use of children's mother tongue as language of instruction. This is something critical relative to the success of the new language policy as Borg (2006) claimed that teachers' cognition does not only impact classroom practices but also policy implementation. Third and last, the established trend on language attitude is that women prefer prestigious languages. Along this line, it must be noted that most of the elementary school grade language teachers in the public-school system of the country are women as it seems that the teacher education career is more popular to females than it is to males. Against the determined pattern of women's preference for dominant languages over local ones, this study

aimed to determine the relationship between the construct of LA towards Chavacano (as spelled in Saavedra, 2020a; Eijansantos, 2017; Go Silk et al., 2020; Lim-Ramos et al., 2020) which is also spelled as Chabacano ( as used in Saavedra, 2020b) and the variable gender necessitated – not to either support or debunk existing literature but to provide research-based intervention opportunities aimed at making the teaching of MT as attractive and plausible educational feat.

### ***Research Questions***

This investigation mainly aimed to the determine the status of the pre-service teachers’ language attitude and their cognition toward the MT . Specifically, it intends to answer the following questions:

1. What is the language attitude of the pre-service teachers towards *Chavacano*?
2. What are the pre-service teachers’ cognitions towards Mother Tongue?
3. Is there a difference on the language attitude towards *Chavacano* and cognition of the respondents towards Mother Tongue when data is grouped according to gender?

### ***Hypothesis of the study***

*H<sub>0</sub>*: There is no significant difference in the language attitude and cognition of the respondents when data is grouped according to gender.

## **Literature Review**

### ***Language Attitude toward Mother Tongue***

Studies on attitude initially were contained in the field of social psychology, which is a field interested at understanding and explaining the manner in which how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual is predicted by context (Allport, 1935 cited in González-Riaño, X., Hevia-Artime, I. & Fernández-Costales, 2013). Later, however, it was investigated in different disciplines including education (Navarro-Villarroel, 2011). Additionally, Navarro-Villarroel explained that studies of attitude in the past were mostly related to students’ attitude toward school, their peers and their mentors. As illustrations, the study of Baker (1992) that investigated students’ attitude toward bilingual education, and that of Gardner and Lambert (1972, cited in Navarro-Villarroel, 2011) which examined the attitude of students toward foreign language are considered the first few works concerning language learners’ attitude toward language learning.

Researches focused on determining LA of either the minority or the majority speech communities are necessarily important especially in determining language status and institutionalizing language policies (Callan & Gallois, 1987). Therefore, as the implementation of the MTB-MLE in the country is at its infancy, data relative to the LA of the stakeholders are essential inputs for the continuous refinement, appropriation and effective enforcement of the MT policy as the complex nature of attitude is one of the constructs shaping the possibility of multilingual education in society (Liddicoat & Taylor-Leech, 2015). These contentions explain the realization of recent LA researches (e.g. Ricohermoso, Abequibel & Alieto, 2019; Somblingo & Alieto, 2019; Alieto, 2018; Go Silk, et al., 2020).

### ***Language Attitude towards Mother Tongue and Gender***

Gender seemingly has been an ever-present factor investigated alongside other research constructs – lexical production (Devanadera & Alieto, 2019), employment of rhetorical appeals, hedges and boosters in essay writing ( Bacang, Rillo & Alieto, 2019), acceptability of lexical items of a language variety such as the Philippine English, (Torres & Alieto, 2019a), psychological constructs like motivation and self-efficacy (Torres & Alieto, 2019b), extent of offensive of swear words (Berowa, Ella & Lucas, 2019), cognition and willingness to teach in the Mother Tongue (Alieto, 2019), attitude toward digital and print reading (Eijansantos, Alieto, de la Rama – Morgia, and de la Rama – Ricohermoso, 2020), attitude toward online teaching among Science teachers (Antonio, Probitchado, Ricohermoso, Saavedra, and de la Rama, 2020), technological competence (de la Rama, et al. , 2020), attitude toward the use and learning of Philippine English (Alieto & Rillo, 2018), English language proficiency of post-colonial Filipino learners (Parangan & Buslon, 2020), and digital reading habit (Horton-Ramos, 2020). These studies conducted suggest that gender is indeed an essential social construct which explains its inclusion in most investigations.

Bilaniuk (2003) discussed, in context of the study conducted in Ukraine, that gender as a construct is very important and influential in affecting language ideology. She further claimed that gender goes beyond being simple and clear, and that it intertwines with other facets of identities such as ethnicity, profession and class. Consequently, in the study of LA of prospective mother tongue teachers toward the mother tongue, the construct of gender is a variable factored in. Researchers have reported gender difference in language interest (Head, 1999 in Van De Gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme & De Munter, 2007) and attitude toward languages (Lamb, 1997 cited in Van De Gaer, et al., 2007). Therefore, gender is an important issue in

discussing and investigating language attitudes either in bilingual or multilingual contexts (Zhang, 2011).

Zhang (2011) points a main difference between men and women in terms of language attitudes. He reported preference of women toward so-called “high” languages over men. This means that women are inclined to like languages with prestige. A similar conclusion was provided by Bilaniuk (2003) when women were reported to have positive towards English as compared to men, English being a language of power and of distinction. Moreover, Wang and Ladegaard (2008) reported the inclination of women toward Putonghua which is the prestigious standard variety. In a similar light, Gürsoy (2013) found that male and female teacher trainees were found to vary significantly in their language attitudes. Females were found to be more positive toward English as compared to their male counterparts which further corroborate with other studies that support the trend on gender difference in language attitudes.

Accounting the trend established by the enumerated researches, gender is an essential factor to consider in the study of LA especially in the context of MTB-MLE which involves a shift in language use from a dominant, which is English, to indigenous ones. Across time and through different investigations, gender is noted as a determinant of LA (Gal, 1978; Milroy & Milroy, 1998; Bilaniuk, 2003; Wang & Ladegaard, 2008; Zhang, 2011; Gürsoy, 2013).

### ***Teacher Cognition and Mother Tongue-based Education***

Borg (2003) described teachers’ cognition as the non-observable cognitive dimension of the teacher involving what he or she thinks, knows and believes. He pointed that it is teachers’ cognition that emerges as a powerful influence on teachers’ practices which proves the point that it is not only attitude that impacts instruction. Moreover, Borg (2006, in Haukås, 2016) explained that these beliefs of teachers are so strong that they are characterized to be resistant to change. Moreover, Borg (2003) posited further that the pedagogical practices of teachers are shaped with what the teachers perceived and believed to be important in the classroom. Hence, Haukås (2016) explained that the key to understanding the decisions teachers’ make inside the classroom rests on their beliefs. Moreover, Griva and Chostelidou (2012) asserted that teachers’ beliefs do not only influence classroom practice, but impact policy decisions.

Building on these contentions, that teachers’ cognition toward local languages and toward the dominant language (in most cases English) are determinants in the complete acceptance and implementation of the MT program. Confirmation of this is the report of Burton

(2013) about Filipino parents' preference for their children to be educated in English over their own local language (*Bikol*). On top of that, she warned that the strong positive stance favoring English opposes the implementation of the use of home language in education. Analogously, Tupas (2015) claimed that schools are anti-mother tongue because English is the language perceived beneficial to learn, and the one language merchandisable in the world.

Studies have accounted various beliefs toward the use of MTs in education. Orwenjo (2012) related that indigenous languages are believed to be linguistically limited and could not deliver the teaching of modern concepts which the English language can. The same research found that MT teaching is believed to interfere with the learning of second language. Mackenzie (2009) discussed that a view exists relating to proficiency in the target language (in most cases is English) resulting in long immersion to it. Leung (1998, in Eijeh, 2000) states that local languages are perceived to be less in value because it is English that is sought in the job market. Graham (2010) found that people oppose Mother Tongue Education because MT is spoken and learned at home; therefore, there is no need for it to be learned in school. Moreover, in the same study, it was found that people believe that teaching in MT is a form of regression and not advancement in education. Interestingly, Benson (2004) claimed that hesitance in the use of mother tongue in education roots from the hundreds of years of colonial thinking cheapening indigenous languages and overrating colonial languages.

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

adversely affect learning English, and that mother tongue in early years of schooling lays a weak educational foundation.

Despite the growing number of researches on teachers' cognition, to the researchers' knowledge, no studies have explored the cognition of prospective mother tongue teachers contextualized and cross-referenced with their language attitude. In fact, empirical investigations have separately investigated the two related constructs. Illustrative of this point is the investigation of Alieto (2019) which investigated the cognition of pre-service teachers as regards their willingness to teach in the mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject. Another example is the empirical study of Somblino and Alieto (2019) which investigated only the attitude of respondents underpinning the Mentalist Theory as regards the construct of language attitude. Addedly, to determine the cognition of this group is essentially important as Hill (2014) contends that teachers' cognition is related to students' learning. Subsequently, Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) claimed that teachers remain to be unmatched in terms of their influence in learning achievements. Practices, decisions and actions inside the classroom are reflection of cognitions, as cognition in itself resides in the mind (Hill, 2014). Therefore, taking this claim into the context mother tongue education, the cognition of the prospective mother tongue educators largely determines the teaching of the mother tongue which Tupas (2015) explained is a determiner of the future outcome of the MTB-MLE.

## **Methodology**

### ***Research Design***

The study utilized descriptive-quantitative-predictive research design through utilization of Likert-scaled questionnaires as a mean of data collection. Johnson (2000 in Perez & Alieto, 2018) discussed that an investigation primarily aimed at describing a phenomenon through utilization of statistics not limited to mean, percentage and standard deviation is noted to be descriptive. Moreover, descriptive studies are the kind that utilizes simple statistical treatments in analyzing data (Abdon et al., 2019; Pattern & Newhart, 2017 cited in Tanpoco, Rillo & Alieto, 2019). Furthermore, Calderon (2006 cited in Rillo & Alieto, 2018) claimed that descriptive studies utilize minimal statistical methods. Moreover, as the study involves questions as regards the attitude of the respondents across gender and as well as the determination of the cognition towards MT, the employment of a descriptive design is fit for the current investigation. Further, the study employed the classic technique of using Likert questionnaire for the collection of descriptive data (Ubalde & Rosales, 2018). Additionally, the

current investigation is noted to be non-experimental as neither a control group was established nor treatment was introduced (Torres & Alieto, 2019a; Torres & Alieto, 2019b).

### ***Research Setting***

The research sites of the study included six (6) tertiary institutions offering the bachelor of elementary education program in the region. Out of the six academic institutions, three (3) of which are annex schools while the remaining others are main campuses. All academic institutions are state-run. One is a state university while the two schools are of college status.

### ***Participants of the study***

This study enlisted 1054 elementary education students in their penultimate year from four academic institutions. Setia (2016 cited in Buslon & Alieto, 2019) discussed that the setting of inclusion and exclusion criteria is a necessity in determining samples purposively. Hence, to qualify as participant of the study, the following inclusion criteria were set: (1) the pre-service teacher at least had one month of practice teaching exposure, (2) the participant must have teaching assignments in the grades level one to three, and (3) the pre-service teacher has experience practice teaching using *Chavacano* as medium of instruction for at least one month. On the other hand, the following made students ineligible to be included as participants of the study: (1) if the student is graduating but had taken his/her practice teaching last year for one reason or another, and (2) if the students has had less than 20 contact times, by the time the study was conducted, teaching in *Chavacano* or teaching *Chavacano* as MT subject. The rationale for the criteria is to make the experiences of the respondents comparable.

With regard gender as a demographic profile, 802 or 76.1% were females. Efforts were made to proportionately represent the number of males and females in the study. However, with the employment of total enumeration sampling technique, to no avail was the intention of equally representing the male and females in the study possible as most of the respondents from the different research sites were females. This however provides essential information that the teacher education course is one that is popular to females (Ricohermoso, Abequibel, & Alieto, 2019; Alieto, Buslon, & Devanadera, 2019)

### ***Research Instruments and Reliability***

#### ***Language Attitude towards Chavacano (LACQ) and its Reliability***

An attitude scale is a questionnaire structured and fashioned to an overall attitude result (McKenzie, 2010). This means that the sum of the responses of respondents to the different

items represents one overall attitude. A self-devised Language Attitude Questionnaire determining attitude towards the lingua franca is done through extensive literature review and adaptations from instruments used in the studies of Ejieh (2004), Ndhlovu (2010), Eshghinejad (2016), Sicam and Lucas (2016) and discussion of Khejeri (2014). In total the questionnaire included 36 items using a continuous scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). There were 12 items for each aspect of language attitude. The total composition of the LACQ is as follows: nine were originally formulated, seven from both from Ejieh (2004) and Eshghinejad (2016), six from Sicam and Lucas (2016), four from Ndhlovu (2010), and three from Khejeri (2014). The 36 items were placed together without marking of aspects. Further, the items were randomly ordered in the questionnaire administered for pilot testing to minimize response set bias (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). In addition, the instrument was finalized for pilot testing. Four (4) major content sections are found in the questionnaire: the cover letter, the demographic profile, the items and the closing instruction. Limited details about the objective of the study were provided to lessen the *Pygmalion Effect* which causes respondents to favorably respond according to the purpose of the study and the objective of the researcher (Perry, 2005).

The Cronbach's alpha of 0.947 was the yield reliability for the 36 items. George and Maller (2003) state that as a rule of thumb if the value of Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.9 it is considered as '*excellent*' (p.231). The LACQ is noted to be of '*excellent*' reliability. Therefore, all of the 32 items were to be included in the final drafting of the instrument.

#### *Cognition toward Mother Tongue Questionnaire (CMTQ) and its Reliability*

To determine the cognition of the respondents towards mother tongue, a quantitative approach was employed through the use of survey questionnaire with a continuous six-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Various studies (e.g. Cummins, 1984; Ejieh, 2004; Jhingran, 2005; Tupas, 2006; Young, 2009; MacKenzie, 2009; Graham, 2010; UNESCO, 2011; Orwenjo, 2012; and UNESCO, 2013) were extensively reviewed aiding in the formulation of the statements included as items in the questionnaire. A total of 22 items composed the questionnaire.

After finalizing the CMTQ, it was administered along with the LACQ to 100 respondents for pilot testing with the main aim of determining the reliability of the instrument. The instruments were statistically tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha test. The result shows that the CMTQ yielded a reliability score of 0.789 which is described as '*acceptable*' (George & Maller, 2003). Moreover, Heppner and Heppner (2004) claimed that 0.7 alpha coefficient is the minimum acceptable reliability. Thus, the instrument is considered to have

'acceptable reliability.' Furthermore, all of the twenty-two items were to be included in the final form of the questionnaire.

### ***Data Collection Procedure***

Correspondence was sent to the different deans, practice teaching supervisors and unit coordinators. Upon the approval of the request to administer the instrument to the students, the researchers set a date to meet the focal persons assigned to facilitate the administration in each school and to finalize the list of participants.

After finalizing the list of possible participants, a meeting with the pre-service teachers was set for the purpose of providing basic details about the investigation. On the day of the administration of the questionnaires, the participants were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that they could stop answering at any time even after they have started responding to the questionnaires. Further, the participants were assured of confidentiality of their provided information. The participants were informed to double check their entries before submitting. After answering, the participants were instructed to submit at will their answered questionnaires to any of the four (4) collectors including the researcher himself. Upon handing over the instruments, the collectors checked for possible missed numbers, double entry and the like which would disqualify inclusion of the questionnaires for analyses. On the average, the administration of the questionnaires lasted for about 45 minutes.

### ***Method of Analysis***

For the possible investigation of the questions raised in this study, the numerical data were coded, entered and checked for errors. Analyses were to be conducted using the SPSS. Strict statistical procedures were observed to lessen bias and be as objective as possible. The raw data generated from LACQ and CTMQ were tabulated. Table 1 gives interpretation for the computed arithmetic mean:

Table 1

*Language Attitude and Cognition Scale*

Range	Description	Interpretation
5.15 – 6.0	Strongly Agree	Very Positive
4.32 – 5.14	Agree	Positive
3.49 – 4.31	Agree Slightly	Slightly Positive
2.66 – 3.48	Disagree Slightly	Slightly Negative
1.83 – 2.65	Disagree	Negative
1.0 – 1.82	Strongly Disagree	Very Negative

To determine the LA and Cog of the respondents, the mean score for each item of the questionnaires and the overall mean were computed. Moreover, the mean score per item was ranked to determine the items rated highly by the respondents. In addition, for the significant difference of language attitude and cognition between genders, the inferential statistics known as independent sample t-test was employed.

## Results and Discussion

### *Respondents' Attitude towards Chavacano*

To answer research question number 1: What is the language attitude of the pre-service teachers towards *Chavacano*?, the arithmetic mean for the attitude towards Chavacano was first computed. Table 2 presents the mean value and interpretation. Moreover, the standard deviation (SD) is provided to characterize how dispersed the scores are.

Table 2

*Attitude towards Chavacano*

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation.	Interpretation
Att. toward Chavacano	3.667	1.057	Slightly Positive

Note : 6.0-5.15 – Strongly Agree (Very Positive), 5.14 – 4.32 Agree (Positive), 4.31 – 3.49 Agree Slightly (Slightly Positive), 3.48-2.66 Disagree Slightly (Slightly Negative), 2.65-1.83 Disagree (Negative), 1.82-1.0 Strongly Disagree (Very Negative)

Table 2 provides the mean value of the attitude towards Chavacano as attitudinal object in this current study. Interestingly, the descriptive analysis of data revealed that respondents hold a '*slightly positive*' attitude towards Chavacano (M - 3.667, SD - 1.057). It must be noted that the respondents are not completely positive but are supportive of MTs only to a limited extent. This finding refutes the claim of Khejari (2014) that pre-service teachers are negative towards local languages as suggested by their lukewarm acceptance of the policy that promotes

the use of MTs. This can be alluded to the successful teaching on the benefits relative to the use of MT as the time the data was gathered the different pre-service teachers were exposed to different DepEd campaigns that places premium on the importance and benefit on the use of local languages. This is inferred to have influenced the respondents in this regard.

**Statements highly rated by the respondents**

To determine the highly rated items for the LACQ, the mean score of each item was computed and ranked. Table 3 presents the means values of the highly rated statements with the standard deviation data to describe the dispersion of the dataset relative to the mean scores.

Table 3

*Statements highly rated by the respondents*

Questionnaire	No.	Statements	M	SD	Rank
	19	Education in <i>Chavacano</i> will enable parents to participate in the education of their children	4.26	1.37	1
Language Attitude towards Chavacano	4	Teaching in <i>Chavacano</i> makes it easy for children to understand	4.19	1.65	2.5
	14	I feel proud when I study or learn about Chavacano	4.19	1.33	2.5
	11	I have great interest in learning Chavacano	4.16	1.40	4

Note : 6.0-5.15 – Strongly Agree (Very Positive), 5.14 – 4.32 Agree (Positive), 4.31 – 3.49 Agree Slightly (Slightly Positive), 3.48-2.66 Disagree Slightly (Slightly Negative), 2.65-1.83 Disagree (Negative), 1.82-1.0 Strongly Disagree (Very Negative)

Table 3 gives the top 4 highly rated statements across the three research instruments used in the study. The descriptive statistics provides that for LACQ the highest four items belong to the two aspects of attitude – items 19 and 4 for the cognitive dimension while items 11 and 14 for the affective dimension. None of the first four items comes from the conative dimension. Furthermore, it is interesting to point that the top 2 items ( 19 and 4) relate to positive disposition towards the use of *Chavacano* as a language of instruction come from the cognitive aspect of attitude. The respondents believed that when the said language is used parents can involve themselves in the education of their children. This suggests that because education of children is realized in a language known to parents the support of home to school is made possible.

Moreover, the second highest rated item (4) *Teaching in Chavacano makes it easier for children to understand* relates to the perspective that because students use a language familiar to them students are able to express themselves and communicate fluently their ideas

and thoughts during class discussion and class activities. It must be noted that having students participate and express during class hours has become a struggling experience for students and teachers alike in classes where the medium of instruction is one that is foreign to the learners as observed by Jhingran (2005 cited in Mackenzi, 2009). This idea of students being able to communicate without much hesitation and restraint when the LoI is one that learners have command is supported by the research findings of Benson (2004) and Mackenzie (2009). In addition, this result suggests that the ‘*slightly positive*’ stands of the respondents towards *Chavacano* primarily of the idea that it would break barriers that hinder parents from participating in their children’s education and that halt students from performing communication with their teachers and among peers during class activities. It then can be inferred that for the respondents of this study the use of a local language in school is for the interest of the learners that they may perform well inside classrooms and get the needed support from home.

Another equally interesting result is that the next items highly rated (14 and 11) relate to the affective dimension of language attitude. On the average, the respondents rated ‘agree’ statements (14) ‘*I feel proud when I study or learn about Chavacano*’ and (11) ‘*I have great interest in learning Chavacano*’. Item 14 is about the pride that one feels in learning or studying the *Chavacano* language while item 11 relates to the intention and motivation of learning *Chavacano* which are both taken to mean that the respondents do not possess what González-Riaño et al. (2013) termed as ‘language prejudice’ towards *Chavacano*.

However, this emotional attachment to the language discussed is believed to result from the idea that the *Chavacano* language forms part of regional identity as a Zamboangueno. Along this line, Ndhlovu (2010) explained that positivity towards a language may be a result of the intention to be noted as part of the ethnic group. The intention to belong motivates an individual to learn a particular language and would mean that he/she would have a positive attitude towards the language that the groups speak of which he or she intends to be a part of.

However, for this study, it is believed that the result does not in any way reflect the intention of any of the respondents to be a part of the *Chavacano* grouping. Instead, it is conjectured that it is more of the intention to be identified as a Zamboangueno. As the regional lingua franca is *Chavacano* it must have been embraced by the respondents that to be a Zamboangueno one must know how to converse in the lingua franca which explains the emotional attachment afforded to the language.

### ***Pre-service Teachers' Cognition towards the Mother Tongue***

To answer research question number 2: What is the pre-service teachers' cognition towards the mother tongue?, responses on the teachers' cognition questionnaire was computed. The mean value for the overall cognition was determined and given interpretation. Table 4 presents the mean value and the standard deviation. Moreover, the summary statistics, minimum and maximum are included to provided clearer picture about data.

Table 4

#### *Cognition towards the Mother Tongue*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Min.</b>	<b>Max.</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
Cognition towards the Mother Tongue	2.45	5.73	3.87	0.55	Slightly Negative Cognition

Table 4 provides the arithmetic mean of the cognition of the respondents toward the MT. It revealed that the respondents, on the average, hold a 'slightly negative' cognition towards the mother tongue. This means that many of the respondents rated the items in the questionnaire with options that ranges from slightly negative to strongly negative. Moreover, the minimum score (2.45) means that the lowest rate the respondents gave to describe their held belief towards the MT is described as '*negative*' whilst the maximum rate (5.73) is interpreted as '*very positive*'.

This result is in consonance to the claims of different researchers that beliefs that devalue Mother Tongues exist among people (Tupas, 2015; Orwenjo, 2012; MacKenzie, 2009; Leung, 1998; Benson , 2004; Graham , 2010; Burton, 2013; Ejie, 2004). Different reasons were conceived to explain this phenomenon. Tupas (2015) explained that the seemingly anti mother tongue stance roots from the belief that English is the only merchandisable language. This means that a good number of people believed that English is the best language to learn because it is the language most demanded in the world of work and most used in education.

Benson (2004), on the other hand, blames the colonial thinking shaped through hundreds of years. The colonial belief that local languages are of the uneducated and of the slaves while the colonial language is of the elite members and colonial lords. This belief that cheapens indigenous languages and overates English was not uprooted despite the fact that the

once colonies were liberated; instead, the beliefs are flourishing as ideologies boxing people's thinking as regards the value and importance of local languages.

Moreover, Graham (2010) provided a more relatable explanation. She claimed that the beliefs placing a premium on English is caused by the present set up of society. Educational systems give prime importance to the learning and use of English. Evident to this is that it is the language not only of instruction but also of education itself. Lessons are delivered in English and examinations are in English.

Moreover, teaching is in English and learning happens in English. This is not only true in the academy. In the world of work, the need to learn English is also found - from the very time an applicant writes a letter of intent to the interview that commences after the submission of application letters until the performance of work when successfully employed.

***Language attitude and Cognition across gender***

To answer research question number 3: Is there a difference in the language attitude and cognition of the respondents when data is grouped according to gender?, t-test for independent sample was the inferential statistics utilized to treat the raw data. Table 5 presents the p-value and interpretation.

Table 5

*Difference in language attitude towards Chavacano and cognition towards MT across gender*

Variables		Mean	SD	p-value	Interpretation
Dependent	Independent				
Language Attitude towards Chavacano	Male	3.87	0.56	0.000*	Significant
	Female	3.65	2.05		
Cognition towards Mother Tongue	Male	3.85	0.51		
	Female	3.69	2.55		

Note: significant at alpha=0.001

Table 5 presents the difference on the language attitude and cognition of the respondents between males and females. The analysis of the data shows that for the variables language attitude and cognition their p-value (0.000) are both below alpha=0.001 which suggests that there is significant difference in the respondents language attitude and cognition across gender favouring males. This corroborates with the study of Zhang (2011) which points

to a main difference between men and women in terms of language attitudes. He reported preference of women toward so-called “high” languages over men.

Another study supportive of this is that of Gal (1978) which found that women are distancing themselves from Hungarian and are moving towards German which is deemed as the High language. The result however shows that women respondents of the study are not negative towards local languages such as those found in the studies of Milroy and Milroy (1998) and Wang and Ladegaard (2008). Instead, they were only found to be of limited positivity towards MTs as compared to their male counterparts.

For the variable cognition, the result suggests difference across gender with males to be of better cognition towards mother tongue than females. This means that male respondents perceived teaching of mother more positively than females. This is believed to be so as attitude is composed of three aspects and one of which is cognition (McKenzie, 2010). Therefore, the attitude of the respondents most likely is relative to cognition which explains the result showing that females with lower attitude *Chavacano* compared to men towards MTs also exhibited lower cognition towards MTs.

## **Conclusions**

In light of the findings of the study, the following conclusions are made:

The respondents exhibited ‘slightly positive’ attitude towards *Chavacano* and ‘slightly negative’ cognition towards the mother tongue. Moreover, there is a significant difference in the language attitude towards *Chavacano* and Cognition towards Mother Tongue with males found to be of better attitude and cognition.

## **Implications**

One, teacher training institutions must include in the curriculum courses mainly that exposes students to different researches that discuss the benefits and importance of the use of mother tongue. This would be essential in reshaping respondents’ cognition and attitude. Second, continuous training and support should be provided to this set of respondents to enhance their extent of acceptance towards their mother tongue in terms of attitude and cognition. This would enhance and set students’ positivity to be complete and not limited. Last, females must be given more assistance and support when they are tasked to teach in the MT as they show lesser positivity in attitude and cognition. Support on logistics may assist the female language teachers to become equally positive bridging the gender gap on cognition and attitude.

## References

- Abdon, M., Maghanoy, J., Alieto, E., Buslon, J., Rillo, R., & Bacang, B. (2019). Phonological awareness skills of English as second language (ESL) learners: The case of first-grade Filipino Bilinguals. *Science International (Lahore)*, 31(5),647-652.
- Alieto, E. (2018). Language shift from English to Mother Tongue: Exploring language attitude and willingness to teach among pre-service teachers. *TESOL International Journal*, 13(3):134-145 (2018).
- Alieto, E., & Rillo, R. (2018). Language attitudes of English Language Teachers (ELTs) towards Philippine English. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 84-109.
- Alieto, E. (2019). Cognition as predictor of willingness to teach in the Mother Tongue and the Mother Tongue as a subject among prospective language teachers. *Science International (Lahore)*, 31(1), 135-139.
- Alieto, E., Devanadera, A., & Buslon, J. (2019). Women of K-12: Exploring teachers' cognition in language policy implementation. *Asian EFL Journal*, 24(4.1), 143-162.
- Allport, G. (1953). Attitudes. In González-Riaño, X.,Hevia-Artime, I. & Fernández-Costales, A. (2013). Language attitudes of Asturian students in the area of Navia-Eo (Spain). *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 13(4), 450-469.
- Antonio, A., Probitchado, Ricohermoso, Saavedra, & de la Rama. (2020). Gender Differences in Technological Competence among Science Teachers : Implications. *International Journal of Science and Technology*, 29(7), 13257-13268.
- Aydinoglu, N. (2014). Gender in English language teaching coursebooks. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 158, 233-239. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.12.081.
- Bacang, B., Rillo, R., & Alieto, E. (2019). The Gender Construct in the Use of Rhetorical Appeals, Hedges and Boosters in ESL Writing: A Discourse Analysis. *Asian EFL Journal*, 25 (5.2), 210-224.
- Baker, C. (1992). *Attitudes and language*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Benson, C. (2004). Bilingual schooling in Mozambique and Bolivia: From experimentation to implementation. *Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism* (pp. 248-258). Somerville: MA: Cascadilla Press.
- Berowa, A.M., Ella, J., & Lucas, R.I. (2019). Perceived offensive of swear words across gender. *Asian EFL Journal*, 25 (5.2), 159-170.
- Bilaniuk, L. (2003). Gender language attitudes and language status in Ukraine. *Language Society*, 32(1), 25-42. In Alieto, E. (2018). Language shift from English to Mother

- Tongue: Exploring language attitude and willingness to teach among pre-service teachers. *TESOL International Journal*, 13(3), 134-146.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. London: Continuum.
- In Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(1), 1-18.
- Buslon, J., & Alieto, E. (2019). Lexical inferencing strategies and reading comprehension in English: A case of ESL third graders. *Asian EFL Journal*, 22(1), 73-94.
- Burton, L. (2013). Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education in the Philippines: Studying Top-Down Policy Implementation from the Bottom Up. Retrieved Online. December 2, 2016. (Unpublished Ph.D. thesis), University of Minnesota. Retrieved from [https://conservancy.umn.edu/bitstream/handle/11299/152603/Burton\\_umn\\_0130E\\_13632.pdf](https://conservancy.umn.edu/bitstream/handle/11299/152603/Burton_umn_0130E_13632.pdf).
- Calderon, J. (2006). *Methods of research and thesis writing (2nd Ed.)*. Mandaluyong City: National Bookstore.
- In Rillo, R. & Alieto, E. (2018). Indirectness Markers in Korean and Persian English Essays: Implications for Teaching Writing to EFL Learners. *English as an International Language Journal*, 13(2.2), 165-184.
- Callan, V.J., & Gallois, C. (1987). Anglo-Australians' and Immigrants' Attitudes toward Language and Accent: A Review of Experimental and Survey Research. *The International Migration Review*, 21(1), 48-69. doi: 10.1177/019791838702100103.
- Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Limited.
- de la Rama, J.M., Sabases, M., Antonio, A., Ricohermoso, C., Torres, J., Devanadera, A. Tulio, C., Alieto, E. (2020). Virtual Teaching as the 'New Norm': Analyzing Science Teachers' Attitude toward Online Teaching, Technological Competence and Access. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology*, 29 (7), 12705-12715.
- Devanadera, A., & Alieto, E. (2019). Lexical Bias among Tagalog-speaking Filipino Pre-school Children. *Asian EFL Journal*, 24 (4.1), 207-225.
- Eijansantos, A. (2017). From English to Filipino to Zamboanga Chavacano: Finding the Missing Voice. *Athens Journal of Philology*, 4(4), 293-312.
- Eijansantos, A., Alieto, E., de la Rama - Morgia, J., & de la Rama - Ricohermoso, C. (2020). Print-Based Texts or Digitized Versions: An Attitudinal Investigation Among Senior High School Students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27(2.3), 308-339.

- Ejeh, M. (2004). Attitudes of student teachers towards teaching in mother tongue in Nigerian primary school: Implications for planning. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 17 (1), 73-81, doi:2010923972893578.
- Eshghinejad, S. (2016). EFL students' attitudes toward learning English language: The case study of Kashan University students. *Cogent Education*, 3:1236434.
- Gal, S. (1978). Peasant men can't get wives: language change and sex roles in a bilingual community. *Language in Society*, 7 (1), 1-16.
- Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. (1972). Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning. MA: Newbury House. In Navarro-Villarreal, C. (2011). Young students' attitudes toward languages. Available from Education Database. Retrieved from <https://search.proquest.com/docview/874975233?accountid=38643>.
- George, D., & Maller, P. (2003). *SPSS Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference. 11.0 (2nd Edition)*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Go Silk, B., Medriano, R., Dela Cruz, S.B., Deran, J.J., Alieto, E., Abdon, M., Rillo, R., & Lucas, R.I. (2020). Cognition toward the Mother Tongue, Attitude toward English, Chavacano, and Filipino: A Structural Equation Modeling Approach with Bootstrap Analysis. *Asian ESP Journal*, 16(1.2), 5-28.
- González-Riaño, X., Hevia-Artime, I. & Fernández-Costales, A. (2013). Language attitudes of Asturian students in the area of Navia-Eo (Spain). *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 13(4), 450-469.
- Gormley, S. (2015). Language and Gender. *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, 256-259: doi:10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.53055-4.
- Graham, B. E. (2010). Mother tongue education: necessary? Possible? Sustainable? *Language and Education*, 24(4), 309-321. doi:10.1080/09500781003678696.
- Griva, E., & Chostelidou, D. (2012). Multilingual competence development in the Greek educational system: FL teachers' beliefs and attitudes. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 9(3), 257-271. doi: 10.1080/14790718.2011.626857.
- Gürsoy, E. (2013). Prospective ELT teachers' attitudes toward the English language in an EFL context. *Journal of International Education Research*, 9(1), 107.
- Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(1), 1-18.
- Head, J. (1999). Understanding the boys: issues of behaviour and achievement. In Van De Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. (2007). Impact of attitudes of

- peers on language achievement: gender difference. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 101(2), 78-128.
- Heppner, P.P. & Heppner, M.J. (2004). *Writing and publishing your thesis, dissertation and research*. Canada: Lisa Gebo.
- Hill, S. (2014). Teacher Cognition : Four case studies of teachers in low-ses schools. Available from Education Database. (1615096050). Retrieved from <https://search.proquest.com/docview/1615096050?accountid=38643>.
- Horton-Ramos, M. (2020). Reading in the digitized era: Analyzing ESL graduate students' e-reading habit. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27(1), 67-85.
- Jhingran, D. (2005). Language disadvantage: The learning challenge in primary education. DHI Jhingran. APH: New Delhi. In MacKenzie, P. (2009). Mother tongue first multilingual education among the tribal communities in India. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12 (4), 369-385. doi: 10.1080/13670050902935797.
- Johnson, B. (2010). Toward a New Classification of Nonexperimental Quantitative Research. *Educational Researcher*, 3-13. In Perez, A.L., & Alieto, E. (2018). Change of “Tongue” from English to a local language: A correlation of Mother Tongue proficiency and Mathematics achievement. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 14(7.2),136-150.
- Khejeri, M. (2014). Teachers’ attitudes towards the use of mother tongue as a language of instruction in lower primary schools in Hamisi District, Kenya. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4(1), 75-84.
- Lamb, S. (1997). Gender differences in mathematics participation: An Australian perspective. *Educational Studies*, 105–126. In Van De Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. (2007). Impact of attitudes of peers on language achievement: gender difference. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 101(2), 101:2, 78-128.
- Leung, F. (1998). Mother tongue. *South China Morning Post*, In Ejieh, M. U. (2010). Attitudes of Student Teachers Towards Teaching in Mother Tongue in Nigerian Primary Schools: Implications for Planning. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 17:1, 73-81. doi: 10.1080/07908310408666683.
- Liddicoat, A.J., & Taylor-Leech, K. (2015). Multilingual education: the role of language ideologies and attitudes,. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 16(1-2), 1-7. doi : 10.1080/14664208.2015.995753.
- Lim-Ramos, S., Francisco, W., Leduna, N.A., Nuñez, M.R., Pabraquel, M.K., Deran, J.J., & Alieto, E. (2020). Substituting English with a Local Language: Examining Parents’

- belief toward Chavacano as Language of Instruction. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27(1), 177-195.
- Perez, A.L., & Alieto, E. (2018). Change of “Tongue” from English to a local language: A correlation of Mother Tongue proficiency and Mathematics achievement. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 14(7.2),136-150.
- MacKenzie, P. (2009). Mother tongue first multilingual education among the tribal communities in India. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(4), 369-385. doi: 10.1080/13670050902935797.
- McKenzie, R. M. (2010). *The Study of Language Attitudes*. New York: Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg London.
- Milroy, J & Milroy, L. (1998). *Authority in Language (3rd Ed.)*, London: Routledge.
- Navarro-Villarroel, C. (2011). Young students' attitudes toward languages . Available from Education Database. Retrieved from <https://search.proquest.com/docview/874975233?accountid=38643>.
- Ndhlovu, F. (2010). Belonging and attitudes towards ethnic languages. *Australian Journal of Linguistics*, 30(3), 299-321.
- Orwenjo, D. O. (2012). Multilingual education in Kenya: debunking the myths. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 9(3), 294-317. doi:10.1080/14790718.2012.657641.
- Öztürk, G., & Gürbüz, N. (2013). The impact of gender on foreign language speaking anxiety and motivation. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 654 – 665. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.106.
- Parangan, B.P., & Buslon, J. (2020). The Construct of Gender and Ethnicity in Language Proficiency of Post-Colonial Filipino ESL Learners. *TESOL International Journal*, 15(1), 86-92.
- Patten, M. L., & Newhart, M. (2017). *Understanding research methods: An overview of the essentials, tenth edition*. New York: Routledge. In Tanpoco,M., Rillo, R., & Alieto, E. (2019). Filipino to English transfer errors in writing among college students: Implications for the senior high school English curriculum. *Asian EFL Journal*, 26 (6.1), 227-246.
- Perry, F. (2005). *Research in applied linguistics*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ricohermoso, C., Abequibel, B., & Alieto, E. (2019). Attitude towards English and Filipino as correlates of cognition toward Mother Tongue: An analysis among would-be language teachers. *Asian EFL Journal*, 26(6.1), 5-22.

- Rillo, R. & Alieto, E. (2019). Indirectness Markers in Korean and Persian English Essays: Implications for Teaching Writing to EFL Learners. *English as an International Language Journal*, 13(2.2), 165-184.
- Saavedra, A. (2020a). Chavacano as a Medium of Instruction: Its Implications for the Reading Levels of English in Elementary School Pupils. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, 10(10), 311-320.
- Saavedra, A. (2020b). Teachers' Preference on the Local Policy Implementation of the Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education: An Assessment. *Asian EFL Journal*, 27(2.2), 217-238.
- Setia, M. (2016). Methodology series module 3: Cross-sectional studies. *Indian Journal of Methodology*, 61(3), 261-264. In Buslon, J., & Alieto, E. (2019). Lexical inferencing strategies and reading comprehension in English: A case of ESL third graders. *Asian EFL Journal*, 22(1), 73-94.
- Sicam, F.P., & Lucas, R.I. (2016). Language attitudes of adolescent Filipino bilingual learners towards English and Filipino. *Asian Englishes*, 18 (2) , 1-21. doi:10.1080/13488678.2016.1179474.
- Somblingo,R., & Alieto, E. (2019). English language attitude among Filipino prospective language teachers: An analysis through the Mentalist theoretical lens. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 15(2), 23-41.
- Tannen, D. (1995). *You just don't understand: Females and males in conversation*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers Inc.
- Tanpoco,M., Rillo, R., & Alieto, E. (2019). Filipino to English transfer errors in writing among college students: Implications for the senior high school English curriculum. *Asian EFL Journal*, 26 (6.1), 227-246.
- Torres, J., & Alieto, E. (2019a). Acceptability of Philippine English grammatical and lexical items among pre-service teachers. *Asian EFL Journal*, 21(2.3), 158-181.
- Torres, J., & Alieto, E. (2019b). English learning motivation and self-efficacy of Filipino senior high school students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 22(1), 51-72.
- Tupas, R. (2015). Inequalities of multilingualism: challenges to mother tongue-based multilingual education. *Language and Education*, 29(2), 112-124, doi:10.1080/09500782.2014.977295.
- Tupas, R. F. (2006). Standard Englishes: Pedagogical paradigms and their conditions of (im)possibility. In T. Ruanni Tupas & Mario Saraceni (eds.), *English in the World: Global Rules, Global Roles*, 169–185. London: Continuum.

- Ubalde, M., & Rosales, C.M. (2018). Predictive efficacy of student and teacher related factors on students' mathematics learning. *Science International*, 30(6), 819-823.
- UNESCO. (2013). Education in a multilingual world. UNESCO Education Position Paper:Paris: UNESCO. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001297/129728e.pdf>.
- Van De Gaer, E., Pustjens, H., Van Damme, J. & De Munter, A. (2007). Impact of attitudes of peers on language achievement: gender difference. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 101(2), 78-90.doi: 10.3200/joer.101.2.78-93.
- Wang, L. & Ladegaard, H. (2008). Language attitudes and gender in China: perceptions and reported use of Putonghua and Cantonese in the Southern Province. *Language Awareness*, 17(1), 57-77. doi: 10.2167/la425.0.
- Young, C. (2009). Mother Tongue Education in Multilingual Settings : Quality Education for All. *Proceedings,8th International Conference on Language and Development, Bangladesh*.
- Zhang, B. (2011). Gender Dissonance in Language Attitudes: A case of Hongkong. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 4(18), 77–109.



**Gender Mainstreaming the Organizational Communication  
Policies and Practices of Local Government Units in Pangasinan**

**Presley V. de Vera, DCOMM**

*Pangasinan State University-Lingayen Campus*

**Bio-profile:**

**Presley V. De Vera** holds a Doctorate degree in Education (Ed.D.) and a Master's Degree in Communication Arts-English. She also finished Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.). In tireless pursuit for academic expertise, she also pursued a second post graduate degree, i.e. Doctor of Communication (DCOMM) at the University of the Philippines Open University (UPOU). She is affiliated at Pangasinan State University as an Associate Professor. She served as the Chair of the Communication Arts Department in the University's satellite in Lingayen, Pangasinan as well as the Chair of the Master's Degree Programs of the University's Graduate School. She has recently been designated as a Coordinator on Gender and Development (GAD) in Lingayen Campus. She is active in the Gender and Development (GAD) enterprise, being a member of the National Gender and Development Resource Pool of the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW) that has deployed her to various engagements as a gender resource person in different institutions. She has attended and served as presenter in various regional, national and international conferences. She has gained international recognition for the merits of her research works (solo authored/fellow researcher) that have been published in peer-reviewed and refereed international journals, including her most recent research articles registered in Scopus-indexed journals, to wit: Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, The Journal of English as an International Language, The Asian ESP Journal and TESOL International Journal.

**Abstract**

The study used gender mainstreaming to assess and describe the characteristics of the communication policies and practices adopted by Local Government Units (LGUs) in Pangasinan. Data sets are sex-disaggregated to enable analysis of the commonality and variation in the experiences of female and male LGU officials and staff as they partake in

communication roles within their organizational settings. Persons occupying different positions and employed in the different offices of LGUs were tapped as research participants. From the total list of 48 cities and municipalities in Pangasinan, six were selected randomly, namely: Asingan, Lingayen, Rosales, Sta. Barbara, Tayug, and Urdaneta City. The participants of the study in each city/municipality are selected LGU officials (City/Municipal Administrator and City/Municipal Human Resources Management and Development Officer) and LGU staff belonging to the following offices: (a) Office of the Mayor (OM), (b) Office of the Accountant (OA), and (c) Office of the Agriculturist (OA). Data were sourced via structured interview.

Among the salient research findings, the LGUs have no specific department or unit that takes charge in formulating, implementing and regulating policies for internal and external communication. The LGUs have not adopted any localized implementation of communication-related policies. The LGUs differ in deploying administrative sanctions over their own officials or staff relative to communication-related offenses. The LGUs have no specific communication policies when it comes to: “Rules of courtesy in communication”, “Rules of handling classified or confidential information”, and “Rules for expressing constructive criticism”.

Across the LGUs, female and male staff use English as the medium for all official communications. They use several channels of communication, although limited only to certain types of communication channels. They also resort to various cost-cutting measures to reduce operational expenses when it comes to the dispense of official communications. Across the LGUs, female and male staff encounter challenges in the different aspects of organizational communication. Female and male staff differ in their extent of encountering challenges depending on the specific LGU office and the aspect of organizational communication.

On the merits of the research findings and conclusions, a set of recommendations are offered as guidelines in the later deployment of concrete extension projects that can be deployed by Pangasinan State University to the concerned LGUs in order to improve the quality of their organizational communication practices and be able to identify policies in relation thereto that are fair for both female and male employees.

**Keywords:** *Gender mainstreaming, sex-disaggregated analysis, local government unit, organizational communication*

## **Introduction**

Communication is the cornerstone of any organization's success. Effective communication within and across organizations and their external stakeholders ensures the flowing of information between all relevant parties, reducing the potential for misunderstanding, dissatisfaction and lack of trust (Poppulo, 2019). The way in which an organization communicates needs to be consistent and clear across multiple channels (Poppulo, 2019).

It thus becomes imperative for any organization for that matter to establish a clear and consistent culture of effective communication. This may be codified in what we refer to as an organizational communication policy. Unfortunately, many organizations do not maintain this definite code, although their organizational communication practices are indeed intact and implicit in their day-to-day affairs and operations. In a way, there are risks to adopting communication practices that are unwritten and not codified because they cannot be reflected upon, or they cannot be formally deliberated as definitive policies that regulate the communication behaviors of organizational members. Thus, there is a need to deliberate and establish a communication policy to render communication practices explicit and formal instead of being treated as a mere arbitrary culture or trend.

Communication policy seeks to ensure that an organization acknowledges the importance of communications as a strategic management function and as an integral part of its daily functioning (eThekweni Municipality, 2008). It demonstrates that the organization is committed to a transparent and effective relationship with its internal and external stakeholders and will do so by a process of consultation and information dissemination. The organization acknowledges that it has a responsibility to inform its internal and external stakeholders of identified issues, progress made and results achieved in addressing its mandate. Ideally, an organization should maintain a Communication Unit with the responsibility to ensure that all communications activities, including procurement of services, are done in accordance with these policies and procedures. This requires all communication and communication-related activities to be co-coordinated and recommended by the Unit. This has to be done in an accurate, relevant and understandable manner to ensure that it reports its achievements with regard to its mandate; and to ensure that it is visible, accessible and answerable to the public it serves (eThekweni Municipality, 2008).

In the above context, this research aims to raise awareness on the importance of communication practices and policies in the organizational context. It is very unfortunate to note that many of the problems encountered by organizations actually take root in

communication problems. An article published by the Center for Management and Organization Effectiveness (CMOE) identifies “poor communication” among the most common problems of organizations.

Aligned to the aforementioned concerns, this study adopted gender mainstreaming procedure and used sex-disaggregated data to assess and describe the characteristics of the communication policies and practices adopted by respective central offices of local government units (LGUs) within the geographic jurisdiction of Pangasinan. The study aimed to reveal the implications of the communication policies and practices of female and male staff in the different LGUs. Previous studies have explored gender differences when it comes to levels of motivation (Emmiyati, 2018) or gender peculiarities in the use of language (Padlan & De Vera, 2019). The current study, however pursued motivation and language use in a broader context by signifying them to organizational communication.

For the philosophical underpinnings of this study, the assumption is that every organization adopts communication practices as an aspect of their organizational culture which should be explicit and conscious. Philosophically, communication practices pertain to policies on internal and external communication, language policy and delivery method/channel of communication.

This study also assures that there are differences in the experience of female and male members of the organization as they partake in the different aspects of the communication practices.

Specifically, the study answered the following questions:

1. What is/are the specific departments in each LGU that takes charge of the following (if any):
  - a. Formulation of internal and external communication policies, and
  - b. Implementation and regulation of the organization’s internal and external communications code?
2. What are the policies adopted by each LGU when it comes to the administrative sanction of offenses in relation to communication policies or practices?
3. What is the frequency of communication-related administrative sanctions given to LGU officials and staff in the past five years?
4. What are the communication policies or practices adopted by each LGU in terms of the following:
  - a. Courtesy;

- b. Confidential information, and
  - c. Conservative criticism?
5. What are the different contents of messages/information that are communicated by female and male LGU staff in relation to the following:
- a. Language policy;
  - b. Delivery method/channel of communication, and
  - c. Cost strategy of communication?
6. What challenges are encountered by female and male LGU staff in terms of their:
- a. Communication role;
  - b. Context process of communicating message/information;
  - c. Language policy;
  - d. Delivery method/channel of communication;
  - e. Cost strategy of communication, and
  - f. Efficiency of communication?
7. What extension activities can be recommended to improve the organizational communication practices in the LGUs?

## **Methodology**

The study employed sex-disaggregated data analysis. It is a gender mainstreaming tool in which data on individuals are broken down by sex so as to reflect the realities of the lives of women and men and policy issues relating to gender. They provide a basis for differentiating between women and men on various social and economic dimensions (European Institute for Gender Equality). Moreover, this study adopts from the guidelines provided by Doss & Kieran (2013) on the “Standards for Collecting Sex-Disaggregated Data for Gender Analysis: A Guide for CGIAR Researchers”.

The research was carried out in LGUs within the geographic jurisdiction of Pangasinan. From the total list of 48 cities and municipalities in the province, 6 (12.5%) of which are selected randomly, to wit: Asingan, Lingayen, Rosales, Sta. Barbara, Tayug, and Urdaneta City. The participants of the study in each city / municipality are the: (a) city/municipal officials and (b) city/municipal staff. From each city/municipal department/unit, two (2) staff were selected as participants. The selection was also considered a balanced accommodation of female and male participants, as much as possible. The LGU departments / units from where the staff participants were sourced include: Office of the Mayor, Office of the Accountant, and Office of the Agriculturist.

Sourcing of data employed structured interview. Many of the items in the structured interview questionnaire were drawn from the “Gender Mainstreaming in Human Resource Tool Kit” formulated in the 16<sup>th</sup> ASEAN Conference on Civil Service Matters (ACCSM, 2012) held in Malaysia. Phenomenographic analysis was used to process the verbal responses of the participants from the interview in order to determine the descriptive categories of responses with analogous substance, a similar procedure employed by De Vera (2018) in analyzing online teaching discourse. The same qualitative method is used by other studies to analyze political discourses (Medriano & De Vera, 2019).

## **Results and Discussion**

Findings indicate a perfectly consistent response across the six LGUs (i.e. Asingan, Lingayen, Rosales, Sta. Barbara, Tayug, and Urdaneta), in which they claimed that they have no specific department or unit that takes charge in formulating, implementing and regulating the overall set of policies for internal and external communication. Moreover, all the LGUs also perceived that there is no need for the creation of a department to function as such. The LGUs do not find the necessity to create a special department with functions related to the implementation and regulation of organizational communication policies, although this does not imply that the LGUs are actually negating the importance of regulating communication practices in their organization. However, in their views, such concerns are actually taken care of by certain departments.

For LGU-Asingan and Sta. Barbara, it is a function integral to the Office of the Mayor. For LGU-Rosales, the function must be a cooperative venture between the Office of the Mayor and the Municipal Administrator. For LGU-Lingayen, the function is more aligned to the tasks of the Municipal Legal Officer. Only LGU-Tayug and Urdaneta perceived that regulation and implementation of communication policies can be undertaken by each department or unit. Moreover, LGU-Urdaneta actually signifies to it to a process of decentralization, as entailed by the initiative of devolving such functions to the different departments, and that it results to maximizing manpower.

The six LGUs consistently accounted that they have not adopted, nor do they have any localized implementation of communication-related policies. As to the LGUs’ general impression about communication policies being implemented in their own organization, and what strategies can be taken to efficiently develop, implement and enforce these policies, the LGUs perceived that communication policies should focus on the concerns of online communication to combat the proliferation of fake news that can be destructive to the

organization. Likewise, communication policies are established as a guide for all members of the organization to make them aware of the restrictions of their communications. Moreover, communication policies are established in order to facilitate internal and external communication processes engaged by the organization, to ensure that these processes are efficiently conducted.

Based on their records covering 5 years (i.e. fiscal year 2015 to 2020), the six LGUs, except for Lingayen, consistently accounted that they have no existing records within the last 5 years of having deployed administrative sanctions over their own officials or employees relative to communication-related offenses. This goes with the exception of LGU-Lingayen which reports a single communication-related administrative case within the last 5 years, i.e. a case of “dishonesty”. As to the LGUs perception about the importance of regulating the communication practices of officials and employees in their organizations, they believe that policies that sanction communication-related offenses should be in place in order to deter the commission of such acts. They should be in place in order to design an effective protocol for investigating such cases and analyzing evidence thereof that will determine if a respondent is guilty or not.

All the participating LGUs reported that they have no communication policies when it comes to “Rules of courtesy in communication”. As to the LGUs’ perception of strategies that can be used to prepare their organizations in adopting and implementing communication policies on workplace courtesy, the policies should be explicit and formal so that the LGU employees know the exact rules (what to do and what not to do), and thereby avoid actions that are violative of these rules.

All the participating LGUs reported that they have no communication policies when it comes to “Rules of handling classified or confidential information”. As to the LGUs’ perception of strategies that can be used to prepare their organizations in adopting and implementing policies on confidentiality in workplace communication, the policies should be explicit and formal in order to secure the image and safety of the LGU and its constituents (officials and employees).

All the participating LGUs reported that they have no communication policies when it comes to “Rules of handling classified or confidential information”. As to the LGUs’ perception of strategies that can be used to prepare their organizations in adopting and implementing policies on constructive criticism in the workplace, the policies should be explicit and formal in order to set a guide for LGU constituents on proper ways of expressing their criticisms.

The female and male staff under the different LGU departments adopt English as the sole formal medium in all official communications. Likewise, official communications engaged in by female and male staff of the LGUs are cascaded by means of oral and print medium using both traditional and IT-informed means of communication. Female and male staff also use varied cost-cutting strategies to economize communication-related expenses.

The communication challenges that are identified by female and male staff signify to: (a) Communication role; (b) Context/process of communicating message/information; and (c) Channel of communication. Among the challenges encountered along communication role, there is poor client profiling system (i.e. no record of contact numbers of clients), as well as slow services (i.e. not all clients are adequately entertained in their concerns prompting them to keep on returning to the office). As to challenges encountered along the process of communicating message/information, there are instances of delayed movement of communications due to: (a) the unavailability of some signatories to the official letters (as they may be on leave or on official travel); and (b) signatories missing to sign on certain communications / documents. As to challenges encountered along the channel of communication, there are problems with person-to-person transmission of communications due to: (a) unavailability of messenger / liaison personnel, and (b) official vehicle not available. Likewise, there are problems with electronic communications due to poor / loose internet connection. There are also cases of poorly organized filing system (i.e. some communications meant for certain offices are lodged in other offices). In terms of cost strategy of communication, there is inadequacy of e-mail as a cost-cutting communication channel (i.e. e-mails are not always attended to or immediately responded).

## **Conclusions**

Based on the merits of the findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The LGUs have no specific department or unit that takes charge in formulating the overall set of policies for internal and external communication, although they are open to the adoption of such policies. Likewise, The LGUs have no specific department or unit that takes charge in implementing and regulating policies for internal and external communication, although they are open to adopt such functions.
2. The LGUs have not adopted, nor do they have any localized implementation of communication-related policies, although they are open to maintain such policies.
3. The LGUs differ in deploying administrative sanctions over their own officials or employees relative to communication-related offenses.

4. The LGUs have no specific communication policies when it comes to: “Rules of courtesy in communication”, “Rules of handling classified or confidential information”, and “Rules for expressing constructive criticism”, although all the LGUs expressed the importance of such policies and are open to strategize their adoption into their system.

5. Across the LGUs, female and male staff use English as the medium for all official communications. They use several channels of communication, although limited only to certain types of communication channels. They also resort to various cost-cutting measures to reduce operational expenses when it comes to the dispense of official communications.

6. Across the LGUs, female and male staff encounter challenges in the different aspects of organizational communication. Female and male staff differ in their extent of encountering challenges depending on the specific LGU office and the aspect of organizational communication.

## **Recommendations**

The kernel of the recommendations of the study is aimed to fill in the gaps or points that require remediation and improvement that can be addressed through viable extension projects that can be done by the University for the benefit of the LGUs. As a launching point for designing the appropriate extension projects, the following recommendations are offered:

1. The LGUs have to be exposed to awareness raising venues in order to realize the imperative and exigency for adopting specific strategies and mechanisms in formulating, implementing and regulating policies and practices for internal and external communications in their respective organizations.

2. The LGUs have to be exposed to awareness raising venues in order to capacitate them to locally implement communication-related policies from their initiative to come up with their customized implementing rules and regulations (IRR) that are based on relevant state policies.

3. The LGUs have to be more conscious in observing and regulating their employees’ communication acts to eradicate instances of communication-related offenses, or be able to impose appropriate sanctions and disciplinary measures to offenders.

4. The LGUs have to be exposed to awareness raising venues in order to assist them in coming up with their communication policies along “Rules of courtesy in communication”, “Rules of handling classified or confidential information”, and “Rules for expressing constructive criticism”.

5. It is highly recommended for the LGUs to upgrade their employees' skills along the use of English as the medium for official communications, the use of more channels of communication, and the employment of cost-cutting measures to reduce operational expenses on their communication-related activities.

6. The LGUs have to be exposed to awareness raising venues in order to assist female and male employees to cope efficiently with their challenges encountered in the different aspects of organizational communication.

## References

- Center for Management and Organization Effectiveness (CMOE). "The 5 Most Common Problems of Organizations". Retrieved from <https://cmoe.com/blog/organizational-problem/>.
- De Vera, P. V. (2018). Variance in the Use of Invitational and Intrusive Rhetoric in Online EFL Teaching Discourse. *Asian EFL Journal*, Volume 20 Issue, 12.3.
- Doss, C. & C. Kieran (2013). Standards for Collecting Sex-Disaggregated Data for Gender Analysis: A Guide for CGIAR Researchers. Consortium. Retrieved from <https://www.pim.cgiar.org/files/2012/05/Standards-for-Collecting-Sex-Disaggregated-Data-for-Gender-Analysis.pdf>.
- eThekwini Municipality (2008). Communications Policy. Retrieved from [http://www.durban.gov.za/Resource\\_Centre/Policies/Documents/CommunicationsPolicy.pdf](http://www.durban.gov.za/Resource_Centre/Policies/Documents/CommunicationsPolicy.pdf).
- Emmiyati, Nuri (2018). Gender Differences in Self-Determination Motivation to Learn English. *Asian EFL Journal*. Volume 20, Issue 10.
- European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) (2019). "Sex-Disaggregated Data". Retrieved from <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming/methods-tools/sex-disaggregated-data>.
- Gender Mainstreaming in Human Resource Toolkit. Retrieved from <http://ww1.csc.gov.ph/phocadownload/userupload/root/GENDER%20MAINSTREAMING%20toolkit.pdf>.
- Medriano, R. S. Jr. & De Vera, P. V. (2019). Dominance Construction in Monologic Political Discourse Based on Selected Public Speeches of President Rodrigo Roa Duterte. *Asian EFL Journal*, Vol. 23, No. 3.4.

Padlan, C. I. B. & De Vera, P. V. (2019). Sex-Disaggregated Inventory of Sexist-Oriented and Other Types of Lexical Errors among First Year BSE English Students. *Asian EFL Journal*. Vol. 26 Issue No. 6.1.

Poppulo (2019). The Importance of Communication in an Organization.

Retrieved from <https://www.poppulo.com/blog/importance-of-communication-in-an-organization/>.



## **The Effect of Collaborative versus Cooperative Pre-writing Task on Writing Ability of Iranian EFL Learners**

**Reza Raissi**

*Assistant Professor of Department of English Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran*  
*Email: [rezaraissi99@gmail.com](mailto:rezaraissi99@gmail.com)*

**Maryam Beiki**

*Department of English Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran*  
*Email: [Maryam.beyki1248@gmail.com](mailto:Maryam.beyki1248@gmail.com)*

**Neda Gharagozloo**

*Assistant Professor of Department of English Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran*  
*Email: [N.gh@iauvaramin.ac.ir](mailto:N.gh@iauvaramin.ac.ir)*

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Maryam Beiki** is PhD candidate in Islamic Azad University Varamin-Pishva branch. She has published several papers in national and international journals and participated in several national and international conferences. Her area of interest is applied linguistics and testing.

**Neda Gharagozloo** holds a PhD in Linguistics from Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran. She is an assistant professor of department of English translation in Islamic Azad University Varamin-Pishva Branch, and teaches in related disciplines. She has written several books and published several papers in national and international journals. Her area of interest is cognitive linguistics and applied linguistics.

**Dr. Reza Raissi** holds a PhD in TESL from UTM university Malaysia. He is an assistant professor of department of English translation in Islamic Azad University Varamin-Pishva

Branch and teaches in related disciplines. He has published several papers in international journals and his area of interest is teaching methodology, testing and applied linguistics.

### **Abstract**

Nowadays the challenging situation instructors experience is related to the performance of the most operative techniques in educational context. The present study through mixed method data analysis, examines the effect of collaborative and cooperative pre-writing activities on writing ability of Iranian EFL students. Moreover, a classroom observation scheme, designed on the basis of literature on collaborative theory and cooperative learning principles, was used to monitor how well and to what extent instructors practice collaborative tasks in writing classes. To this end through stratified random sampling 80 students majoring in English language translation in Islamic Azad University in Tehran were designated as the contributors of the investigation. After conducting Oxford Placement Test (OPT) 66 students, whose level was advanced were selected as participants of the study. Then, students were assigned to collaborative and cooperative pre-writing groups. These two groups were considered as experimental and the control clusters. The study was done over 16 weeks which included pre- and post-tests. Outcomes of the study shows that students' writing ability in both groups have been developed. The findings of t-test, reveals that the collaborative group surpassed the cooperative pre-writing group. Additionally, the result of observation indicated a welcoming atmosphere toward the implementation of collaborative and cooperative tasks. In this study, the researchers took the initiative to make a distinction between collaborative and cooperative pre-writing tasks. Therefore, the outcomes of the present investigation are useful for language practitioners, university students and educational administrators.

**Keywords:** *Collaborative pre-writing tasks, Cooperative pre-writing tasks, English language teaching and learning*

### **Introduction**

Commonly used terms to define procedures and techniques for promoting students' collaboration and communication are collaborative learning (Bruffee, 1973, 1984; Golub, 1988) and cooperative learning (Cohen, 1994; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 2008; Slavin, 1995). These two terms are used interchangeably in most cases but they are not the same. Since 1970s, developments in education highlighted student-student communication as an important

component in education (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 1975; Vygotsky, 1978). Then knowledge transmission (Faulkner, 2006) and knowledge construction (Driver, Asoko, Leach, Scott, & Mortimer, 1994) were proposed. According to a knowledge transmission perspective, data goes into students' heads without being sifted by what is previously at hand. Based on this viewpoint, the dominant role of group is concerned with group members where they master the material conveyed to them by their instructors (Faulkner, 2006). On the other hand, the most prevalent form of the knowledge construction outlook is social constructivism (Palincsar, 1998). Based on this perspective learner build their personal systems of knowledge by join forces as they link new information to their present information. This view point highlights group activities as a venue for peer interaction.

Panitz (1999) believed that the underlying principle of collaborative learning is based on group memberships, collaboration and members support, while cooperative learning is well-defined as a processes to cooperate together in order to achieve a precise objective or grow a finale. It is more directive than a collaborative learning theory and carefully organized by the teacher. Cooperative learning is teacher-centered, whereas collaborative learning is learner-centered.

It is believed that cooperative learning is more teacher-centered when establishing heterogeneous groups, constructing positive inter-dependence, and teaching cooperative skills (Myers, 1991 as cited in Panitz,1999). Moreover, Woods (1996) mentions that cooperative learning deals entirely with traditional knowledge, while collaborative draws on the social constructivist movement, emphasizing that both knowledge and authority of knowledge have altered in the last century. In this regard Brody and Davidson (1998) highlight that social interdependence theory, cognitive-developmental theory and the behavioral learning theory lead to cooperative learning strategies. On the other hand, the social essence of human understanding and constructivism perspective shaped the foundation of collaborative learning. O'Neil, Chuang, and Chung (2004) believe that cooperative learning should be included in educational context. It enhances student-student interaction in a supportive environment (Abrami, Poulsen & Chambers, 2004; Johnson & Johnson, 2011; Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Slavin, 1995). Teaching writing skills should be accompanied with peer feedback to facilitate editing process (Moloudi,2011). At all educational levels in Iranian classrooms a teacher-centered approach seems to be utilized (Farzaneh & Nejadansari,2014). In this case the instructors are the source of knowledge with learners passively taking notes and ask few or no questions. Taking this into account, this study was directed to examine collaborative and cooperative pre-writing tasks in essay writing

classes in Iranian university context. Several investigations have been conducted to evaluate the positive effect of collaborative task (Jafari & Nejad Ansari,2012; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Yong, 2010) and cooperative learning on writing skills (Ahangari & Samadian,2014; Yumi,2015) but to the researchers' knowledge few studies have been conducted about collaborative and cooperative pre-writing tasks in essay writing classes. Consequently, in the current investigation the researchers took the initiative to conduct a study in this regard.

### **Literature review**

Writing research in EFL and ESL context has full-grown over the last 40 years, precisely between the late 1980s and the beginning of 1990s. Consequently, writing skills became an interdisciplinary arena of analysis (Matsuda, 2003). Writing skills needs a number of knowledge containing grammar, vocabulary, and rhetorical construction of the language (Fitze & Glasgow, 2009). It stimulates rational and supports education and reflection on the English language (Maghsoudi & Haririan, 2013) and increases students' collaborative capabilities (Storch, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Yong, 2010). Additionally, pre-writing stage fortifies students' thoughtfulness and has a crucial role in training writing (Colantone, 1998). In comparison with the traditional methods of teaching and learning, collaborative and cooperative learning are more effective in terms of increasing students' interaction and learning. Many studies have revealed the applicability of collaboration (e.g., Crosthwaite ,2011; Franken & Haslett, 2002; Storch, 2005; Yong, 2010) and cooperation (e.g. AbdelWahab, 2014; Chen, 2004; Cole, 2012; Elola &Oskoz, 2010; Mulyanah ,2017; Mohamed &Mahmoud, 2014; Tran,2014; Yumi,2015) in teaching writing. In this line, Mazdayasna and Zaini (2015) examined the consequence of collaborative prewriting activities on learners' identity construction and L2 writing progress in Iranian EFL context. The consequences of their study revealed that students who were involved in collaborative pre-writing tasks performed better than the students who worked individually. The findings of their study confirmed the importance of prewriting activities in developing writing ability of Iranian EFL learners.

Among the studies investigated the collaborative writing and cooperative learning in essay writing classes, approximately all of them showed the similar results and learners presented positive attitudes towards these two techniques. In this regard, Tran (2014) examined the effects of cooperative learning on the attainment and knowledge preservation of 110 primary learners over the eight weeks of instruction in Vietnamese higher education. In the experimental group, cooperative learning was applied, whereas in the control group, lecture-

based education was applied. The outcomes presented that students who were trained through cooperative learning attained meaningfully higher scores on the achievement and knowledge preservation than the other group. The research maintains the efficiency of cooperative learning in higher educational context.

Similarly, Yumi (2015) examined the incorporation of cooperative learning in writing task to endorse student fluency in writing. To this end 57 contributors responded pre- and post-task questionnaires associated to a short video-clip explanation assignment with their peers. The outcomes of the investigation proposed that cooperative learning had a constructive effect on participants' attitude regarding writing activity. In the same line, Angeles and Andres (2016) surveyed the students' perceptions toward collaborative and cooperative learning in university context. The result of their study did not show differences between collaborative and cooperative learning from a qualitative perspective. In the same vein, Mulyanah (2017) examined the influence of cooperative learning and individual activity on writing ability of university students in Tangerang. The result of investigation revealed that cooperative learning had a constructive effect on students' writing skill.

On the other hand, regarding collaborative tasks application in writing classes Storch (2007) examined pair work through comparing texts created through collaboration as opposed to those created by individual students. The analysis of written tasks presented no difference regarding accuracy of activity accomplished independently or collaboratively; likewise, the examination of transcribed paired showed that maximum pairs engaged actively in the word choice. The result proposed that group work may not result in better accuracy, but it offers L2 students the occasion to practice L2 language and jointly acquire the language.

Accordingly, in second language context Wiggleworth and Storch (2009) studied the benefits of collaborative writing among 48 pair writing groups. The researchers compared the writing created by learners through pairs collaboration with those worked independently regarding some issues such as correctness, fluency and complexity. Likewise, contributors were requested to write an essay and they should debate the merit and demerits of exam-based evaluation. Results of the study presented that collaboration had an optimistic influence on writing accurateness, but does not affect fluency and complexity. In the same vein in Iranian context Jafari and Nejad Ansari (2012) studied the consequence of teamwork on Iranian EFL learners' writing correctness. Sixty Iranian EFL students participated in this study. The experimental group engaged in collaborative writing while the control group experienced individual writing tasks. The result of their study showed that the learners in the collaborative

group outdid the learners in the other group which highlights the important effect of collaboration in L2 writing.

A table is presented to discuss cooperative learning components based on Johnson , Johnson and Holubec (2008).

**Table1.**Components of cooperative learning.

Components	Description of Components
Positive Interdependence	It refers to working together for a joint objective and considering each other’s learning. (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).
Quality of group communication process	Over face-to-face interaction students group together to discuss information and complete the assigned task.
Individual Accountability	Each student should study the accountability for helping the team to increase its learning objectives. Students must concentrate on their progress as a group and as an individual member do their reasonable share of the work.
Teaching interpersonal and small group skills	Engaging socially unskilled students in a group and instruct them openly to cooperate with others. (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).
Teaching of the social skills	Schultz (1999) specified that social skills should be taught openly. So, students should work together without hostility. Group members must be trained social skills for superiority cooperation and incentive to use social skills.

A table is presented to discuss differences between collaborative learning and cooperative learning by presenting a number of issues in education based on Panitz(1999).

**Table2.**Differences between collaborative and cooperative learning.

Cooperative	Collaborative
Students will be trained in small group to gain social skills.	Commonly held view is that students already have the essential social skills, and that they will shape their current skills in order to achieve their goals.

Tasks are done with each student having a explicit role.	Students do efforts themselves.
The teacher observes, listens and intervenes in a group when necessary.	Instructors do not observe the task. The instructor direct the students to the information required.
Students hand in assignments at the end of lesson for assessment.	Students use drafts to complete extra work.
Students evaluate individual and group enactment.	Students judge individual and group presentation.

Among the studies surveyed the collaborative writing, cooperative learning and overall achievements of EFL/ESL learners in essay writing classes, approximately all of them pooled the similar results and learners presented positive attitudes toward these two techniques. According to the literature review the following research questions and research objectives have been designed by the researchers.

RQ1. Does collaborative pre-writing task affect Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

RQ2. Does cooperative pre-writing task affect Iranian EFL learners' essay writing?

RQ3. What is the effect of collaborative pre-writing task and cooperative pre-writing task on students' essay writing performance?

RQ4. How collaborative and cooperative learning principles practiced in university context?

### ***Objectives of the study***

This investigation studies the extent to which collaborative and cooperative pre-writing tasks affect Iranian EFL learners writing ability. The aim of the present study is two-fold.

First, to investigate the effect of collaborative and cooperative pre-writing task on students writing ability.

Second, to investigate the implementation of collaborative and cooperative pre-writing task in essay writing classes. Finally, some suggestions are offered on the basis of the findings of the study.

### **Methods**

In the current investigation, the researchers used mixed method to gather the required data. To this aim a quasi-experimental design, an empirical investigation to assess the fundamental impact of an intervention on the students, was used. Quasi-experiment is

appropriate for social science(Aryetal.,2010). Precisely, it is regularly used in EFL teaching investigations. Thus, mixed method, both quantitative and qualitative data analysis, and quasi experimental design was carried out in this investigation and three major phases, namely pre-test, treatment, and posttest were employed.

### ***Participants***

In order to come up with conclusive and persuasive findings, convenient sampling was used. Consequently, among 80 Iranian students which considered as the population of the study, based on their performance on (OPT), 66 advanced EFL students between 20 and 27 years old served as the participants of the study. Students were English language translation at Islamic Azad University of Tehran and all the participants were Iranian native speakers.

### ***Instrumentation***

As the first instrument in the study, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (Allen, 2004) was applied. This examination is a validated placement test, which is published by Oxford University Press and it is usually used to evaluate the participants' language proficiency level. The second instrument in this study was a writing pretest. The written texts were corrected based on Storch and Tapper's (2009) the correction structure. The third instrument was a writing posttest. The fourth instrument in this study was observation scheme developed by the researchers.

### ***Research procedure***

This research examined the effects of collaborative and cooperative pre-writing tasks and their effect on writing ability of a group of Iranian EFL students in Islamic Azad university. The 80 students in Islamic Azad university were given the Oxford Placement Test. Following the correction of the papers, the 66 participants whose obtained scores was advanced were designated as the contributors of the study. The 2 intact classes met a session a week with a 90-minute duration within 14 weeks. The participants studied 'Academic Writing book from Paragraph to Essay' (Zemack & Rumisek,2010), through which the learners studied about authentic text, summary writing, grammar and text organization. Besides, students had 30 minutes of writing task based on determined topics. The learners were asked to write an essay of about 250 words under time limitation in each session.

### ***Writing pre-test and post-test***

The topic of the writing was selected by the researchers. The writing examination on ‘‘effective advertisement’’ was used as writing pre-test. Storch and Tapper’s (2009) guide was used for correction of the writing tasks. Then, the classes were randomly allocated to collaborative and cooperative groups. Similar to the practice sessions, for writing posttest the students in both groups wrote their compositions in 30 minutes on ‘‘environmental contamination’’. The writing activities were investigated based on the aforementioned correction guide by the researchers.

### ***Collaborative Group***

Thirty-three participants of collaborative group were divided into groups; each group included at least four members. In this group, students experienced collaborative pre-writing tasks. One week before the study, participants in this group were given some information about collaborative pre-writing tasks such as participants’ roles and decision-making tasks.

The class was separated into groups, four participants in each group. Each member had a different accountability. For instance, one of members offered to make a list of related words and themes associated with the subject matter, another participant agreed to search for an essay related to the subject matter at hand, and the third member decided to summarize the essay and the fourth member prepared an outline, summarized all the materials and shared it with all group members through Telegram. With each new subject matter, the responsibilities in a group has changed. Participants shared their chores and jointly discussed about different issues related to the topic before writing task.

Participants wrote about ten similar topics which have been used in both collaborative and cooperative groups. Then groups wrote individually in the classroom which took about 30 minutes. Finally, the instructor collected the compositions and corrected them based on the Storch and Tapper’s (2009) correction guide. By considering the development of introduction, body, conclusion, organization, mechanics and content the instructor evaluated the essays and wrote her comments on various aspects of writing.

### ***Cooperative Group***

Thirty-three participants experienced cooperative pre-writing tasks. In this group the Charette method of brain storming was used as cooperative pre-writing tasks. As for this group, before the writing activity, the students informed about the topic of writing and Charette method of brain storming which is a step-based procedure (Christmas, 2011) was applied. In

order to do this, the topic of writing was broken down into smaller questions. Then students were given five minutes to individually brainstorm ideas. Then, the class divided into groups with at least four members. Subsequently, students discussed their ideas in small groups. Each group, designated a reporter to review and summarize the thoughts generated cooperatively by that group. The reporters reported the ideas developed by the group members to the class. At this stage none of the ideas of the groups was rejected. Then, the instructor arranged the ideas according to the suggestions given by all of the students and wrote them on the board. At that time, the students wrote individually for about 30 minutes in the classroom. In this group the interaction was between the students and instructor while in the collaborative group the interaction was mainly between students. At the final stage, the instructor corrected the compositions based on the aforementioned criteria and wrote comments on various aspects of the students' compositions.

## **Results and Discussion**

Descriptive statistics, specified that there was no statistically meaningful difference between the means of the two clusters on the pretest of writing, collaborative group ( $M = 15.87$ ,  $Sd. = 1.02$ ) and cooperative group ( $M = 15.42$ ,  $Sd. = 1.03$ ). To answer the investigation questions, paired samples t-test was applied after the treatment. The descriptive statistics of writing posttest specified that there was a statistically meaningful difference between mean of two clusters on writing post-test collaborative group ( $M = 17.81$ ,  $Sd. = 1.28$ )  $t = -14.135$  and cooperative group ( $M = 16.63$ ,  $Sd. = 1.19$ ),  $t = -11.608$ ,  $p < .05$ . In fact, collaborative pre-writing task was more effective than cooperative pre-writing task in developing the participants' writing ability.

## **Results of the collaborative group**

In this section, the descriptive statistics regarding the pre-test and post-test of the collaborative cluster is presented.

**Table 3.** Descriptive Statistics regarding the pre-test and Post-test of writing

Statistics		Collaborative Pretest	Collaborative Posttest
N	Valid	33	33
	Missing	0	0
Mean		15.8788	17.8182
Std. Deviation		1.02340	1.28585
Minimum		14.00	14.00
Maximum		18.00	20.00

In order to investigate the pre-test and post-test writing scores of the contributors about their collaborative pre-writing task, the mean of their pre-test and post-tests have been compared. According to the data, presented in the above table, the mean of the students' scores in the pre-test of writing was 15.87 while their post-test mean was 17.81. Results of this section shows progresses in the writing enactment of the students between the pre and post-tests.

**Table 4.** Paired Samples t-test between pre-test and post-test writing collaborative group

Paired Samples Test		Paired Differences		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Collaborative Pretest – Collaborative Posttest	-1.93939	.78817	.13720	-2.21887	-1.65992	-14.135	32	.000

A paired sample t-test was directed to investigate pre-test and post-test of collaborative group performance on writing ability of Iranian EFL learners. Based on the data obtained, there was a meaningful difference in pre-test (M=15.87, SD=1.02) and post-test (M=18.81, SD=1.28), while  $t(32) = -14.135$ ,  $P = 0.00$ , two-tailed,  $P < .05$ . Based on the data presented in Tables 3 and 4, the Mean Index of the post-test is higher than pre-test and the P value is below

the required cut-off scores of .05. Consequently, it can be concluded that there is a meaningful difference between the pre-test and the post-test.

### Results of cooperative group

In this section, results of the study, regarding the participants' performance in the cooperative group is presented. To this aim, the findings of the descriptive statistics of the pre-test and post-test as well as the paired sample t-test of their differences is presented.

**Table 5.** Descriptive Statistics regarding the pre-test and post-test of cooperative group

Statistics			
		Cooperative Pretest	Cooperative Posttest
N	Valid	33	33
	Missing	0	0
Mean		15.4242	16.6364
Std. Deviation		1.03169	1.19421
Minimum		14.00	14.00
Maximum		17.00	19.00

As presented in the above table, the mean of the writing pre-test regarding the cooperative pre-writing group was 15.42, while the mean of the post-test was 16.63 which shows a significant development in their writing performance.

**Table 6.** Paired Samples t-test regarding the difference between the pre-test and post-test of cooperative cluster

Paired Samples Test							
Paired Differences		Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			

Pair	Cooperative	-1.21212	.59987	.10442	-1.42483	-.99942	-11.608	32	.000
1	Pretest – Cooperative Posttest								

A paired sample t-test was directed to investigate the participants' enactment regarding the pre-test and post-test of cooperative group writing ability. Based on the data obtained, there was a meaningful difference between pre-test (M=15.42, SD=1.03) and post-test (M=16.53, SD=1.19), while  $t(32) = -11.60$ ,  $P = 0.00$ , two-tailed,  $P < .05$ . Based on the data presented in table 5 and 6 the Mean Index of the post-test is higher than the pre-test, and the P value is below the required cut-off scores of .05. Consequently, it can be determined that there is a meaningful difference between the learners' performance regarding their pre-test and post-test of the cooperative pre-writing group.

#### **A comparison between the results of the collaborative and cooperative post-tests**

In order to compare the effectiveness of the collaborative versus cooperative pre-writing task, an independent sample t-test has been directed to examine their related post-test results. In this section, the results of this part are presented.

**Table 7.** Mean difference of collaborative versus cooperative tasks

#### **Group Statistics**

	Code	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	Collaborative	33	17.8182	1.28585	.22384
	Cooperative	33	16.6364	1.19421	.20789

As presented in the above table the mean of the collaborative group regarding the pre-writing task was 17.81, while the mean of the cooperative group is 16.63. The results of this section reflects a meaningful difference between the post-tests of the collaborative versus cooperative group, in which collaborative group had a better performance.

**Table 8.** Independent sample t-test between collaborative and cooperative groups

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score	Equal variances assumed	.079	.780	3.869	64	.000	1.18182	.30548	.57155	1.79209
	Equal variances not assumed			3.869	63.653	.000	1.18182	.30548	.57148	1.79215

Based on the data presented in table 5, there was a meaningful difference between collaborative (M=17.81, SD=1.28) and cooperative post-test (M=16.63, SD=1.19), while  $t(64) = 3.86$ ,  $P = 0.00$ , two-tailed,  $P < .05$ . Based on the data obtained from the participants of the current investigation, there is a meaningful difference between the results of the collaborative and cooperative post-writing tasks. The results signifies that students had a better significant performance on the collaborative pre-writing tasks and this type of task helped them to improve their writing competence as well as its performnce to a high extent.

### Result of classroom observation

To get the reliability of the observation scheme, it was tried to gain intra-coder reliability for the scheme. For intra-coder reliability, the researcher observed and recorded the same classes with time interval twice and the correlation between the observations and the recordings was computed. The intra-coder reliability turned out to be .88.

**Table 9.** Results of the Intra-Coder Reliability of the Observation Scheme.

<b>Correlations</b>			
		Intera-coder	Coder2
Intera-coder	Pearson Correlation	1	.888**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	15	15
Coder2	Pearson Correlation	.888**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	15	15

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

After studying several developed observation schemes and observing some classes, a classroom observation scheme was designed on the basis of literature on Collaborative theory and Cooperative Learning. It was used to monitor how well instructors practice collaborative and cooperative principles. The objective of the observations was to examine to what extent and how the participants utilized collaborative strategies and conceptual understanding of cooperative learning in their writing classes. Each observation was conducted during a 90-minute instructional period at the IAU which is located in Tehran, Iran. To observe these classes researchers observed the classes twice with time interval. Since the goal of the study was to understand classroom practice as a complete observer, researcher gave full attention to the instructors and their teaching practice (Rist, 1977). In analyzing the data, researcher used a similar procedure which Luttrell (2000) employed in her analysis of data. Theme analysis was conducted and codes were identified.

**Table 10.** Observation codes identified by the researcher

Themes	Categories	Keywords/Key Phrases/Key Clauses (Codes)
<b><i>Positive Interdependence and Joint Problem Solving</i></b>	Techniques , procedures	joint objectives, collaborative guideline, decision making, working together, group task, create group roles, stablishing team, group and individual members' responsibility, generating new ideas, group problem solving, motivated students for further participation, Round Robin, Rally Robin.
<b><i>Quality of Group Interaction Process and peer evaluation</i></b>	Teachers and learners' activities	Students mutual interaction, , exchange information, elaboration of assigned material, accomplishment of the task, chaos, think pair share, group discussion, opportunity for discussion, peer feedback, contribution to the process of the group work, students teach each other.
<b><i>Individual Accountability</i></b>	Self- correction Peer feedback	Accountability for helping the team, self-reflection, self-assessment, comment, judge the performance of their peers, group members' oral feedback, peer correction, self-direction and resourcefulness.

<b>Teaching Interpersonal and Small Group Skills</b>	Students engagement	Engage unskilled students, mixed ability groups, group interaction, educate students for cooperation, assign group tasks, guideline for participation, task-based learning, study teams, common task.
<b>Teaching of Social Skills</b>	Social activity	Social skills, working together without hostility, debates, motivation for using social skill, reasoning, share credit for good ideas with others, acknowledge others' skill, experience social skills, creativity, members' contributions, boost students' confidence.

The following table presents Mean Index of instructors' instructional practices.

**Table 11.** Mean Index of instructors' instructional practices

Principles	Mean	SD
Positive Interdependence and Joint Problem Solving	10.25	.62
Quality of Group Interaction Process and peer evaluation	9.50	.52
Teaching of Social Skills Working	9.50	.67

Individual Accountability	9.45	.90
Teaching Interpersonal and Small Group Skills	9	.85

Based on the data presented in the above table the principle that received the highest rank among the five cooperative principles and collaborative strategy was related to “Positive Interdependence and Joint Problem Solving” (M=10.25, SD=.62). The principle with the second highest Mean Index was related to the “Quality of Group Interaction Process and peer evaluation” (M= 9.5, SD=.52). “Teaching of Social Skills Working” ranked third among the five principles (M= 9.50, SD= .67). “Individual Accountability” received the fourth highest Mean index (M=9.45, SD=.90). Finally, “Teaching Interpersonal and Small Group Skills” received the lowest Mean Index among the principles (M=9, SD=.85).

The following table presents instructional practices of instructors regarding positive interdependence and joint problem solving.

**Table 12.** Descriptive statistics for positive interdependence and joint problem solving.

Item	N	S	M	VM	Mean Index	SD
1.instructor supplies a set of techniques and guideline	0	0	1 25%	3 75%	3.75	.50
2.instructor motivates her learners to work in group task			2 50%	2 50%	3.5	.57
3.Apply collaborative task teaching strategy		1 25%	2 50%	1 25%	3.00	.81

Based on the above table most of the participants (75%) supplied a set of techniques and guideline in their writing classes. On the other hand, (25%) of them applied this procedure in moderation. Regarding motivating learners to work in group task (100%) of the instructors practiced this strategy. Besides, concerning application of teaching collaborative task majority of instructors (75%) practice collaborative task instruction in their writing classes. On the contrary, (25%) of instructors seldom used this procedure. The result is opposed to Moges' (2019) study which showed that during class observation in college context the roles of positive interdependence, doing cooperative tasks and taking responsibility during group tasks, were unobserved activities.

The following table presents instructional practices of instructors regarding quality of group interaction process and peer evaluation.

**Table 13.** Descriptive statistics for quality of group interaction process and peer evaluation.

Item	N	S	M	VM	Mean Index	SD
4.student interact and communicate with each other.			2 50%	2 50%	3.50	.57
5.Students work together and teach each other.			3 75%	1 25%	3.25	.50
6.Students monitor their group members task.		1 25%	3 75%		2.75	.50

Based on the above table all of the participants (100%) motivated students to interact and communicate with each other during task implementation. Besides, (100%) of them encouraged students work together in order to teach each other to deal with their problems. Additionally, majority of instructors (75%) asked students to monitor their group members task and do peer editing and peer evaluation. On the other hand, (25%) of them seldom practiced this strategy in their writing classes. The finding resembles Richards' (1990) view point regarding collaborative tasks as an effective way of achieving student interaction in developing

the learners' cognitive skills which leads to peer-feedback and generating ideas in essay writing classes.

The following table presents instructional practices of instructors regarding individual accountability.

**Table 14.** Descriptive statistics for individual accountability.

Items	N	S	M	VM	Mean Index	SD
9.Students provide peer correction and peer feedback in an interactive context.			2 50%	2 50%	3.50	.57
8.Students accept their role as a group member.		1 25%	1 25%	2 50%	3.25	.95
7.students actively and enthusiastically participate in the writing activities.		1 25%	3 75%		2.70	.50

Based on the above table all of the participants (100%) provided students with peer correction and peer feedback in an interactive context. Besides, (75%) of instructors motivated students accept their role as a group member and actively and enthusiastically participate in the writing activities with their group members. The finding regarding individual accountability echoes Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec's (1994a) view point where each group member realize themselves as a part of a group and they must try to "sink or swim together" (p. 9). They highlight the intellect of working together for a shared objective.

The following table shows the instructional practices of instructors' regarding teaching interpersonal and small group skills.

**Table 15.** Descriptive statistics for teaching interpersonal and small group skills.

Items	N	S	M	VM	Mean Index	SD
10.Students involve in task based learning through communicative activity.		1 25%	2 50%	1 25%	3.00	.81
11.Students are organized based on mixed ability group.	1 25%	2 50%	1 25%		3.00	1.1
12.Students rely on the group members' ideas and answers.		1 25%	2 50%	1 25%	3.00	.81

Based on the above table most of the participants (75%) engaged students in communicative activity. On the other hand, minority of them (25%) hardly ever applied communicative procedure. Besides, most of instructors (75%) organized students in mixed ability group and through creating interactive context in classes majority of instructors (75%) asked students rely on their group members' ideas and answers. The result of observation concerning group interaction in writing classes echoes Swain's (2000) perspective regarding collaborative tasks implementation. She highlight that cooperative problem solving would result in collaborative dialogue and would result in better performance during collaborative task.

The following table demonstrates the instructional practices of instructors regarding teaching of social skills.

**Table 16.** Descriptive statistics for teaching of social skills working.

Items	N	S	M	VM	Mean Index	SD
13.Students work together without hostility.			3 75%	1 25%	3.25	.50

14. Students experience social skill by means of negotiation with group members and their contribution in group activities.	1 25%	1 25%	2 50%	3.25	.95
15. Instructors share credit for good ideas during group task.	2 50%	2 50%		3.00	1.1

Based on the above table all of the instructors (100%) motivated students to work together without hostility. Additionally, in writing classes (75%) of instructors provided communicative context for students to experience social skill by means of negotiation with group members and their contribution in group activities. On the other hand, minority of them (25%) seldom applied this technique. Additionally, observer reported that (50%) of instructors shared credit for good ideas during group task. On the contrary, (50%) of instructors hardly ever practiced this strategy. The finding resembles Vygotsky's (1987) perception related to the zone of proximal development where it is recognized in this study through three important structures that give educational scaffolding its definite specification 1) the communicative context of the classroom discourse in which knowledge was co-constructed 2) the significance of the task in which knowing was implanted and 3) the effect of tasks which mediated learning (Wells, 1999, p.127).

## Discussion

The result of the study revealed that the collaborative pre-writing task was more effective than cooperative prewriting activity. However, the comparison of the pre- and post-test writing means presented that both practices could develop learners' writing skills. The significant development of collaborative cluster's writing skill could be related to the procedures of pre-planning, sharing ideas and students' interaction with each other. Moreover, students' responsibility during pre-writing activities improved students' concentration and accuracy. The search for related words, themes, essay and summary writing appeared to facilitate writing process. Likewise, the brain storming as a pre-writing technique seemed to assist learners' writing process. In line with the previous study, collaborative prewriting task appeared to assist learners' thinking process (Vygotsky as cited in Wertsch, 2007) and the findings of the study emphasized the role of prewriting stage of writing. The outcome of this investigation reinforced the attitudes of the exponents who argued the efficacy of the

collaborative task in developing learners' writing ability (e.g. Leki, 2001; Storch, 2005; Swain and Lapkin, 1998; Wigglesworth and Storch, 2009; Yong, 2010). Also, the finding is in line with Rashtchi and Beiki's (2015) study which revealed the primacy of learner-generated brainstorming over teacher-generated brainstorming as pre-writing tasks in essay writing classes. Additionally, regarding classroom observation the researchers assessed instructors' instructional practices by using an observation scheme. The result revealed that both groups apply guideline (eg, planning, decision making, determining goal and group dynamic and group task strategies) which motivated learners for active participation and supported group tasks before writing activity. The result revealed that principles of cooperative learning and collaborative strategies such as peer feedback and mutual interaction during group activity are highly valued during writing task in teachers classes. Besides, the finding showed that "Positive Interdependence and Joint Problem Solving" received the highest rank among the five cooperative principles and collaborative strategy in writing classes. The result of classroom observation is in line with Mercer (1995) who investigated EFL classes and learners' interaction through classrooms observation. She highlights that teachers have to consider students multiple zones of proximal development and involve students in group work implementation in class setting.

## **Conclusion**

The findings regarding the first research question concerning the effect of collaborative task implementation on students writing ability revealed that collaborative pre-writing task improved students writing performance. The finding supports the student-centered practice which improve autonomous learning (Murphy, 2008). Students interaction in group tasks implementation at the stage of pre-writing appeared to be central in developing communication among the learners and provided the opportunity to converse meaning and work mutually before a writing task. Likewise, the finding concerning students participation in group brainstorming highlights the distributed cognition theory, cognitive association among group members and students interaction in classroom (Roselli,2016).

Besides, the findings regarding the second research question about the effect of cooperative task implementation on students writing ability revealed that cooperative pre-writing task improved students writing performance. The finding is in line with Kristiansen, Burner and Johnson's (2019) investigation which showed students' interpersonal communication and vigorous contribution in group work tasks enhanced through teachers'

stimulation for cooperation in group activity and resulted in effective cooperative task implementation in class setting. Further, the finding is in line with the views of the supporters who highlighted the efficiency of the students' interaction and their collaboration with their teachers to improve their writing proficiency (e.g., Lee,2013; Maarof, Yamat & Li,2011;Yahyazadeh Jelodar & Farvardin, 2019).

Moreover, the findings concerning the third research question about the effect of collaborative pre-writing and cooperative pre-writing task on students' essay writing performance specified the supremacy of collaborative prewriting tasks over cooperative prewriting tasks. The finding of the present study is in line with Mazdayasna and Zaini (2015) who investigated the effect of collaborative prewriting activities on learners' identity construction and L2 writing development. The results of their study revealed that pair activities were the most effective activity; likewise, students who engaged in group activities through learners interaction performed better than the students who worked individually. Additionally, the outcome supports the findings of the researchers who emphasized the effectiveness of the students' interaction in writing classes for improving learners writing skills (e.g.,Jafari & Nejad Ansari,2012;Storch,2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Yong, 2010).

Likewise, the findings concerning the fourth research question about classroom observation showed that "Positive Interdependence and Joint Problem Solving" received the highest rank among the five cooperative principles and collaborative strategy in writing classes. The results supports Mizuki's (2003) study regarding shifting responsibility from the teacher to learners during task implementation in classes. Additionally, the result of observation concerning joint problem solving and assigning responsibility to students highlights some researchers' viewpoint (Ghufron & Ermawati,2018; Yeh, 2015) who elaborated the stimulation of students' intellectual thinking through students interaction in classes context.

### **Pedagogical implication**

The present investigation has pedagogical implication for writing teachers and practitioners who try to find alternate ways of teaching writing to EFL learners. Both methods of this study can assist learners in creating new thoughts and ameliorating writing process efficiently. Collaborative prewriting tasks seemed more effective due to students-students' interaction which lead to effective linguistic feedback and valued input from other students (Vygotsky, 1978). Students can benefit from collaborative pre-writing tasks where the class consideration is not focused on an individual learner but on a whole cluster (Slavin & Kaweit,

1981). Results of the current study can help language teachers to make inquiries concerning the effectiveness of group activities in several contexts. Students can benefit from group tasks in writing classes where anxiety is reduced, self-confidence is enhanced, and the class attention is on whole groups (Slavin & Kaweit, 1981). Likewise, these pre-writing tasks can assist teachers to incorporate these tasks in their classroom routines in order to decrease the burden of instructors in writing classes and to enhance students' role in writing classes.

## References

- Angeles, M., & Andres, A. (2016). Cooperative or collaborative learning: Is there a difference in university students' perceptions? *Revista Complutense de Educacion*, 27(3), 1041-1060.
- AbdelWahab, M.M. (2014). The effectiveness of using the cooperative language learning approach to enhance EFL writing skills among Saudi University students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(3), 616-625.
- Abrami, P., Poulsen, C., & Chambers, B. (2004). Teacher motivation to implement an educational innovation: factors differentiating users and non-users of cooperative learning. *Educational Psychology*, 24(2), 201-216. doi:10.1080/0144341032000160146
- Ahangari, S., & Samadian, Z. (2014). The effect of cooperative learning activities on writing skills of Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of Linguistics and Literature Studies*, 2(4), 121-130.
- Allan, D. (2004). Oxford Placement Test 2: Test Pack. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L., C., Sorensen, C., Razavieh, A. (2010). *Introduction to research in education*. Canada: Nelson Education, Ltd.
- Brody, C., & Davidson, N. (1998). *Professional Development for Cooperative learning: Issues and Approaches*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Bruffee, K. A. (1973). Collaborative learning: Some practical models. *College English*, 34, 634-43.
- Bruffee, K. A. (1984). Collaborative learning and the "Conversation of Mankind." *College English*, 46, 637.
- Chen, M.L. (2004). *A Study of the Effects of Cooperative Learning Strategies on Student Achievement in English as a Foreign Language in a Taiwan College*. NY: ProQuest Information and Learning Company.

- Christmas, B. (2011). *The role of brainstorming in improving students writing performance in the EFL classroom*. Retrieved from:<http://sydney.edu.au/cet/docs/research/The%20Role%20of%20Brainstorming%20in%20Improving%20Students%20Writing.pdf>
- Colantone, L. (1998). *Improving creative writing* (Unpublished master's thesis). Saint Xavier University, USA.
- Cole, K. S. (2012). Promoting cooperative learning in an expository writing course. *Journal of International Education Research* ,8(2), 113-124.
- Cohen, E. (1994). *Designing group work: Strategies for the heterogeneous classroom* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Crosthwaite, P. (2011). The Effect of Collaboration on the Cohesion and Coherence of L2 Narrative Discourse between English NS and Korean L2 English Users. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(4), 135- 166.
- Driver, R., Asoko, H., Leach, J., Scott, P., & Mortimer, E. (1994). Constructing scientific knowledge in the classroom. *Educational Researcher*, 23(7), 5-12.
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2010). Collaborative writing: Fostering foreign language and writing conventions development. *Language Learning & Technology*, 14 (3), 51-71.
- Farzaneh, N., & Najadansari, D. (2014). Students' attitudes towards using cooperative learning for teaching reading comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(2), 287-292.
- Faulkner, P. (2006). Understanding knowledge transmission. *Ratio*, 19(2), 156-175.
- Fitze, M., & Glasgow, R. (2009). Comparing the effect of collaborative and non-collaborative pre-Writing activities on first drafts. *Journal of Research in Education*, 19, 67-83.
- Franken, M., & Haslett, S. (2002). When and Why Talking Can Make Writing Harder. In S.Ransdell & M. L. Barbier (Eds.). *New Directions for Research in L2 Writing* (pp. 208-229). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer Academic. Retrieved from [http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0363-6\\_11](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0363-6_11).
- Ghufron, M. A., & Ermawati, S. (2018). The strengths and weaknesses of cooperative learning and problem-based learning in EFL writing class: Teachers and students' perspectives. *International Journal of Instruction*, 11(4), 657-672.
- Golub, J. (1988). Introduction. In J. Golub (Ed.), *Focus on collaborative learning*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Jafari,N. Nejad Ansari,D. (2012).The Effect of Collaboration on Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy. *Journal of International Education Studies* ,5(2),126-131.

- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1975). *Learning together and alone: Cooperation, competition, and individualization*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. (1994a). *Cooperative learning in the classroom*. Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Holubec, E. (2008). *Cooperation in the classroom*. Edina, MN: Interaction Books.
- Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T., & Smith. K. A. (2000). "Cooperative Learning Returns to College: What Evidence Is There That It Works?" In D, DeZure (Ed.), *Learning from Change: Landmarks in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education from Change Magazine, 1969-1999* (PP. 205-212). Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing, LLc.
- Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. (2011). "Intellectual Legacy: Cooperation and Competition". In P. T. Coleman (Ed.), *Conflicts, Interdependence, and Justice: The Intellectual Legacy of Morton Deutsch* (pp. 41-64). New York: Springer.
- Johnson, R.T., & Johnson, D.W. (1994). An overview of cooperative learning, In J., Thousand, A., Villa, & A., Nevin (Eds.), *Creativity and Collaborative Learning*. Baltimore, Maryland, USA: Brookes Publishing.
- Kristiansen, S.D., Burner, T., & Johnson, B. H. (2019). Face-to-face promotive interaction leading to successful Cooperative Learning: Review study. *Cogent Education*, 6 (1),1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1674067>
- Lee, Y. (2013). Collaborative concept Mapping as a pre-writing strategy for L2 learning: A Korean application. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 3(2), 254-258. <http://www.ijiet.org/papers/275-IT0038.pdf>
- Leki, I. (2001). 'A narrow thinking system': Nonnative-English-speaking students in group projects across the curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33 (1), 39-67. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3587859>.
- Luttrell, W. (2000). Good enough methods for ethnographic research. *Harvard Educational Review*, 70(4),499-523.
- Maarof, N., Yamat, H., & Li, K. L. (2011). Role of Teacher, Peer and Teacher-Peer Feedback in Enhancing ESL Students' Writing. *World Applied Sciences Journal* ,15,29-35. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/1b5c/44cd1ae7df7330cc2d5631e3711c75c5ae2f.pdf>.
- Maghsoudi, M., & Haririan, J. (2013). The impact of brainstorming strategies on Iranian EFL learners' writing skill regarding their social class status. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*,1(1), 60-67.

- Matsuda, P. K. (2003). Second language writing in the 20th century: A historical perspective. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp. 15-34). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Mazdayasna, G., & Zaini, A. (2015). The effect of collaborative prewriting discussions on L2 writing development and learners' identity construction. *Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 18(2), 141-164.
- McLane, J. B. (1990). Writing as a social process. In L. C. Moll (Ed.), *Vygotsky and education* (pp. 304-318). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Mercer, N. (1995). *The guided construction of knowledge. Talk Amongst Teachers and Learners*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual matters Ltd.
- Mizuki, P. (2003). Metacognitive strategies, reflection, and autonomy in the classroom. In A. Barfield & M. Nix (Eds.), *Autonomy you ask!* (pp. 143-156). Tokyo: Learner Development Special Interest Group of the Japan Association for Language Teaching. <http://ld-sig.org/autonomy-you-ask/>
- Mohamed, M., & Mahmoud, A. W. (2014). The effectiveness of using the cooperative language learning approach to enhance EFL writing skills among Saudi University Students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(3), 616-625.
- Moloudi, M. (2011). Online and face-to-face peer review: Measures of implementation in ESL writing classes. *Asian EFL Journal*, 52, 1-73.
- Moges, B. (2019). Practices and challenges of CL in selected college of Arsi University: As a motivational factor on enhancing students' learning. *Universal Journal of Psychology*, 7(1), 1-17. DOI: 10.13189/ujp.2019.070101
- Mulyanah, E. Y. (2017). The effect of individual and cooperative learning on students' writing ability. *The Journal of English Language Studies*, 2(1), 54-65.
- Murphy, L. (2008). Supporting learner autonomy: Developing practice through the Spanish production of courses for distance learners of French, German and Spanish. *Language Teaching Research*, 12 (1), 83-102. <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/1362168807084495>
- O'Neil, H. F., Chuang, S., & Chung, G. K. W. K. (2004). *Issues in the computer-based assessment of collaborative problem solving (CSE report 620)*. Los Angeles: University of California.
- Palincsar, A. S. (1998). Social constructivist perspectives on teaching and learning. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 49, 345-375.
- Panitz, T. (1999). *Collaborative versus cooperative learning: A comparison of the two concepts*

- which will help us understand the underlying nature of interactive learning. Retrieved from <http://home.capecod.net/~tpanitz/tedsarticles/coopdefinition.htm>
- Rashtchi, M., Beiki, M. (2015). The effect of teacher-generated cooperative brainstorming versus learner-generated cooperative brainstorming on activating EFL learners' background knowledge in essay writing classes. *Indian journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences*, 5 (2), 1218-1227.
- Richards, J. (1990). New trends in the teaching of writing in ESL/ EFL. In Wang Z. (ed.), *ELT in China*. Papers Presented in the International Symposium on Teaching English in the Chinese Context, Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, Beijing.
- Richards, J.C. & Rodger, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rist, R. C. (1977). On the relations among educational research paradigms: From disdain to detente. *Anthropology and Educational Quarterly*, 8, 42-49.
- Roselli, N. (2016). Collaborative learning: Theoretical foundations and applicable strategies to university, *Propósitos y Representaciones*, 4(1), 219-280. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.20511/pyr2016.v4n1.90>
- Schultz, P.W. (1999). Changing behavior with normative feedback interventions: A field experiment on curbside recycling. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 21, 25-36. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15324834baso2101\\_3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15324834baso2101_3)
- Slavin, R. E. (1995). *Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Slavin, R.E., & Karweit, N. (1981). Cognitive and effective outcomes of an intensive student team learning experience. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 50, 29-35.
- Storch, N. (2007). Investigating the merits of pair work on a text editing task in ESL classes. *Language Teaching Research*, 11, 143–159. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1362168807074600>
- Storch, N., & Tapper, J. (2009). The impact of an EAP course on postgraduate writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8, 207-223.
- Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14 (2005), 153–173.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), 320–337.

- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97–115). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Tran, V.D. (2014). The effects of cooperative learning on the academic achievement and knowledge retention. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 3(2), 131-140.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1987). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. New York: Cambridge University Press
- Wertsch, J. V. (2007) ‘Mediation’, in H. Daniels, M. Cole and J. V. Wertsch (eds) *The Cambridge Companion to Vygotsky*. New York: Cambridge University Press, pp. 178–92.
- Wiggleworth, G. & Storch, N., (2009). Pair versus Individual Writing: Effects on Fluency, Complexity and Accuracy. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 445-466. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0265532209104670>
- Woods, D.R. (1996). Problem-based Learning for Large Classes in Chemical Engineering. In Wilkerson & Gijiselaers (Ed.) *Bringing Problem-based Learning to Higher Education: Theory and Practice* (pp. 91-100). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Yahyazadeh Jelodar, Z., & Farvardin, M. T. (2019). Effects of collaborative tasks on EFL Writing productions. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(1), 389-406. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1201334>
- Yong, M, F. (2010). Collaborative writing features. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 41(1), 18-30.
- Yumi ,F.(2015).Effects of cooperative learning on writing activity of English for special purposes in Japanese university students. *Journal of Academic Society for Quality of Life*, 1(1),32-39.



## **Improving Student's Speaking Performance and Self-Confidence Using Mind Mapping Model in Foreign Language Learning**

**Muhammad Anwar<sup>1</sup>**

**Yusri<sup>2</sup>**

**Hasmawati<sup>3</sup>**

*<sup>1,3</sup>Department of Foreign Language Education, Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar*

*<sup>2</sup>Department of English Literature, University of Fajar, Makassar*

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Muhammad Anwar** is an associate Professor of Language Teaching field, and he is working as a lecturer at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Department of Foreign Language. His research interest is language teaching and language research methodology. His email contact is [muh.anwar@unm.ac.id](mailto:muh.anwar@unm.ac.id)

**Yusri** is working as a lecturer at the University of Fajar, Department of English Literature. His research interest is on applied linguistics, foreign language learning and language politeness. His email contact is [yusriugm@gmail.com](mailto:yusriugm@gmail.com)

**Hasmawati** is an associate Professor of Linguistics field, and she is working as a linguistics lecturer at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Department of Foreign Language. Her research interest is on morphology and applied linguistics. Her email contact is [hasmawati@unm.ac.id](mailto:hasmawati@unm.ac.id)

### **Abstract**

This study aimed to investigate the influence of mind mapping model on foreign language learning in improving student's speaking performance and self-confidence. This study used an experiment approach which consisted of an experiment group without involving control group. Mind Mapping model was implemented in English and German learning. Data of this study consisted of student's speaking performance and self-confidence in English and German subjects. Student's speaking performance was measured using speaking test, and

student's self-confidence was measured using scale developed by Rosenberg. Participants of this study were students in department of German education and English literature. Mind Mapping Model was implemented during 6 meetings, and duration of each meeting was 2 hours. Data analysis technique consisted of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The result shows that the use of mind mapping model in German and English subject can increase student's speaking performance and self-confidence significantly. The finding was concluded based on the sig value of the both variables (0.00) which is lower than 0.05.

**Keywords:** *Mind Mapping Model, Speaking Performance, Self-Confidence, Foreign Language Learning.*

## **Introduction**

Foreign language learning has been a pivotal topic to conduct, as the benefits in learning foreign language, not only felt by adults but also felt by children (Mantasiah et al., 2019). Foreign language learning process generally emphasizes two principal aspects: cognitive aspect and non-cognitive aspect of the students. Non-cognitive aspect encompasses more various components than cognitive aspect. In this regard, cognitive aspect is closely associated with students' learning results, while non-cognitive aspect deals with students' soft skills, such as learning motivation, self-efficacy, self-integrated learning, learning optimism and self-confidence. Non-cognitive skills shall not be ignored as they greatly contribute to the improvement of students' cognitive skills (Mantasiah et al., 2018; Khine & Areepattamannil, 2016; Ruffing, et al., 2015; Garcia, 2016; Mantasiah & Yusri, 2018; Yusri et al., 2017). One of the important soft skills students shall acquire in learning foreign languages is self-confidence.

Studies on self-confidence especially necessary in learning foreign languages have been conducted by numerous researchers (Bahari, 2018; Rodríguez-González & Castañeda, 2018; Amiryousefi, 2018; Liu, 2018; Su, et al., 2018). The studies have found that self-confidence is one of the primary variables that influence the learners' ability to speak a foreign language. They also have revealed that a number of factors affect the learners' self-confidence, but it cannot be denied that experience is one of the most significant factors in determining the learners' self-confidence level. A person experienced in speaking in front of public is more likely to have a high level of self-confidence. On the other hand, a person who lacks experience in public speaking may result in having poor self-confidence (Liu, 2018; Dewaele, et al., 2018; Vansteenkiste, et al., 2018).

Another contributing factor to students' poor self-confidence in learning a foreign language is that students often lack ideas. The results of interview with students reveal that if they understood the topics of the conversations, they had more confidence. However, they lost confidence if they had to talk about unfamiliar topics. This is in line with the results of the studies by Abrar, et al., (2018), Belhabib (2018), and Hanifa (2018) that lack of idea will affect the students' self-confidence. Thus, one of the strategies to increase confidence of the students is to teach them how to conceptualize ideas they will communicate in the learning process, especially in the speaking class.

One of the learning models that require students to conceptualize ideas is called mind-mapping. This model makes students learn how to map their mind on the materials they are learning so that they will be able to memorize and understand things. The mind-mapping learning model has been proven to develop students' creativity, activeness, memorization, knowledge, and independence in order to achieve learning goals (Buran & Filyukov, 2015; Burns, et al., 2015; Yunus & Chien, 2016). This learning model is not something new since many studies focused on mind-mapping model have been conducted (Wangmo & Chalermnirundorn, 2018; Marashi & Kangani, 2018; Zhang, 2018; Bhatti, et al., 2018; Rivera Barreto, 2018). The researchers, however, mostly focused on the model implemented in a writing course. The implementation of the mind-mapping model in speaking has not been much studied by researchers.

This study aims to investigate how the implementation of the mind-mapping model in speaking class affects students' self-confidence and what are the students' learning results in the speaking class. The increase of students' self-confidence is predicted to positively influence students' learning results. Therefore, the main indicator used in the study is not the students' learning results, but their self-confidence. This study tried to compare 2 different foreign language learning contexts, English learning and German learning. In fact, not all learning model can be applied in all foreign language learning process. It depends on the foreign language studied by students. Therefore, learning model should be adjusted with the kind of foreign language studied. Finding of this study will show whether the mind mapping model is effective to be applied to the learning of the two foreign languages, or can only be applied in one of the foreign language learning.

## **Research Method**

This study used an experiment approach by involving 2 experiment groups. Group 1 consists of 30 students majoring german education in public university, and gorup 2 consist of

20 students majoring english literature in privat university. There are 2 different experiment gorups, as one of the purposes of this study was to know whether the mind mapping model is effective to be applied to the learning of the two foreign languages, or can only be applied in one of the foreign language learning. Control group was not involved, as to know the effectivity of this learning model, comparing the pre-test and post-test data of the experiment group was considered enough. There are many previous studies which used the similiar research design (Mantasiah et al., 2020; Mantasiah et al., 2018; Yusri et al., 2017).

Data were collected through a scale, a speaking test, and an interview. The scale developed by Rosenberg was used to measure the students' self-confidence (Robins et al., 2001). The scale of self-esteem consisted of 10 question items. On the other hand, the students' speaking performance was measured with the IELTS scoring rubric, especially for speaking, with the score interval between 1 and 9. There were 4 components used in the speaking assessment: (1) fluency and coherence, (2) lexical resource, (3) grammatical range and accuracy, and (4) pronunciation.

Mind mapping model was implemented during 6 meetings in speaking class. In every meeting, student's participation in the learning process were observed. To gather students' responses during the learning process, an interview in regard to the implementation of mind-mapping model in learning was conducted. Data analysis was performed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics aimed to describe the average of students' speaking performance and self-confidence based on the categorization by Azwar (2010) as shown in the following table.

*Table 1*

*Categorization of Students' Self-Confidence*

<b>Interval</b>	<b>Categorization</b>
$X \leq M - 1,5 \sigma$	Very Low
$M - 1,5 \sigma < X \leq M - 0,5 \sigma$	Low
$M - 0,5 \sigma < X \leq M + 0,5 \sigma$	Moderate
$M + 0,5 \sigma < X \leq M + 1,5 \sigma$	High
$X > M + 1,5 \sigma$	Very High
<b>M : Hypothetical Average Score</b>	
<b><math>\sigma</math> : Hypothetical Standard Deviation</b>	

Additionally, inferential statistics was used to analyze paired sample t-test that aimed to find out the influence of the implementation of mind-mapping on the students' speaking performance and self-confidence.

## Results and Discussion

### *Results of Measurement of the Self-Confidence Variable*

Table 2 presents data of students' self-confidence before and after mind-mapping model was implemented in the learning process, especially in the speaking class. More details can be seen in the table provided below.

Table 2.

*Description of Students' Self-Confidence in Group 1 (German Learning)*

Interval	Level	Pretest		Posttest	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
$X \leq 17,5$	Very Low	3	10	0	0
$17,5 < X \leq 22,5$	Low	15	50	3	10
$22,5 < X \leq 27,5$	Moderate	9	30	10	33,33
$27,5 < X \leq 32,5$	High	3	10	12	40
$X > 32,5$	Very High	0	0	5	16,67
	Total	30	100	30	100

Table 3.

*Description of Students' Self-Confidence in Group 2 (English Learning)*

Interval	Level	Pretest		Posttest	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
$X \leq 17,5$	Very Low	5	25	0	0
$17,5 < X \leq 22,5$	Low	7	35	2	10
$22,5 < X \leq 27,5$	Moderate	5	25	10	50
$27,5 < X \leq 32,5$	High	3	15	5	25
$X > 32,5$	Very High	0	0	3	15
	Total	20	100	20	100

In general it can be seen that there was an increase of self-confidence of the students after mind-mapping model was implemented not only in german learning (group 1), but also in english leaning (group 2). Mean of the self-confidence variable in gorup 1 before the intervention was given was 21.77 and after the intervention was given, students' self-confidence increased to 27.97. Thus, it can be concluded that there was an increase 6.2 on the variable of students' self-confidence. Moreover, in group 2 there was an increase 5.8 on the

variable of students' self-confidence by comparing the result of pre-test and post-test. To find out whether the increase was significant, table 4 and table 5 is provided.

*Tabel 4.*

*Results of Analysis on Paired Sample T-Test (Group 1)*

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Posttest - Pretest	6.200	.925	.169	5.85	6.545	36.722	29	.000

*Tabel 5.*

*Results of Analysis on Paired Sample T-Test (Group 2)*

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Posttest - Pretest	5.800	.721	.152	5.42	6.42	32.13	19	.000

Data analysis using inferential analysis method, especially paired sample t-test. Table 4 and table 5 show that the significance value was  $0.00 < 0.05$  (significance value standard used). Based on the significance value  $\alpha$ , it is suggested that there was a significant increase in students' self-confidence after the mind-mapping model was applied in German and English class.

#### *Results of Measurement of the Speaking Performance Variable*

Table 6 and table 7 presents data on the students' speaking performance before and after mind-mapping model was implemented in the German and English learning process, especially in the speaking class. More information can be seen in the following table.

Table 6.

*Description of Students' Speaking performance in German class*

Score	Pretest		Posttest	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
5	8	26.67	1	3.33
5.5	9	30	7	23.33
6	12	40	8	26.67
6.5	1	3.33	8	26.67
7	0	0	6	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100</b>

Table 7.

*Description of Students' Speaking performance in English class*

Score	Pretest		Posttest	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
5	5	25	1	5
5.5	4	20	3	15
6	9	45	11	55
6.5	2	10	4	20
7	0	0	1	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

As explained in the method section, the scale employed to measure students' speaking performance was based on the IELTS scoring rubric used to assess the speaking performance. The pretest and the posttest data illustrated in the table suggest that there was an increase in students' speaking performance. In German class before the intervention, most of the students (40%) obtained a score of 6 and only 1 student gained a score of 6.5. After intervention, the posttest data reveal that 26.67% of the students gained 6.5, while 20% obtained 7. These results signify that the intervention given to students were able to improve their speaking performance in German class. It was similar with the result of student's speaking performance in English class. Pre-test result of English class shows that most of students (45%) obtained a score of 6 and only 10% students gained a score of 6.5. After learning process using mind mapping model, number of students gained 6.0 increased being 20% students, and there is 5% student who gained a score of 7. Furthermore, the information on whether or not the increase was significant can be seen in table 8 and table 9:

Tabel 8.

Results of Analysis of Paired Sample T- Test in German Class

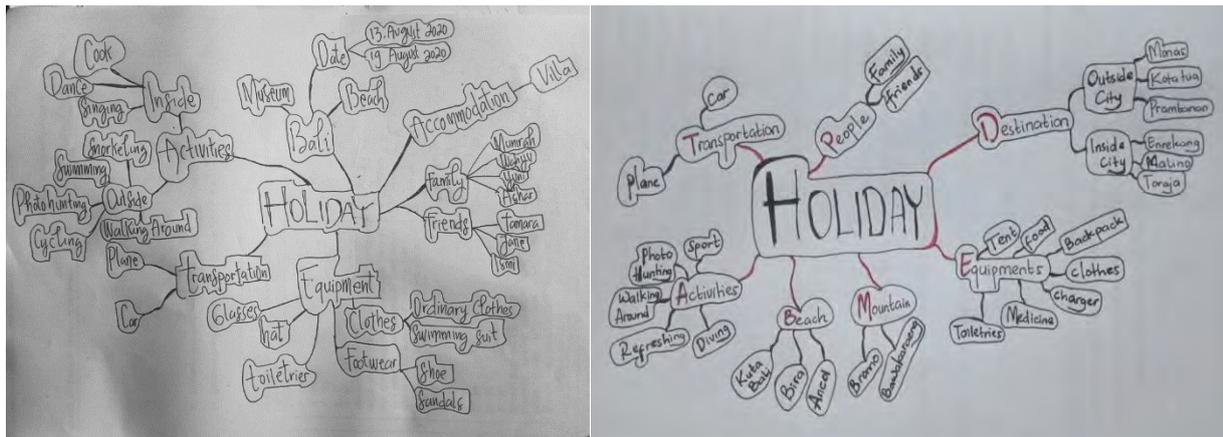
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Posttest - Pretest	.5833	.2306	.0421	.4972	.6694	13.857	29	.000

Tabel 9.

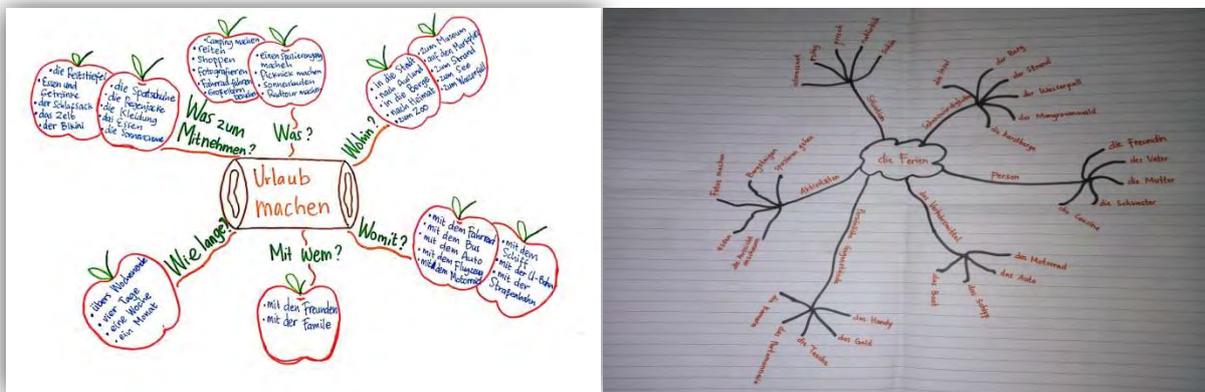
Results of Analysis of Paired Sample T- Test in English Class

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Posttest - Pretest	.4772	.2415	.0416	.4823	.6114	11.512	19	.000

The results of analysis of paired sample t-test on the speaking performance variable signify that the implementation of mind-mapping model is able to improve students' speaking performance. Given the significant value of  $0.00 < 0.05$  (significance value standard used), the increase of students' speaking performance after the intervention seemed to be significant. The previous data explained that the application of mind-mapping model in the foreign language learning affects students' self-confidence significantly. The increase of self-confidence positively affect the students' speaking performance. Thus, it can be concluded that self-confidence has an influence on students' speaking performance. This is in parallel with the findings of the studies conducted by Shi, et al. (2015), Hutchinson (2019), Mede & Karairmak (2017), and Koch & Schmitt (2017). The results of interview with students reveal that mind-mapping helps students organize their ideas from general to specific. As a result, they can easily memorize and understand messages communicated. The following pictures are some examples of mind mapping created by students:



Picture 1. Student's Mapping Picture in English Class



Picture 2. Student's Mapping Picture in German Class

The findings show that there are several factors that influence student's self-confidence when speaking. One of them is good preparation. Students who have prepared themselves well will be more confident compared to students who do not have good preparation. They are more confident because they believe that they have clear knowledge and concept of ideas that will be explained in front of other students or in front of lecturers. Thus it can be concluded that good preparation will have a positive impact on student knowledge, and knowledge variables affect student confidence. This is in line with what was stated by Riasati (2012) & Gurler (2015).

Besides knowledge, another variable that affects student confidence is courage. Students who have high courage are more likely to express their ideas easily, so they are more confident. The fact shows that the courage variable also tends to be influenced by the knowledge variable. Students who have good understanding or knowledge tend to be more daring to speak compared to students who lack understanding. Therefore, it can be concluded that the main variable that can affect self confidence is the aspect of knowledge or

understanding of what is to be conveyed. The relationship and influence between these variables is indeed not explained in the form of statistical data, because the findings are obtained based on interviews and observations during learning. So the data collected related to these variables is in the form of qualitative data.

However, based on observations during the course of the study, many students had extensive knowledge of the topic to be presented, but they still could not convey their ideas properly when speaking. One factor is that they have difficulty mapping the ideas they want to convey. This causes the ideas conveyed to be not systematic so it is difficult to understand. This is the background why the use of mind mapping models is needed. The main focus of the mind mapping model is to help students to be able to communicate their ideas systematically and effectively. Observation results show that when students are accustomed to using mind mapping models, they will learn how to choose and map topics that they want to explain when speaking

## **Conclusion**

One of the common problems students face in the speaking class is the lack of confidence to speak. This condition can negatively affect students' learning results in the speaking class. Therefore, in order to improve students' speaking performance, self-confidence of the students should be increased. The results of the study suggest that implementing mind-mapping model in speaking class can help students to boost their self-confidence in expressing their opinions. Consequently, students can obtain better learning results, especially in the speaking performance. Based on the results of the study, the improvement of students' speaking performance was significant which can be seen from the learning results before and after the mind-mapping model was implemented. Therefore, it can be summarized that mind-mapping model has proven effective to be implemented in foreign language learning, especially in speaking class.

## **Pedagogical Implication**

Finding of this study can increase the quality of foreign language learning and it is expected to be able to be applied not only in Indonesia, but also in other countries in the process of foreign language learning. Lack of self-confidence has become a common problem that occurs in learning every foreign language, especially in the speaking class. To vary learning models, the mind-mapping model can be integrated with other learning models so that students can avoid monotonous situation when learning with mind-mapping model for several meetings.

## References

- Abrar, M., Mukminin, A., Habibi, A., Asyraf, F., Makmur, M., & Marzulina, L. (2018). "If our English isn't a language, what is it?" Indonesian EFL Student Teachers' Challenges Speaking English. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(1), 129-145.
- Amiryousefi, M. (2018). Willingness to communicate, interest, motives to communicate with the instructor, and L2 speaking: a focus on the role of age and gender. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 12(3), 221-234.
- Azwar, S. (2010). Penyusunan skala psikologi. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar
- Bahari, A. (2018). Developing listening and speaking via a psycho-socio-cultural learning model based on non-linear dynamic motivation. *Jordan Journal of Modern Languages and Literature*, 10(2), 35-58.
- Belhabib, I. (2018). *Difficulties Encountered by Students in Learning the Productive Skills in EFL Classroom and the Relationship between Speaking and Writing: Case of First Year LMD Students at Abou Bekr-Belkaid* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Bhatti, A., Shamsudin, S., & Said, S. B. M. (2018). Code-Switching: A Useful Foreign Language Teaching Tool in EFL Classrooms. *English Language Teaching*, 11(6), 93-101.
- Buran, A., & Filyukov, A. (2015). Mind mapping technique in language learning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 206, 215-218.
- Burns, A., Freeman, D., & Edwards, E. (2015). Theorizing and studying the language-teaching mind: Mapping research on language teacher cognition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 99(3), 585-601.
- Dewaele, J. M., Witney, J., Saito, K., & Dewaele, L. (2018). Foreign language enjoyment and anxiety: The effect of teacher and learner variables. *Language teaching research*, 22(6), 676-697.
- Garcia, E. (2016). The need to address non-cognitive skills in the education policy agenda. In *Non-cognitive skills and factors in educational attainment* (pp. 31-64). Brill Sense.
- Gurler, I. (2015). Correlation between self-confidence and speaking skill of English language teaching and English language and literature preparatory students. *Curr Res Soc Sci*, 1(2), 14-19.
- Hanifa, R. (2018). Factors generating anxiety when learning EFL speaking performances. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 5(2), 230-239.
- Hutchinson, M. (2019). Developing Self-Confidence In Students Learning English Listening & Speaking performances II. Case Study: Students From The Department Of Service

- Industry And Language Innovation Kasetsart University, Kamphaeng Saen Campus. *Journal of Suvarnabhumi Institute of Technology (Humanities and Social Sciences)*, 5(1), 349-369.
- Khine, M. S., & Areepattamannil, S. (Eds.). (2016). *Non-cognitive skills and factors in educational attainment*. Springer.
- Koch, A., & Schmitt, J. (2016). *Speaking with a purpose*. Routledge.
- Liu, M. (2018). Bilingual/multilingual learners' willingness to communicate in and anxiety on speaking Chinese and their associations with self-rated proficiency in Chinese. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(1), 54-69.
- Mantashah, R, Yusri. Y., & Jufri J. (2018). The Development of Grammar Teaching Material using Error and Contrastive Analysis (A Linguistic Approach in Foreign Language Teaching). *TESOL International Journal*, 13 (3), 2-11.
- Mantashah, R, Yusri. Y., & Jufri J. (2019). The Role of Bilingualism in Increasing Children's Cognitive Ability at Primary School. *Asian EFL Journal*, 23 (6.2), 27-41.
- Mantashah, R. (2018, June). Pay It Forward Model in Foreign Language Learning to Increase Student's Self Efficacy and Academic Motivation. In *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* (Vol. 1028, No. 1, p. 012178). IOP Publishing.
- Mantashah, R. (2020). Semantic Feature Analysis Model: Linguistics Approach in Foreign Language Learning Material Development. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(1), 185-196.
- Marashi, H., & Kangani, M. (2018). Using Concept Mapping and Mind Mapping in Descriptive and Narrative Writing Classes. *Journal of Language and Translation*, 8(2), 93-106.
- Mede, E., & Karairmak, Ö. (2017). The predictor roles of speaking anxiety and English self efficacy on foreign language speaking anxiety. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 6(1), 117-131.
- Riasati, M. J. (2012). EFL learners' perception of factors influencing willingness to speak English in language classrooms: A qualitative study. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 17(10), 1287-1297.
- Rivera Barreto, A. M. (2018). Motivating English Language Use by Using the Benefits of Technology. *GIST Education and Learning Research Journal*, 16, 117-140.
- Robins, R. W., Hendin, H. M., & Trzesniewski, K. H. (2001). Measuring global self-esteem: Construct validation of a single-item measure and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, 27(2), 151-161.

- Rodríguez-González, E., & Castañeda, M. E. (2018). The effects and perceptions of trained peer feedback in L2 speaking: impact on revision and speaking quality. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 12*(2), 120-136.
- Ruffing, S., Wach, F., Spinath, F. M., Brünken, R., & Karbach, J. (2015). Learning strategies and general cognitive ability as predictors of gender-specific academic achievement. *Frontiers in psychology, 6*, 1238.
- Shi, X., Brinthaupt, T. M., & McCree, M. (2015). The relationship of self-talk frequency to communication apprehension and public speaking anxiety. *Personality and Individual Differences, 75*, 125-129.
- Su, Y., Zheng, C., Liang, J. C., & Tsai, C. C. (2018). Examining the relationship between English language learners' online self-regulation and their self-efficacy. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 34*(3).
- Vansteenkiste, M., Aelterman, N., De Muynck, G. J., Haerens, L., Patall, E., & Reeve, J. (2018). Fostering personal meaning and self-relevance: A self-determination theory perspective on internalization. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 86*(1), 30-49.
- Wangmo, K., & Chalermnirundorn, N. (2018). The Use of Mind Mapping Technique to Enhance Writing Skills of Grade Four Bhutanese Students. *St. Theresa Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 4*(2), 30-57.
- Yunus, M. M., & Chien, C. H. (2016). The use of mind mapping strategy in Malaysian university English test (MUET) Writing. *Creative Education, 7*(04), 619.
- Yusri, Y., Romadloni, A., & Mantasiah, R. (2017). Intercultural approach in foreign language learning to improve students' motivation. *Senior Editors, 61*.
- Zhang, Y. (2018). A Contrastive Study on the Application of Mind Maps in Argumentative Writing Instruction for EFL Learners. *English Language Teaching, 11*(12), 93-100.



## **Mixing Use of Sasak and English Languages among the Mandalika Community in Kuta Beach (Central Lombok, Indonesia)**

**Fitriah Fahrudiningrum**

*School of Education Mataram University Indonesia*

### **Bio-profile:**

**Fitriah Fahrudiningrum** is postgraduate student of English Education in Mataram University. Her main research interest is in applied linguistic. Her research focuses on mixing use of Sasak and English among the Mandalika community in Kuta beach (Central Lombok, Indonesia). She can be contacted by email at [fitriah.fahrudiningrum@yahoo.com](mailto:fitriah.fahrudiningrum@yahoo.com).

### **Abstract**

People might speak bilingually because they acquire two languages during childhood or learn a second one after acquiring mother tongue. In the Mandalika community, people speak two languages in their work: the dominant Sasak language when speaking to fellow community members and English when speaking to international tourists. While the community is not educationally trained to speak English, they learn it naturally among themselves and through practices with international tourists visiting or living in the community. While economically and politically marginalized (i.e. they are not the ruling group), they make use of tourism-related prosperity by selling convenience goods, souvenirs, and services on the beach and the poorly-learned English has become the main means of selling the products. Limited has been known about the nature of their language and this is one of the foci of the current study. Additionally, the types and the factors motivating the use of code-mixing will also be discussed. This research used descriptive qualitative method (i.e. ethnographic method) to find out, analyze, and classify Sasak-English code-mixing in the research corpora. The samples were collected by using purposive sampling and the participants involving different types of tourism

service providers in the area: food sellers, boat renters, and merchandise seller. Recording of respondents will be the main means of data collection and corpora of tape scripts will be the main object of analysis. The data were analyzed ethnographically by following the works of Peter Muysken, and others. The study showed various types of code-mixing as well as several factors motivating the learning and the use of English by the local poorly-trained speakers.

**Keywords:** *Code-mixing, bilingualism, Sasak language*

## **Introduction**

In Indonesia, Indonesian language is a medium of communication throughout the country spoken by almost 250 inhabitants. It is amended to be legalized language across the country since the youth declaration in 1928. Since then, Indonesian becomes the lingua franca for Indonesian. Along with Indonesian, there are as many as 600 local languages and dialects which plausibly makes Indonesia as a plural country in the world.

With this great diversity, Indonesia has been renowned as a bilingual country. Despite the fact that Indonesian is a formal heuristic in many fields such as school and working areas, nevertheless, many locals are prone to preserve and maintain their own language and culture (Paauw, 2006). This occurrence inevitably leads to dilemma which language that should be used and to whom it is used, so in the end the language is not rarely mixing or switch within community.

Code-mixing or code-switching becomes predominantly used within diglossic or polyglossic community. This sort of phenomenon is widely delineated in Sasak community in which people has tendency to speak varied language within different social settings particularly in Kuta Mandalika.

Generally, Indonesian is the first language or mother tongue that is owned by its inhabitants. Yet, there are many languages spoken by them because Indonesia is bound with abundant cultures. It is estimated that there are as many as 600 local languages spreading from Sabang to Marauke. Every islands across the archipelago has its own distinctive culture and language.

One culture has its own language and as well as others. Accordingly, this is the reason why Indonesian people use two or more languages in communication. For instance, in Sasak culture, the community speak the Sasak language as their first language or mother tongue and Indonesian as a second language. In this case, they learn the Indonesian language because of social factors, they must learn the Indonesian language to support them to compete in the environment, school, social work which mostly use Indonesian language as the way to communicate. Just like English, people need to learn it even master it in order to help them compete with others. Clearly, it makes Indonesian people are able to use two or more languages. This phenomenon called as bilingualism.

Regarding to the phenomenon above, the writer interests in analyzing code-mixing that is happen at Mandalika beach, Central Lombok because it is found that code-mixing usage among the society at Mandalika beach, Central Lombok is unique. Mandalika community mix two contrast languages in communication; Sasak-English. English expressions are uttered as loan words that are mixed with Sasak when conversation among Mandalika community and tourist at Mandalika beach is occurred.

Many studies have been conducted on code-mixing, however the study related to code-mixing among Sasak and English languages that expressed by Mandalika people has not been found yet. It is proven by the lack of information found regarding the way Mandalika speakers of English mix between two languages in daily dialogue and conversation.

## **Bilingualism**

Nowadays bilingualism has become a normal phenomenon that has taken place in many part of the world. We can meet people who speak with two or more languages easily. In general, they are able to speak those languages in different situation such as in formal and informal situation. Additionally, bilingualism is someone who approximately equally fluent in two languages across various contexts (Baker, 2001:7). If bilingual person able to use two languages well he/she involves in educated bilingual. Furthermore, being educated bilingual brings more advantage such as multicultural understanding, better cognitive development, increasing self-esteem and so on Baker in Nguyen (2017).

Generally, there are some factors caused people can be a bilingual such as cultures, educational background, mobilization and also religion. Cultures may trigger people as a bilingual person if the language and culture spread to another places, so the person who want to know about it, they need to learn it first. Bilingualism also exists because of people educational background. For instance, Sasak people usually speak Sasak language in their family but in school they speak Indonesian language. However, mobilization also can impact the bilingualism situation. For instance, when the immigrant involves in communication with the native speaker, they need to learn the native language to interact with them. The religion also influences the existence of bilingualism. For instance, the scripture in each religion are written in language such as Arabic in Islam and Latin in Christian. Hence, people need to understand it first before they understand the meaning.

Regarding the definition above, it concludes that bilingualism is interrelated to people who are able to speak in two languages in particular circumstance.

### **Code-Mixing**

In communication, people sometimes forget the transformation of certain utterances in one language. Hence, to complete the sentences they put other language even it is different with language itself. Yet, the meaning that appears is commonly similar. This phenomenon is called code-mixing. According to Kachru in Ahire (2015:189) Code-mixing denotes to the use of one or more languages for consistent transfer of linguistic unit from one language into another, and by such a language mixture developing a restricted or not, so restricted code of linguistic interaction. In Addition, sociolinguistic research considers mixing code as aspects from various languages or language contact in the multilingual community. (Ng, 2018).

Code-mixing also known as intra-sentential code-switching which has introduced by Muysken in his study of code-mixing. Intra-sentential code-mixing was a sign of lack of bilingual proficiency and interference. An ideal of bilingual switches from one language to others based on the appropriate changes in the speech situation (interlocutor, topics, etc) but it is not in an unchanged speech situation and certainly it is not in a single sentence. (Muysken, 2000:1). Code-mixing occurs when people try to embed one or more

different language in one sentence without changing the situation, setting of place, topic and meaning. Code-mixing is akin to the switching of codes between turns or utterances (Muysken, 2000:4).

This phenomenon of code-mixing above can be seen from Indonesian people interaction that is often mix English language within Indonesian communication. The first example can be illustrated from Indonesian-English language (cited from Yuliana, Luziana & Sarwendah, 2015: 50), “*pas aku balik ke sini semuanya lancar dan dengan support ayah dan mama yang never ending aku jadi semangat berkarir di Indonesia*”. The next example come from Batak Mandailing-English language (derived from Sumarsih, Seeger, Bahri & Sanjaya, 2014: 84), “*Ise do latna guar ni boyfriend mi*”. And the last example is taken from Chinese-English language (in La Su Kia, 2011: 12), “*Wang mingquan: “Xianzai buhui, yinwei wo jiang shiye fang zai diyi wei, shiye shi wo keyi handle (zhangwo) de...”*”.

From the illustrations above it is clear that code-mixing blends the varieties of languages within single sentence without change the topic and situation. Referring to Siregar, Bahri & Sanjaya (2014) code-mixing is a sign of language usage in which combination or mixing different variation of languages within the same clause.

### **Types of Code-mixing**

There are three types of code-mixing provided by Muysken (2000); they are insertion, alternation and congruent lexicalization. These three types of code-mixing will be elaborated more detail in the explanation bellow:

First, Insertion; the concept of insertion is the process of insert the lexical item from one language to other language. According to Muysken (2000:3), approaches that depart from the notion of insertion view the constraints in terms of the structural properties of some base or matrix structure. Here the process of code-mixing is conceived as something akin to borrowing: the insertion of an alien lexical or phrasal category into a given structure. The difference would simply be the size and type of element inserted, e.g. noun versus noun phrase. Based on Muysken (2000), insertion is usually occurring in recent immigrant communities which have proficiency in one or more than two

languages after they enter the new place, they interact with new communities using new languages and they insert their language into the structure of different language.

*\*tugasku sudah jadi sih mbak tapi masih rough gitu.*

In this sentence of Indonesian language, the English phrase 'rough' is inserted.

Second, Alternation; it is viewed as the constraints of code-mixing in terms of the compatibility or equivalence on the languages involved at the switch point (Muysken, 2000:4).

*\*kuliah kok malah chatting tolong dong pay attention!*

In this example the Indonesian language inserted the English phrase 'chatting' and 'pay attention'. In alternation, the repetition of English phrase occurs in one utterance.

Third, Congruent Lexicalization; the notion of congruent lexicalization underlies the study of style shifting and dialect/standard variation (Muysken, 2000:4). Congruent lexicalization is akin to language variation and style shifting: switching is grammatically unconstrained and can be characterized in terms of alternative lexical insertions. Linguistic convergence feeds into congruent lexicalization and the two processes may reinforce each other (Kim, 2006:47). Congruent lexicalization occurs in code-mixing usually randomly and roughly. Congruent lexicalization may be particularly associated with second generation migrant groups, dialect/standard and post-creole continua, and bilingual speakers of closely related languages with roughly equal prestige and no tradition of overt language separation (Muysken, 2000:9).

This type can be illustrated by example in Indonesian-sasak below.

*\*lasingan jangan ngomong begitu ntar ga jadi beliin es krim ayok!*

In this example code-mixing appears in Indonesian-sasak language and it may conclude that there is no grammatical cohesion between two languages and it happens roughly.

### **Factors of Code-Mixing**

When bilinguals mix two languages, there might be several factors or motivation behind it. For instance, the bilinguals mix the language because they cannot find an appropriate word to complete the sentences, that is why they embed and akin word in another language to complete the sentence without change the meaning itself.

Furthermore, bilingual person chooses an alternative way in terms of possible recognition and decide to use both languages within a single conversation.

According to Hoffman (1991), there are several factors for a bilingual person to mixes the languages. First, to talk about particular topic; in conversation the speaker and hearer usually talk about a particular topic that they choose to discuss. In this case, sometimes they mix the language into another because the sound term is more suitable to pronounce in another language.

Second, quoting somebody else; generally, in conversation people mix the language to quote some famous expressions, proverb or some well-known figures. Code-mixing only involves the words claimed by the speakers as the person's quotation.

Third, being emphatic about something (express solidarity); when people use the language in which it is not his/her native language, commonly they want to express his/her emphatic about something. Hence, they usually mix the language into his/her second language or the first language.

Fourth, Interjection; it is a kind of words or expressions which are put in the sentence to deliver surprises, emotions, or to gain attention. An interjection is a short exclamation such as *My goodness, hey! look! darn!* And so on. In grammar, they do not have any values but people often use those expressions, particularly, in oral communication.

Fifth, repetition used for clarification. It is a normal phenomenon if one of the speakers does not understand what the other speakers say. Hence, he/she will clarify the speech to make it understandable and sometimes he/she uses both of the languages that he/she masters to convey the same languages. Oftentimes, one code is repeated in another code literally. The function of repetition is not only to clarify what speaker's intention but also to emphasize the meaning that they want to convey.

Sixth, Intention of clarifying the speech content for the interlocutor; when bilingual community makes a conversation, there will be a lot of code-mixing within the utterances. In here, the function of mixing code is to make a conversation runs smoothly and understandable by both speakers.

Seventh, expressing group identity; in community, people usually have different social status and it also influences how they speak with others. For instance, the way

people communicate with person in high academic level obviously will be different from the way to communicate with low level academic status. In other words, the way we communicate with people who have similar community with us will be different from people who are outside our community.

Eight, to soften or strengthen request or command; for example, in order to make request sound smoothly in Indonesian, people are more often to mix their language into others such as English. So, the request does not sound as direct as in Indonesia. Nonetheless, code-mixing is also the signal to strengthen a command when the speaker feels more powerful than the interlocutor because he uses language that everybody cannot use (Trugill, 1983).

The ninth factor that causes the code-mixing is the real lexical need. The most natural reason why bilingual person mixes their language into others is the limitation equivalence lexicon in particular language itself. For instance, German-Indonesian bilingual has limited word in German, hence he tries to find the same word in Indonesian which is easier to utilize and conversely.

The last factor, to exclude other people when their comment is intended for only a limited audience; in communication, people usually make a conversation easier with those who has same language background. Commonly, they avoid other community to involve in their community by communicating the language that they do not know. Frequently, in this interaction code-mixing will be occurred.

## **Method**

This research applied qualitative method to expose mixing use of Sasak and English languages among the Mandalika community in Kuta beach (central Lombok, Indonesia). The purposive sampling technique is utilized as the way to take sample. Hence, the participants and place that is taken as the sample should enable to fulfill condition in which it helps the researcher understand the central phenomenon. (Creswell, 2012). The participants are including vendors in Kuta Mandalika such as merchandise seller, food sellers, and boat renters. The age range of participants is from 10 to 30-year-old. In purposive sampling the researcher selects certain people because they possess a similar trait or characteristic or to purposefully samples individuals or sites based on membership in a subgroup that has defining characteristics.

In order to describe the types and factors why people use code-mixing, the data is collected through large samples of informal conversation that is occurred between vendors and tourists. The data are gathered through audio recording and transcribing. There are several phases in analysis of data. Firstly, the researcher identifies the data which contains of code-mixing in conversation. Second, the data are classified by referring to some theoretical background of code-mixing. And the last, the researcher classify the types and factors of code-mixing occurred in vendors' conversation with tourist. The aim of the data analysis is to find out the types and the factors of code mixing (Sasak-English languages) in conversation between vendors and tourists in Kuta Mandalika. The data is placed within table to classify which belongs to particular occasions.

### **Findings And Discussions**

After the data was obtained through recording and transcribing, it was found that Mandalika community especially vendors in Kuta beach has two varieties of English in communication with tourist and others.

First, Use of Lexicon-Functional Words: Elimination of Grammatical Words. This type of variety mostly occurs in vendors' communication. For instance, 'buy one bracelet! *muraq gati* local price five thousand one!' If we can see the whole sentence is not complete yet because there are several eliminations of grammatical words within sentence. The sentence should be **(please)** Buy one bracelet! *muraq gati (it is a)* local price **(it is)** five thousand one. Within the sentence there is two different languages; Sasak-English. There is Sasak words insert in English sentence *solah gati* which is mean *so beautiful*. So, the sentences in English should be *Please buy one bracelet! it is so beautiful! It is a local price! It is five thousand one.*

Second, use of local words for unknown English words; commonly, this variety often used by vendors in kuta beach when they try to persuade something to the tourist. To make it clear, this variety can be illustrated into the example; '*songket* beautiful from Lombok buy one please!' in this sentence, one word categorized as Sasak word appears that is *songket*. Vendor in Kuta beach tries to offer her merchandise to the tourist but she does not know the English word of *songket*, so she uses that word as its own word in

Sasak, then continuing to put it on English sentence. The word ‘*Songket*’ means sarong that is commonly Sasak people use in particular occasion such as traditional ceremony, wedding ceremony and so on.

Besides, there are two types of code mixing usage among people at Mandalika, Kuta beach (especially vendors), these are insertion and alternation. Yet, in the vendors’ utterances, the insertion code mixing is more common to be found in communication or dialogue.

No	Types of code-mixing	Numbers
1.	Insertion	62%
2.	Alternation	38%
3.	Congruent lexicalization	-
<b>Total</b>		<b>100%</b>

After the data are recorded, transcribed and classified based on the theory of code-mixing types, it is found that the data of conversation below lead the researcher into the characteristic of insertion code-mixing. The characteristic meant is a sentence which is inserted by one lexical item of different language. The example of insertion code-mixing can be found in in the sentence below.

*Beautiful color, kunyiq is Lombok maybe you like!*

This sentence is belonging to conversation between merchandise seller and tourist in which the seller tried to persuade his merchandise to a tourist. Through the example above, mixing language applied by seller. When the utterance in English is spoken as in the example “*Beautiful color, kunyiq is Lombok maybe you like!*”, the word in Sasak can be found to be inserted by seller, that is “*kunyiq*” (it is a kind of vegetable in Lombok that has yellow color). However, the word “*kunyiq*” above is not meant to name a kind of vegetable, instead he wants to say the bracelet has yellow beautiful color. Additionally, that utterance also showed the limitation of English structure understanding. It enables to identify through the seller usage of lexicon-functional words: elimination of grammatical words in the example above. The sentence should be *(it is a) yellow beautiful color. Maybe you like (it)*, instead of “*Beautiful color, kunyiq is Lombok maybe you like!*” This

utterance classified as insertion code-mixing because there are two different languages are used in utterance. This utterance is mixing between Sasak and English word. The merchandise seller inserts a Sasak word into English sentence.

Another example showed by the sentence below;

(1) *Come on go to **batu payung**, boat one hundred only.*

(2) *oh yes! **Bedoengkeh** WhatsApp number here!*

These sentences are belonging conversation among a boat renters and tourist. He tried to persuade a tourist to rent his boat. In the first sentence, Indonesian language is inserted into English sentence; the Indonesian word inserted is “*batu payung*”. *Batu* means a rock and *payung* means an umbrella. Yet, these are not meant to mention rock and umbrella, instead to mention one of the famous destinations in Kuta beach that has beautiful view. It is named as ‘*batu payung*’ because the shape of rock is like a huge umbrella. In the second utterance, the word in Sasak language is inserted; that is ‘*Bedoengkeh*’. It is spoken in the end of dialogue “*oh yes! **Bedoengkeh** WhatsApp number here!*”. Previously, in the dialogue, the tourist asked the boat renters whether he has a WhatsApp number or not because the tourist wants to make a deal with him later, but the boat seller unconsciously mixed his language with English by inserting the word in Sasak “*bedoengkeh*” which is mean “*I have*”. This utterance is also defined as insertion code-mixing because a boat seller embeds a Sasak word within English sentence.

Other types of code-mixing that appear in Mandalika community (especially vendors) are called Alternation. Muysken (2000) proposed that one sentence names as the alternation code-mixing if the two language structures are alternated unclearly in grammatical and lexical level. The data below contain of alternation code mixing expression.

*“Buy one bracelet! **Muraq gati!** local price! Five thousand one! **Lime ribu** yes! come on Miss and Mister.”*

This part of sentence appears in conversation between merchandise seller and tourist when the merchandise seller is doing her daily activity to sell her merchandise in Kuta beach. In conversation, she tried to sell some bracelets to a tourist that she found in Kuta beach area. And the unique thing obtained in her utterances is English is changed

into Sasak language and it is mixed with English. It is shown from her utterances that “Buy one bracelet! **Muraq gati!** local price! Five thousand one! **Lime ribu** yes! come on Miss and Mister.” She alternates English word into the words of Sasak within English sentence; these words are “*muraq gati*” means *very cheaps* and the words “*lime ribu*” means “*five thousand*”.

Another example is illustrated by food seller and tourist:

*Jagung jagung! Popcorn! Come on sir! Delicious! Maiq gati!*

This part of conversation occurs when the food seller tried to persuade the tourists who walk on the beach to buy her food. From the sentence “*Jagung jagung! Popcorn! Come on sir! Delicious! Maiq gati!*” it can be seen how food seller alternates Sasak language within English language. Actually, she wanted to sell a roasted corn but she did not know how to name ‘roasted corn’ in English word, instead she said popcorn. Besides, the word refers to corn in Indonesian also mentions in the sentence; that is ‘*jagung*’, and the phrase ‘*maiq gati*’ which refers to Sasak language meant so delicious is mentioned as well, whereas, both of them have been named in the sentence as ‘popcorn’ and ‘delicious’. However, to make the costumer in native English speaker more understandable, these are alternated and mixed in the sentence.

Moreover, the data obtained will be continued to discuss what factors that cause code-mixing in Mandalika community. There are many reasons why Mandalika community especially vendors mix his/her language when interacting with tourist. Here are the factors of code mixing used by Mandalika community.

No	Factors of code-mixing	Numbers
1.	talking about particular topic	-
2.	Quoting somebody else	-
3.	Being emphatic about something (express solidarity)	-
4.	Interjection	4%
5.	Repetition used for clarification	23%
6.	Intention of clarifying the speech content for the interlocutor	-
7.	expressing group identity	-

8.	to soften or strengthen request or command	-
9.	Because of real lexical need	73%
10.	to exclude other people when a comment is intended for only a limited audience	-
<b>Total</b>		<b>100%</b>

First, the code-mixing occurs due to the real lexical need. Occasionally, when people of Mandalika interact with tourist, they fail to gain the word in English that suits with what they meant to utter. It is happening due to the lack of lexicon in the language especially English. When the bilinguals of Sasak-English have limitation in English words, they will find Sasak word easier to be utilized and vice versa. The example of utterances below:

(1) *come one miss **beli** miss. very cheap!*

(2) *so beautiful miss, **muraq!** One hundred **doang!***

From the first utterance, it can be identified that speaker uses code-mixing due to the real lexical need. In this sentence, the speaker does not know how to express the word ‘buy’ in English, instead the word ‘*beli*’ is automatically used to carry on the conversation. The word ‘*beli*’ is equivalent with the word ‘*buy*’ in English. The word in native language is easier to use if the speaker has limitation of equivalent word in another language. Similarly, in the second utterance, “*so beautiful miss, **muraq!** One hundred **doang!**”*, the Sasak-English bilingual inserts Sasak words in English sentences; ‘*muraq*’ means *cheap* and ‘*doang*’ means *only*.

Secondly, the factor that triggers people in Mandalika to do code-mixing is the repetition usage for clarification. The speaker tends to repeat the word frequently and puts it on language code mixing in order to makes the utterances clearer, for examples;

(1) ***Beaq?** Oh yes red, I have*

(2) *oh yes! **Sepulu ribu!** Ten thousand!*

In data (1) the speaker mentions the word ‘*red*’ two times; once in Sasak that is ‘*beaq*’ (the word ‘*beaq*’ means ‘*red*’), then it repeats once again in English becoming the word ‘*red*’. In this utterance, the speaker repeats the word in order to make clarification to the interlocutor. In data (2) the speaker also repeats the word in Sasak and English language; *sepulu ribu* means *ten thousand*.

Finally, the last factor found that make vendors often used code-mixing in their utterances is called interjection. Interjection is words expression to convey emotion, feeling, such as anger, happy and so on. Each language has its own words to express an interjection such as English Interjection; these are ‘*Look!*’, ‘*Shit!*’, ‘*Hey!*’. Similarly, the Sasak language has its own interjection as well. For instance;

(1) *You bembeq!*

(2) *Aneh gamaq neneq kaji! Sorry I forget!*

In data (1) the word *bembeq* means a goat. In here the speaker express his feeling in Sasak word in order to convey his emotion of anger by saying *bembeq* (a goat) to the interlocutor. In data (2) the words, ‘*Aneh gamaq neneq kaji!*’ is also included in interjection and it means *Oh! My goodness!* The speaker expresses her feeling of surprise by mixing Sasak and English language.

## **Conclusion**

Considering the result of data findings and discussion, the researcher enables to conclude that there are two varieties of language, frequently, used by Mandalika community (especially vendors) in Kuta beach; that are the lexicon-functional words: elimination of grammatical words and the local words for unknown English words. Further, there are two types of code-mixing commonly used by vendors in Kuta beach; they are insertion and alternation. Meanwhile, the type of congruent lexicalization code-mixing is not founded. However, the vendors in Kuta beach mostly used the type of insertion code-mixing in their utterances. The last but not the least, such factors that cause Mandalika community utilizes the code-mixing is obtained too. The first, due to real lexical need, the people use code-mixing. The Second, the need of clarification to make the costumer more understandable, the repetition by mixing Sasak and English are used. The last factor, people utilize code-mixing because of Interjection.

## **Pedagogical Implication**

Consider to this phenomenon will give greatly affect the young generation. Especially in the generation of Mandalika community at Kuta beach, because they don't have enough knowledge about English. Hence, they do not use proper English. If this

thing happens continually, they will use improper English. It will develop and cause adverse effects. Furthermore, it is necessary to create a deep understanding of the correct structure of the English language.

## References

- Ahire, M. Milind. (2015). Form and function of code mixing in Marathi. ISSN 1930-2940
- Baker, Colin. (2001). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (3th Ed). Multilingual Matters. Ltd.
- Creswell, J. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education
- Ng, Wui, Chi. (2018). Code-mixing of Cantonese –English bilingual children with different language dominance patterns. *EILJ* Vol. 13 issue 2.1 December 2018. ISSN: 1718-2298. *English as an International Language Journal*.
- Nguyen, Thanh, Mai. (2017). The benefit of a bilingual program in English language teaching in Vietnam. *EILJ* Vol. 12 issue 1 2017. ISSN: 1718-2298. *English as an International Language Journal*.
- Kia, Su, Lau. (2011). Code-Mixing of English in the Entertainment News of Chinese Newspaper in Malaysia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*. Published by Canadian Center of Science and Education.
- Kim, Eunhee. (2006). *Reasons and motivations for code mixing and code switching*. EFL
- Hoffman, Charlotte. (1991). *An Introduction to Bilingualism*, New York: Longman.
- Sumarsih, Siregar. Et al. (2014). Code Switching and Code Mixing in Indonesia: Study in Sociolinguistics. *English Language and Literature Studies*; Vol. 4, No. 1;2014 ISSN 1925-4768 E-ISSN 1925-4776. Published by Canadian Center of Science and Education.
- Trugill, Peter. (1983). *Sociolinguistic: An Introduction to Linguistic and Society*. Penguin Books.

- Muysken, P. (2000). *Bilingual speech: A typology of code-mixing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Paauw, S. (2009). One land, one nation, one language: An analysis of Indonesia's national language policy. In H. Lenhart-Lehouiller and A.B Fine (Eds), *University of Rochester Working Papers in the Language Science*, 5(1), 2-16.
- Yuliana, Nana. Et al. (2015). Code-Mixing and Code Switching of Indonesian Celebrities: A Comparative Study. *English Literature, Faculty of Letters, National University. Journal Lingua Cultura* Vol.9 No 1.

## APPENDIX

No	Utterances	Types of code mixing		
		Insertion	Alternation	Congruent Lexicalization
1.	Beautiful color, <i>kunyiq</i> is Lombok maybe you like!	√		
2.	Come on go to <i>batu payung</i> , boat one hundred only.		√	
3.	oh yes! Bedoengkeh what app number here!	√		
4.	Miss buy bracelet <i>telu sepulu ribu</i> three for ten!		√	
5.	No! very <i>bangkrut</i> sir!	√		
6.	<i>Terimakasih</i> sir! Thank you!	√		
7.	<i>Jagung jagung!</i> Popcorn! Come on sir! Delicious! <i>Maiq gati!</i>		√	
8.	Buy one bracelet! <i>solah gati!</i> local price! Five thousand one!		√	
9.	three years! <i>anuq lupakeh base inggrish.</i>		√	
10.	<i>satus</i> sir! One hundred only.	√		
11.	Buy one bracelet! <i>Muraq gati!</i> local price! Five thousand one! <i>Lime ribu yes!</i> come on Miss and Mister.”		√	
12.	<i>maksudn?</i> Sorry im not understand.	√		
13.	oh! This good! <i>Ndeqku ngerti.</i>		√	
14.	<i>Muraq</i> Miss! So nice here!	√		
15.	<i>aneh beli.</i> so cheap this one		√	
16.	<i>Beaq?</i> Oh yes red, I have	√		
17.	come one miss <i>beli</i> miss. very cheap!	√		
18.	oh yes! <i>Sepulu ribu!</i> Ten thousand		√	

19.	Halo <i>nona!</i> beli bracelet cheap beautiful.	√		
20.	hallo sir! <i>Payu?</i> Boat?	√		
21.	Oh <i>saq ne!</i> yes please		√	
22.	snack snack please! <i>Maiq</i> delicious cheap one come on buy one please!	√		
23.	sarong please. <i>Kain</i> Lombok local price.	√		
24.	<i>Kain songket</i> sir, sarong from Lombok		√	
25.	thank you sir! <i>Terimakasih!</i>	√		
26.	<i>jagung</i> corn! Delicious one! Beli sir come one cheap one ne!	√		
27.	so beautiful miss, <i>muraq!</i> One hundred <i>doang!</i>	√		
28.	beli teken bracelet nice one		√	
29.	<i>aok...</i> yes, yes!	√		
30.	far miss! <i>Ape jake uni!</i> Sade village!		√	
31.	Alhamdulillah, thank you miss! <i>Onyaq-onyaq!</i>	√		
32.	<i>Nggih!</i> Take care sir!	√		
33.	Buy one! very cheap! <i>sekeq</i> doang!		√	
34.	<i>Maiq meres</i> coconut!		√	
35.	take five! Free one <i>gratis!</i>	√		
36.	No sir, <i>tampiasih</i> Thank you so much	√		
37.	Yes myself and <i>selapuq</i> family	√		
38.	No no! <i>ndeq</i> sir!	√		
39.	Yes, sir this one beautiful <i>warne puteq!</i>	√		
40.	<i>Aneh gamak nenek kaji!</i> Sorry I forget!		√	
41.	<i>Tas</i> unique!	√		
42.	Yes! Far away! <i>Nteh ke atongm!</i> Let's go!		√	
43.	<i>Ape?</i> I don't understand!	√		
44.	Ok! <i>Ne</i> good one! Beautiful color!	√		

45.	Yes! Beautiful beach! <i>Geresn</i> good!	√		
46.	Beautiful one! <i>Silaq</i> buy kain songket!		√	
47.	So good! <i>Rasaq bae ni!</i> Delicious!		√	
48.	<i>songket</i> beautiful from Lombok buy one please!	√		
49.	Very cheap! <i>Tejamin!</i>	√		
50.	You <i>bembeq!</i>	√		
51.	Take care! Ok <i>tampiasih</i>	√		
52.	Selong belanak <i>solah masih!</i> Good view!		√	



**Pandemic Humor: Inventory of the Humor Scripts Produced  
during the COVID-19 Outbreak**

**Joel M. Torres<sup>1</sup>, Leila M. Collantes<sup>2</sup>, Emily T. Astrero<sup>3</sup>,  
Arceli R. Millan<sup>4</sup>, Carlo M. Gabriel<sup>5</sup>**

Corresponding author, [joel\\_torres@clsu.edu.ph](mailto:joel_torres@clsu.edu.ph)<sup>1</sup>

*Department of Secondary Education, College of Education, Central Luzon State  
Univerisity<sup>1,2,3</sup>*

*Department of Linguistics and Literature, College of Arts and Sciences, Nueva Ecija  
University of Science and Technology<sup>4</sup>*

*Department of Trades and Technology, Southern Institute of Technology<sup>5</sup>*

**Bio-profiles:**

**Dr. Joel M. Torres** is an Associate Professor handling professional and general education courses. He earned the degree, Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics, from De La Salle University-Manila. In his dissertation, he documented, categorized and analyzed gendered humor through the lens of sociolinguistics. He published research articles on the fields of sociolinguistics, bilingualism and bilingual education, discourse analysis, Philippine English, second language acquisition and learning, and pedagogy in Scopus-indexed and internationally refereed journals.

**Dr. Leila M. Collantes** is a Full-Professor VI at Central Luzon State University. She has been teaching education courses both in the undergraduate and graduate programs for more than two decades. Her research interests are on the areas of education, social science and psychology. Her research articles have been recently published in Scopus-indexed journals.

**Dr. Emily T. Astrero** is an Associate Professor at the College of Education of the Central Luzon State University. She earned her degree, Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics, from De La Salle University, Manila. She has grown her research interests in sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, second language acquisition. Her research works as author and co-author are channeled in publications and presentations in a number of fora, including local and international journals and conferences, such as The Asian EFL Journal, Education Digest, DLSU Research Congress, Free Linguistics Conference, Alethea, Balitang Maria, and others.

**Dr. Arceli R. Millan** is an Associate Professor from the Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology under the Linguistics and Literature Department of the College of Arts and Sciences. She also teaches at the NEUST Graduate School teaching Educational Management and English courses. At present, she is the head of the NEUST Publication and Media Affairs Office. She is also the Editor-in-Chief of The NEST, the official publication of NEUST.

**Engr. Carlo M. Gabriel** is a faculty and Lead Tutor/Lecturer of School of Advanced Engineering Technology, Southern Institute of Technology, New Zealand. He has presented and published research on the fields of engineering education with focus on learning motivation, anxiety and self-efficacy. He studied Adult Tertiary Teaching from Southern Institute of Technology.

### **Abstract**

Humor is no cure for COVID-19, does feed the hungry, nor can pay the bills of the jobless. Many do not approve of humor out of crisis, yet millions of people have come up with COVID-19 related humor scripts on social medial platforms if only to soften grief, lighten mood, and distract people from the struggle in accepting the new normal. Humor is also used as coping mechanism for the bad scenario experienced by many. Everybody tends to laugh at those they love and hate, and many times they joke about the good and bad fortunes of people. The present quantitative-qualitative study documents and categorizes the 214 humor scripts (equal distribution of Tagalog and English humor

scripts) that were produced and circulated in social media platforms during the COVID-19 pandemic. The collected humor scripts were coded according to humor types (i.e., aggressive, national/ethnic, positive, self-deprecating, sexual, sexist), humor targets, humor subjects and humor structure (i.e., conversational, narrative, one-liner, question and answer, verse/lyrical). Humor targets and subjects exclusive to Tagalog and English humor scripts were also discussed.

**Keywords:** *humor, type, target, subject, structure, COVID-19*

## **Introduction**

### *Background of the Study*

During periods of crisis, people attempt to find coping mechanisms in order to lighten an existing problem. In 1995, Sultanoff identified humor as one of the healthiest and most powerful methods in providing perspective on life's difficult experiences. Smith added that humor helps people deal with emotional turmoil and stress, and provides clear insight into decision making and problem-solving abilities (Sultanoff, 1995). At present that the world faces the COVID-19 pandemic, Baldoni (2020) reminds that humor lightens one's burdens, inspires, hopes, and keeps people grounded, focused and alert – as it lubricates the present situation in ways that enable people, if only for a moment, to forget this present crisis. With so much power to heal and renew, the ability to laugh easily and frequently is a tremendous resource in confronting any crisis situation, proving that the adage ‘laughter is the best (or cheapest) medicine’ still holds true.

Though many may not conform with the idea of making fun out of the COVID-19 pandemic, still millions of people have come up with COVID-19 related humor scripts on social medial platforms to distract people from new reality. These humor scripts have proven that even though the virus is serious, a bit of humor diffuses tension.

Though scholars (e.g., Sultanoff, 1995; Baldoni, 2020) acknowledge the existence of humor in time of world crisis, still there is no study to date or to the researchers’ knowledge that categorizes humor during an outbreak in terms of humor types, targets, subjects and structure. Hence, the present study attempts to offer initial inventory of the humor scripts that circulated online during a pandemic like COVID-19.

## *Related Studies*

### *Humor*

Humor is a universal human trait that is present in various everyday situations (Raskin, 1985). On a daily basis, it is natural for anyone to respond to humor, produce humorous stories both to entertain and inform, and exchange clever insults for fun. Like language, the goal and effect of humor has to do with the externalization of human thought and conceptualization. The externalization indicates multiple meanings such as expression of emotion, social device and exercise of the intellect.

Humor is shaped by culture, is subjective and requires cognition. Martin (2007) considered humor as a form of mental play composed of the different components: cognitive, emotional, social and expressive. Cognitively, humor requires the recognition of non-serious incongruity, a mental process that occurs if two contradictory images or conceptions of similar thing or context have been situated in one's mind simultaneously. Humor involves emotional component since the perception of it initiates mirth, which is expressed through laughter. Since humor requires both a teller and an audience, it is considered a social phenomenon.

Chiaro (2018) noted that the works of Davies (e.g., Davies 1990, 1998, 2002, 2011) have been largely dedicated to the research of humor and their targets. His studies discover different categories of humor collected all over the globe and provide compressive social and historical reasoning as to why a certain group of people becomes the target of humor. Among the categories of humor explored by Davies, Chiaro (2018) found that ethnic humor, stupidity humor, those about canny people, about politicians, religion and sex, as well as those that involve the stupidity of the people involved have become the targets of humor. For Davies, stupidity humor is the largest category of humor present different countries, and though the target may vary, stupidity humor is universal. Alongside humor about imbeciles, plenty of popular humor are on canny people.

### *Humor Studies in the Philippines*

In the Gallup 2015 Positive Experience Index, Philippines ranked first in the list of happiest citizens in the world, despite the many socio-economic issues Filipinos face

every day. Being humorous, often downplayed or overlooked, is one quality that Filipinos can be proud of. In many instances, it has been proven that humor helps Filipinos cope with disaster and challenges that life offers. It provides them capacity to survive even in the most trying times like this pandemic.

According to Wong (2012), spontaneity in appreciating and producing humor is a dimension of Filipino creativity. According to Whatmore (1987), Filipinos resolve the dullness and boredom through deriving pleasure from various experience, as most people do. Filipinos like to look in on other people's lives, to share in their victory and defeats, and this opportunity is what comic strips commonly provide people in a safe and comfortable way. To sum it up, one character of the Filipinos is the love for socializations and celebrations, a clear manifestation for a cheerful and fun-loving approach to life and its ups and downs.

Doris Trinidad (1980, as cited in Bautista, General & Perez, 1982) describes Filipino humor as earthy, obsessed with sex, marital and extra-marital situations, and the in-law syndrome. Religious humor, focusing in priest and nuns and other more blasphemous subjects, was also emerging then. A number of jokes spawned by the grassroots are scatological. Meanwhile, those which originates from urban areas are often political.

In the Phase 1 of her study entitled, *The National Humor of the Philippines: Defining Filipino Humor in Contemporary Popular Culture Forms*, Dr. Maria Rhodora Ancheta asserted that national humor is a powerful display of "Filipino-ness", and is evidence of how Filipinos maneuver within the frames of their local and national experiences.

Torres (2019) did one of the most recent humor studies in the Philippines. Using the dynamic sociological approach, he analyzed and described how humor is gendered among 240 middle-class Tagalog university students, ages 18 to 25 years old. He provided a framework for analyzing the humor types, humor subjects, humor targets and humor structures on the participants' produced, perceived and reproduced humor scripts was also developed and used in the study. The study ended with a comprehensive description on how the dimensions of sense of humor among the participants across gender groups have become related and distinct from each other. Likewise, Torres and Pariña (2020) looked

at the humor types of the humor scripts produced by Tagalog university students. Results show that, of the 449 humor scripts produced, positive humor was the most prevalent. Aggressive, self-defeating, sexual and sexist humor followed. Participants did not produce ethnic or national humor type. In their quantitative study, Torres, Pariña, Collantes and Tan (2020) investigated the humor styles and perceptions of 120 university students in Central Luzon. They found that of the four humor styles, self-enhancing humor obtained the highest mean score, followed by self-defeating, aggressive and affiliative.

### *Research Questions*

The study aimed to document and categorize the humor scripts that circulated online during the COVID-19 pandemic. Specifically, it aimed to classify the humor scripts in terms of types (i.e., aggressive, national/ethnic, positive, self-deprecating, sexual, sexist), humor targets, humor subjects and humor structure (i.e., conversational, narrative, one-liner, question and answer, verse/lyrical). Humor targets and subjects exclusive to Tagalog and English humor scripts were also discussed.

## **Methodology**

### **Research Design**

The study utilized both the quantitative and qualitative research methods. This is in response to the call of humor scholar Raffaella Baccolini for research based on qualitative observational methods as well as quantitative data to provide researchers the numbers they need (Baccolini & Chiaro, 2014). The use of both methods advances the systematic integration or mixing of quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation or sustained program of inquiry. The basic premise of this methodology is that such integration permits a more complete and synergistic utilization of data than do separate quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis (Wisdom & Creswell, 2013).

## **The Humor Scripts**

The 214 humor scripts, equal distribution of Tagalog (n=107) and English (n=107) humor scripts, were obtained from online public domains (i.e., Facebook, Twitter) from March 20, 2020 to May 4, 2020. As Solis (2007) mentioned, social media (e.g., Facebook) is the democratization of content and the understanding of the role people play in the process of not only reading and disseminating information, but also how they share and create contents for others to participate. Torres (2016) and Fumi (1997) cited Goffman (1981) as regards the advantage of choosing public domain as corpus in analysis. One of which is that there is no ethical problem since what is already placed in a public domain becomes a common property. In the present study, the humor scripts posted in different online platforms were screenshot and individually subjected to analysis.

## **Method of Analysis**

Following the framework designed by Torres (2019) in analyzing humor scripts. The 214 humor scripts were classified according to humor type, humor target, humor subject, and humor structure.

Humor types included in the study were the ones presented by various humor scholars such as Martin et al. (2003), Davies (1990), Apte (1985), and LaFrance and Woodzicka (1998). These are positive or clean humor, self-deprecating or self-defeating humor, malicious or sexual humor, sexist humor, aggressive or putdown humor and national or ethnic humor. Positive humor type is considered genial, non-competitive, and harmless humor. Self-deprecating humor involves humor at one's personal expense to amuse others. Sexual humor refers to the bathroom humor and those that include reproductive organs as sources and subjects of humor. Sexist humor degrades, offends, typecasts, and objectifies a person on the basis of his/her gender. Aggressive humor refers to those humor that deprecates other people and thus involves ridicule, teasing, and hostility. National or ethnic humor underscores the traits or characteristics of certain ethnic or national group, which serves as the target and subject of humor.

Likewise, the humor scripts were also classified according to humor targets (e.g., people, countries, biblical characters, date) and subjects (i.e., appearance, ability, clothing, country, date, death, debt, food and beverages, health, heartaches, instruction, location, marital relationship, movies, panic buying, relief or cash assistance distribution, election, poverty, predictions, reflex action, religion, services, sexual activity, social distancing, solutions to COVID, stay at home, students' life, work from home). Some of the targets and subjects were based on the typologies made by previous humor scholars (i.e., Torres, 2019; Bautista et al., 1982; General & Perez, 1981) and the others were coded as they emerged. Torres (2019) clarifies the difference between humor targets and humor subjects. For him, humor target refers to the focus or object of humor that also serves as the victim in the humor script, while humor subject refers to what is being discussed, described or dealt with in the humor scripts. Humor subject is different to humor target since it refers to the topic and not to the focus or victim in the humor scripts.

Finally, the humor scripts were also coded according to structure (i.e., conversational, knock-knock, lyrical, narrative, one-liner, question and answer). In conversational humor structure, the one producing the humor script uses the direct speech to present what the people involved in the humor script have said. Meanwhile, in narrative humor structure, producer of humor script tells and reports what happened. Further, individuals or characters involved as well as the settings are described in humor scripts with narrative structure. Unlike the conversational humor structure that uses direct speech, narrative humor structure uses reported speech. Knock-knock humor structure consists of four lines: the knock-knock line, the who is there line, the knock-knock word or phrase, and the statement or line from a song in which the knock-knock word is used. Lyrical is a humor structure in which the melody of a song is retained and the lyrics are sometimes changed or retained to describe a current situation. Question and Answer humor structure consists of two lines: the question line and the answer line. Finally, one-liner humor structure may consist of a single premise that is the sole humor stimulus. There are instances in which one-liner humor structure can have the set-up and the punchline and not always a single premise. For a humor structure to be coded as one-liner, the length should be short and the distance between the set-up and punch is near (Torres, 2019). Below is a sample of a coded humor script.

[Humor Script 4: type – self-deprecating; target – self; subject – involuntary reflex action; structure – one-liner]

I miss those days when I sneezed and they said “Bless You”  
Now they say ‘Get lost’

The text enclosed in the bracket includes the humor script number, the humor type, humor target, humor subject and humor structure. Humor script 4 was coded as self-deprecating humor since the humor target is “self”. The humor subject was labeled as involuntary reflex action since it has to do with sneezing. With regard to the structure, it was coded as one-liner since the humor script consists of a single premise that served as the sole humor stimulus.

### **Inter-coding of Humor Scripts**

Prior to analysis of the humor scripts, the coders met and discussed how they would code the scripts following Torres’ (2019) framework. To help them familiarize the coding, they practiced coding 20 humor scripts. After the practice, they compared their individual coding. Differences in their coding during the practice were discussed and agreement was set on how to code the humor scripts that were coded differently. After the practice on coding the scripts, the encoded scripts of the 214 humor scripts were given by one of the researchers to the two inter-coders, who were graduate students pursuing degree on language and literature.

One of the researchers and two inter-coders individually coded the humor scripts. Inter-coder reliability of the analysis (i.e., humor type, humor target, humor subject, humor structure) was done using Cohen’s Kappa (Torres & Flores, 2017). Cross tabulation results show the following Kappa ( $\kappa$ ) values: between Rater 1 and Rater 2 ( $\kappa = .912$ ), between Rater 2 and Rater 3 ( $\kappa = .925$ ), and between Rater 1 and Rater 3 ( $\kappa = .931$ ). After the analysis and coding of the humor scripts, the three raters convened and checked for discrepancies in their coding until they agreed how to code those humor scripts that were different from each other.

## Results and Discussion

This part presents and discusses the findings in the study. Classifications of the 214 humor scripts according to humor types, humor targets, humor subjects and humor structures were presented and discussed. Likewise, the distinct features of Tagalog and English humor scripts in terms of the targets and subjects were also discussed.

### *Humor Types*

In terms of the types of Tagalog and English humor scripts produced during the COVID-19 pandemic, Table 1 shows that more than half (119 or 55.61%) of the humor scripts were positive and more than one-fourth (69 or 32.24%) were aggressive humor. The rest of the humor scripts were self-deprecating (8 or 3.74%), sexist (8 or 3.74%), national or ethnic (5 or 2.34%) and sexual (5 or 2.34%).

**Table 1. Types of Humor Scripts**

Humor Types	Number of tokens and Percentage		Total and Percentage
	Tagalog Humor Scripts (n=107)	English Humor Scripts (=107)	
Aggressive	48 (22.43%)	21 (9.81%)	69 (32.24%)
National/Ethnic	1 (0.47%)	4 (1.87%)	5 (2.34%)
Positive	49 (22.90%)	70 (32.70%)	119 (55.61%)
Self-deprecating	5 (2.34%)	3 (1.40%)	8 (3.74%)
Sexual	1 (0.47%)	4 (1.87%)	5 (2.34%)
Sexist	3 (1.40%)	5 (2.34%)	8 (3.74%)

The prevalence of positive humor conforms to the findings of Torres (2019). Positive humor has the most number of tokens since it is the type of humor that everyone can safely laugh at without the fear of maligning other individuals, groups or beliefs. Humor Scripts 31, 73 and 102 in (1) were labeled as positive humor since they do not mean to deride, disparage or mock anyone. In addition, this is considered as the safest humor type for all given that one can safely laugh at this humor type without having the fear of offending others (Torres & Pariña, 2020). This can also be attributed to the fact that Filipinos are sensitive to the feelings of others and they value interpersonal relationship, dignity and respect. Humor is used to lighten the situation and create positive aura among their fellow human being.

(1)

[Humor Script 31: type – positive; target – year; subject – solution to COVID; structure – one-liner]

Have we tried unplugging 2020 waiting 20 seconds and plugging it back in?

[Humor Script 73: type – positive; target – people; subject – social distancing; structure – one-liner]

Grocery shopping has become the real life version of PACMAN. Avoid everyone, get the fruit and take any route to avoid contact.

[Humor Script 102: type – positive; target – location; subject – stay at home; structure – one-liner]

*Ang lamig pala sa Banyo City, next destination – Kwarto Galera!*

(It is cold in the bathroom, next destination is the room!)

Aggressive humor type has the second most number of tokens among the humor scripts gathered. Various humor scholars (e.g., Holmes, 2006; Lampert & Ervin-Tripp, 2006; Martin *et al.*, 2003; Robinson & Smith-Lovin, 2001; Hay, 2000; Kotthoff, 2000; Jenkins, 1985; Maltz & Borker, 1982) refer to this type as one that entails disparagement, derision, hostility, ridicule, sarcasm, and teasing. All of these are gestures of showing dominance to others. Humor Scripts 38 and 80 in (2) have aggressive humor type.

(2)

[Humor Script 38: type – aggressive; target – Biblical character; subject – religion;  
*structure – one-liner*]

On Easter Sunday, Jesus was arrested after emerging from His tomb during the Enhanced Community Quarantine.

[Humor Script 80: type – aggressive; target – people; subject – ability;  
structure – one-liner]

Some people only write lockdown because they cannot spell quarantine.

A little over 10% of the total humor scripts were categorized as self-deprecating, sexist, sexual, and national humor. Humor Scripts in (3) are samples of self-deprecating (Humor Script 30), sexist (Humor Script 16), sexual (Humor Script 67) and national (Humor Script 58) humor types.

(3)

[Humor Script 30: type – self-deprecating; target – self; subject – panic buying;  
structure – one-liner]

*Gusto ko mag-panic buying kaso wala akong pera kaya nag-panic na lang ako.*

(Due to sudden fear of a forthcoming shortage or price hike, I want to buy wholesale but I do not have the money so I opted to panic instead.)

[Humor Script 16: type – sexist; target – wife; subject – marital relationship;  
structure – one-liner]

If I get quarantined for two weeks with my wife and I die, I can assure you it was not the virus that killed me.

[Humor Script 67: type – sexual; target – people; subject – clothing;  
structure – one-liner]

Wearing the same gloves and masks everywhere is like wearing the same condom with different people.

[Humor Script 58: type – national/ethnic; target – Filipinos; subject – following instruction; structure – one-liner]

*Ang Pinoy nga naman, pag sinabing evacuate walang gustong umalis ng bahay, pag sinabing home quarantine nag-aalisan gusto lagi nasa labas ng bahay.*

(The thing about Filipinos is that when they are instructed to evacuate, nobody wants to leave their houses. But when they are instructed to stay home during quarantine, everybody wants to go out.)

### ***Humor Targets***

According to Helitzer and Shatz (2005), humor is criticism cloaked as entertainment and directed at a specific target. Table 2 summarizes the targets in the 214 humor scripts collected. For Torres (2019), humor targets refer to people, objects, animals among others as the focus and victim of the humor. Thirty humor subjects – ranging from people (i.e., politicians, husband, wife, celebrity, children, students, ECQ violators, senior citizens), places at home, products and services, countries (i.e., China, Philippines), date (i.e., year, month, day), government agency (i.e., DSWD), and Biblical characters among others – were identified. This concurs with Helitzer’s (2015 as cited in Torres, 2019) observation that humor targets can be almost anything or anybody.

Likewise, it echoes Ancheta’s (2011) finding that the Filipino humor is a powerful display of Filipinoness and is a proof of the Filipinos maneuver within the frames of their local and national experiences.

From among the humor targets, ‘self’ has the most number of tokens (45 or 21.03%). In Humor Script 30 (3), ‘self’ is the target of humor since the producer of humor also refers to himself or herself as the victim of humor. This can be attributed to the notion that Filipinos restrain

themselves from hurting other’s feelings since they value interpersonal relations and community interactions.

Other targets with the most number of tokens were: people in general (42 or 19.63%), male and female politicians (22 or 10.28%), enhanced-community quarantine violators (16 or 7.48%) and men in general (11 or 5.14%). Humor scripts in (4) illustrate how politicians (Humor Scripts 12) and ECQ violators (Humor Script 118) have become the humor targets.

(4)

[Humor Script 12: type – aggressive; target – politicians; subject – instruction; structure – one-liner)

Best way to learn if you have COVID-19 is to cough in a politician’s face and wait for their test results.

[Humor Script 118: type – aggressive; target – ECQ violators; subject – stay at home; structure – one-liner)

*Pag nag-iikot na ang pulis saka magsisipasukan sa loob ng bahay. Hindi po pulis ang kalaban, virus po, virus.*

(During the lockdown, there were those individuals who would just go inside their houses once the police officers patrolled in their streets disregarding the fact that corona virus is the enemy and not the police.)

Table 2. Targets of the Humor Scripts

Humor Targets	Number of tokens and Percentage		Total and Percentage (n=214)
	Tagalog Humor Scripts (n=107)	English Humor Scripts (n=107)	
People in General	17 (7.94%)	25 (11.68%)	42 (19.63%)
Men in General	6 (2.80%)	5 (2.34%)	11 (5.14%)
Husband	1 (0.47%)	3 (1.40%)	4 (1.87%)
Police		1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)

Celebrity	1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)
Prisoner	1 (0.47%)		1 (0.47%)
Politician		1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)
Women in General	2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)	4 (1.87%)
Wife	2 (0.93%)	7 (3.27%)	9 (4.20%)
Housemaid	1 (0.47%)		1 (0.47%)
Children	2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)	4 (1.87%)
Self	18 (8.41%)	27 (12.62%)	45 (21.03%)
Babies		1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)
Students	1 (0.47%)		1 (0.47%)
Old person		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Politicians (Male/Female)	21 (9.81%)	1 (0.47%)	22 (10.28%)
Fat people	1 (0.47%)	3 (1.40%)	4 (1.87%)
Midget		1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)
ECQ Violators	16 (7.48%)		16 (7.48%)
Debtors	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)	3 (1.40%)
Countries			
China		3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)
Philippines	1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)
Date			
Year		4 (1.87%)	4 (1.87%)
Month	1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)
Day	1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)
Bible Characters		1 (0.47%)	1 (0.47%)
Products/Services	2 (0.93%)	7 (3.27%)	9 (4.20%)
Government Agency (DSWD)	8 (3.74%)		8 (3.74%)
Places	2 (0.93%)	1 (0.47%)	3 (1.40%)
Burglar	1 (0.47%)	4 (1.87%)	5 (2.33%)

It could be noted that Biblical character (Humor Script 38) in 2 and old people (Humor Script 138 in 5) have also become the target of English humor scripts. This supports Rudgard's (2017) report that religion has become the butt of workplace humor in British context as employees who would never come up with sexist or ethnic humor target religion instead. Given that Bible characters have never been the target of Tagalog humor scripts supports the fact that a majority of Filipinos are Christians and find humor that target religion to be inappropriate (Torres, 2019). This does not conform to the observation of Trinidad (1980, as cited in Bautista, General & Perez, 1982) that religious humor had emerged in the 1980s. Similarly, given that elder people had never been the target in Tagalog humor scripts resonates the fact that Filipino is one of the most respectful races in the world. It is something that is not only manifested in the language

but in how Filipinos treat the elders as well. From the very beginning, Filipinos have high regards to the elder people in the community. As such, the elders are ‘seldom’ or ‘never’ have become the target of humor (Torres, 2019). Meanwhile, government agency such as the Department of Social Welfare and Development (Humor Script 56 in 5) is a humor target exclusively found in Tagalog humor scripts. This suggests that humor may sometimes be in the form of political satire, which is used as clear manifestation of appeal of the Filipinos to their unheard voices.

(5)

[Humor Script 138: type – positive; target – old people; subject – stay at home; structure – narrative]

During the COVID-19 outbreak, the world has turned upside down. Old folks are sneaking out of the house and their kids are yelling at them to stay indoors.

[Humor Script 56: type – aggressive; target – government agency; subject – relief/cash assistance distribution; structure – one-liner]

*Nabasa ko lang ang bagong ibig sabihin ng DSWD ay Department of Selection and Wrong Distribution.*

(I just recently learned that the new meaning of DSWD is Department of Selection and Wrong Distribution and no longer Department of Social Welfare and Development.)

### ***Humor Subjects***

From the 214 humor scripts collected, 29 humor subjects were identified. The number of tokens and percentage distribution of the humor subjects were presented in Table 3. The three humor subjects with the highest number of tokens were stay at home (44 or 20.60%), relief or cash assistance distribution (33 or 15.40%) and appearance (19 or 8.88%).

It could be observed that there are more English humor scripts with appearance as the subject, while there are more Tagalog humor scripts with relief or cash assistance distribution as the subject. Goldberg’s (2020) observation that Americans are employing humor as a balm to soothe nerves during the coronavirus pandemic, sharing Facebook memes about taking off bras and pants and putting on weight in self-quarantine can be a plausible explanation why there are more English humor scripts that has ‘appearance’ as their subject. This also echoes Danao’s (1996 as cited in Torres & Alieto, 2019; Torres & Medriano, 2020) contention that regionalism, as a process, plays role within the nation as well as outside the nation i.e. at international level. Regional boundaries result in the development of distinct culture, language and other socio-cultural factors.

For the subject ‘stay at home’ the Tagalog and English humor scripts have almost the same number of tokens, which is 24 or 11.21% and 20 or 9.35%, respectively.

Table 3. Subjects of the Humor Scripts

Humor Subjects	Number of tokens and Percentage		Total and Percentage
	Tagalog Humor Scripts (n=107)	English Humor Scripts (n=107)	
Appearance	3 (1.40%)	16 (7.48%)	19 (8.88%)
Ability		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Clothing	2 (0.93%)	3 (1.40%)	5 (2.34%)
Country		3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)
Date			
Year		3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)
Month		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Day		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Death	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)	3 (1.40%)
Debt	2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)	4 (1.87%)
Food and Beverages	5 (2.34%)	5 (2.34%)	10 (4.67%)
Health	2 (0.93%)		2 (0.93%)
Heartaches	5 (2.34%)		5 (2.34%)
Instruction	6 (2.80%)	3 (1.40%)	9 (4.21%)
Location		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Marital Relationship	5 (2.34%)	3 (1.40%)	8 (3.74%)
Movies		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Panic Buying	3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)	6 (2.80%)
Relief/Cash Assistance Distribution	31 (14.49%)	2 (0.93%)	33 (15.40%)
Election	5 (2.34%)		5 (2.34%)
Poverty	5 (2.34%)	2 (0.93%)	7 (3.27%)

Predictions		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Reflex Action			
Involuntary	2 (0.93%)	3 (1.40%)	5 (2.34%)
Voluntary		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Religion		2 (0.93%)	2 (0.93%)
Services		3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)
Sexual Activity		1 (0.47%)	(0.47%)
Social Distancing	2 (0.93%)	1 (0.47%)	3 (1.40%)
Solutions to COVID		10 (4.67%)	10 (4.67%)
Stay at Home	24 (11.21%)	20 (9.35%)	44 (20.60%)
Students' Life	3 (1.40%)	2 (0.93%)	5 (2.34%)
Work from Home	1 (0.47%)	4 (1.87%)	5 (2.34%)

Humor scripts in (6) show how stay at home (Humor Script 86), relief or cash assistance distribution (Humor Script 111) and appearance (Humor Script 83) have become the humor subjects.

(6)

[Humor Script 86: type – positive; target – people; subject – stay at home;  
structure – question and answer]

Question: What day is it?

Answer: Friday.

Question: What are we doing?

Answer: Going out.

Question: And where are we going?

Answer: To the Patio.

[Humor Script 111: type – aggressive; target – government agency; subject – relief or cash assistance distribution; structure – one-liner]

*Iyong financial assistance ng DSWD parang virus din pala. hindi natin alam kung sino tatamaan.*

(The cash assistance provided by the DSWD can be compared to the Corona

virus. Like the virus in which we do not know who will be infected, we also do not know who will get the cash assistance.)

[Humor Script 83: type – positive; target – self; subject – appearance;  
structure – narrative]

I hope they give us a two week notice before sending us back into the world. I think, we all need time to become ourselves again. And by “ourselves” I mean lose 10 pounds, cut our hair and get used to not drinking at 9am.

As regards the humor subjects exclusive to the Tagalog and English humor scripts, findings show that 10 subjects were exclusive to English humor scripts, while there are three subjects exclusive to the Tagalog humor scripts. This means that the subjects of the English humor scripts are more diverse than that of the Tagalog humor scripts. The subjects exclusive to English humor scripts were country (3 or 1.40%), date (i.e., year, 3 or 1.40%; month, 2 or 0.93%; day, 2 or 0.93%), location (2 or 0.93%), predictions (2 or 0.93%), religion (2 or 0.93%), services (3 or 1.40%), sexual activity (1 or 0.47%) and solutions to COVID (10 or 4.67%). The three humor subjects exclusively found in Tagalog humor scripts were health (2 or 0.93%), heartaches (5 or 2.34%) and election (5 or 2.34%).

Humor scripts in (7) present how the subjects exclusively found in English humor scripts have been used, while humor scripts in (8) illustrate how the subjects exclusively found in Tagalog humor scripts have been used.

(7)

[Humor Script 8: type – national/ethnic; target – country; subject – country;  
structure – one-liner]

“Coronavirus won’t last long because it was made in China.”

[Humor Script 35: type – positive; target – year; subject – year;  
structure – conversational]

A person talking to the year 2020

Person: Can I have fun?

Year 2020: No!

Person: Okay!

[Humor Script 53: type – positive; target – baby; subject – prediction;  
structure – one-liner]

There will be a baby boom in 9 months. Then in 2033, we shall Witness the rise of the  
QUARANTEENS.

[Humor Script 38: type – aggressive; target – Biblical character; subject – religion;  
structure – one-liner]

On Easter Sunday, Jesus was arrested after emerging from His tomb during the Enhanced  
Community Quarantine.

[Humor Script 68: type – positive; target – location; subject – location;  
structure – one-liner]

I wish corona could have started in Las Vegas because what happens in Vegas stays in  
Vegas

[Humor Script 78: type – positive; target – people; subject – services;  
structure – one-liner]

Netflix should change their message from, “Are you still watching” to “You should  
shower and come back”

[Humor Script 48: type – sexual; target – people; subject – sexual activity;  
structure – one-liner]

The Coronavirus can now be transmitted sexually. Luckily, most of you have

nothing to worry about. It can't be transmitted by your own hand.

[Humor Script 131: type – aggressive; target – people; subject – solutions to COVID; structure – one-liner]

Three cats talking on how COVID-19 will be solved

Cat 1: So if everyone isolates and keeps clean and follows instructions, everything will be okay?

Cat 2: Yes, the future of the planet depends in the intelligence of human race.

Cat 3: We're fucked!

Humor Scripts in (7) show how the various humor subjects (i.e., country, Humor Script 8; year, Humor Script 35; prediction, Humor Script 53; religion, Humor Script 38; location, Humor Script 68; services, Humor Script 78; sexual activity, Humor Script 48; solutions to COVID, Humor Script 131) exclusively found in English humor scripts have been used. Meanwhile, Humor Scripts in (8) present how humor subjects (i.e., election, Humor Script 100; heartaches, Humor Script 165; health, Humor Script 126) have become the subjects exclusive to Tagalog humor scripts.

(8)

[Humor Script 100: type – aggressive; target – politicians; subject – election; structure – one-liner]

*Mr. President, dapat pagkatapos ng lockdown election na agad para makaganti naman kami.* (Mr. President, the election should be held right after the lockdown so that we can immediately take our revenge to politicians.)

[Humor Script 165: type – aggressive; target – people; subject – heartaches; structure – one-liner]

*Sana may relief goods din para sa mga nasalanta ng pag-ibig.*

(I hope there are also relief goods intended for broken hearted.)

[Humor Script 126: type – aggressive; target – people; subject – health;  
structure – one-liner]

*Dati konting ubo, lagnat o trangkaso kahit hindi totoo naka-post agad. Ngayon, wala ng nagpo-post ng feeling sick.* (Before the COVID-19 pandemic, a lot of people posted feeling sick even for just common cough or flu. Now nobody dares posting the phrase “feeling sick” in their social media accounts.)

***Humor Structures***

In terms of the structures of the humor scripts, data in Table 4 show that nearly all of the 214 humor scripts followed the one-liner structure (187 or 87.38%), while the remaining humor scripts (27 or 12.17%) followed the conversational (12 or 5.61%), narrative (6 or 2.80%), question and answer (6 or 2.80%) and verse or lyrical (3 or 1.40%) structures.

Table 4. Structure of Humor Scripts

Humor Structures	Number of tokens and Percentage		Total and Percentage (n=214)
	Tagalog Humor Scripts (n=107)	English Humor Scripts (n=107)	
Conversational	6 (2.80%)	6 (2.80%)	12 (5.61%)
Narrative	3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)	6 (2.80%)
One-liner	94 (43.93%)	93 (43.46%)	187(87.38%)
Question and Answer	3 (1.40%)	3 (1.40%)	6 (2.80%)
Verse/Lyrical	1 (0.47%)	2 (0.93%)	3 (1.40%)

The dominance of one-liner humor structure (e.g., Humor Scripts 31, 73, 102 in 1; Humor Scripts 38, 80 in 2; Humor Scripts 30, 16, 67, 58 in 3; Humor Scripts 12, 118 in 4; Humor Script 56 in 5; Humor Script 111 in 6; Humor Scripts 8, 53, 38, 68, 78, 48, 131 in 7; Humor Scripts 100, 165, 126 in 8) concurs with Torres’ (2019) observation that conversational (Humor Scripts 35, 131 in 7), narrative (Humor Script 138 in 5; Humor

Script 83 in 6) and question and answer (Humor Script 86 in 6) structures being the earliest humor forms that have become popular in the Philippines in the last two decades have losing their popularity among the youth since other humor structure, such as one-liner, has become more prevalent. Likewise, there were also few humor scripts that followed verse or lyrical humor structure (Humor Script 47 in 9) in which the melody of a song is retained and the lyrics are sometimes changed or retained to describe a current situation (Torres, 2019).

(9)

[Humor Script 47: type – aggressive; target – people; subject – social distancing;  
structure – verse/lyrical]

(to the tune of Rain, rain go away)

Stay, stay six feet away.

Wait to play another day.

Jimmy did not stay away.

Now six feet underground he lay.

## **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Based on the humor scripts collected, it has been proven that humor as a discourse mode enables people to not only celebrate values, perspectives, and multi-faceted experiences inclusive of societal, cultural, and personal roles but also the pains and pangs brought about by the present crisis. Indeed, humor has the ability to capture and narrate what has transpired in peoples' lives during a particular period, such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

How a person considers what is humorous from what is not is reflective of his or her culture as well as his or her held beliefs on what and how communicative goals should be. This is in line with Kuipers (2006), Lampert and Ervin-Tripp (2006), and Goldstein's (1976, as cited in Knyazyan, 2015) contentions that humorous scripts and utterances are socially and culturally organized, and often quite particular to a specific time and place,

and of Bing's (2007) and Ancheta's (2011) observation that humor celebrates the values, traditions, quirks, eccentricities, and perspectives of individuals and society in which they belong. As such, the state of the participants' dimensions of sense of humor in general, and the types, subjects, targets and structures of their produced, perceived and reproduced humor scripts mirror their day to day multi-faceted experiences inclusive of their societal, cultural, and personal roles (Torres, 2019). This also echoes Coate's (1986) stand that linguistic differences are reflections of social differences. These realities about humor places the latter at the heart of social analysis, crucial to the shaping of meanings, situations, selves and relationships.

Since the present study is limited to the inventory of the types, targets, subjects and structures of the Tagalog and English humor scripts, follow-up studies through the lens of sociolinguistics, politics, and discourse analysis may be done. Future studies may also deal further on the comparison and contrast between the subjects and targets of Tagalog and English humor scripts.

## References

- Ancheta, M.R.G. (2011). Halakhak: Defining the national in the humor of Philippine popular culture. *Thammasat Review*, 14(1), 35-60.
- Apte, M.I. (1985). *Humor and laughter: An anthropological approach*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Baccolini, R., & Chiaro, D. (2014). Humor and gender, directions for future research. In D. Chiaro & R. Baccolini (Eds.), *Gender and humor: Interdisciplinary and international perspectives* (pp.123-146). New York, NY, USA: Routledge.
- Baldoni, J. (2020, March 20). How humor can be a leader's friend in a crisis. *Forbes*. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/johnbaldoni/2020/03/20/how-humor-can-be-a-leaders-friend-in-a-crisis/#50c318591068>
- Bautista, M.L., General, S.M. & Perez, M.L. (1982). An analysis of Filipino humor in Pilipino situation comedies, *DLSU Dialogue*, 17(2), 21-22.
- Bing, J. (2007). Liberated jokes: Sexual humor in all-female groups. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research*, 20(4), 337-366.

- Chiaro, D. (2018). *The language of jokes in the digital age.#like#share#lol*. Routledge.
- Coates, J. (1986). *Women, men and language*. London: Longman.
- Davies, C. (1990). *Ethnic humor around the world: A comparative analysis*.  
Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Fumi, M. (1997). Managing distances: discourse strategies of a TV talk show host.  
*Edinburg Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 8, 63-75.
- General, S.M. & Perez, M.L.R. (1981). *A typology of humor: A content analysis of Tagalog situation comedies* (Undergraduate thesis). De La Salle University.
- Goldberg, B. (2020, March 25). Humor is healing: Laughter soothes nerves during COVID-19 trauma. *Entertainment News Reuters*. Retrieved from: <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-health-coronavirus-usa-humor-idUSKBN21B33Y>
- Hay, J. (2000). Functions of humor in the conversations of men and women. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32(6), 709-742.
- Helitzer, M. & Shatz, M. (2005). *Comedy writing secrets: The best-selling guide to writing funny and getting paid for it*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Writer's Digest Books.
- Holmes, J. (2006). Sharing a laugh: Pragmatic aspects of humor and gender in the workplace. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 38(1), 26-50.
- Jenkins, M.M. (1985). 'What's so funny? Joking among women'. In N Caskey, S. Bremmer, and B. Moon-womon (Eds). *Proceedings of the First Berkeley Women and Language Conference* (pp.131-151). Berkeley, CA: Berkeley Women and Language Group, University of California.
- Knyazyan, A. (2015). Gender and disparaging humour. *Armenian Folia Anglistika*, 25-32. Retrieved from: [https://publications.yzu.am/wpcontent/uploads/2016/04/Anna\\_Knyazyan.pdf](https://publications.yzu.am/wpcontent/uploads/2016/04/Anna_Knyazyan.pdf)
- Kotthoff, H. (2000). Gender and joking: On the complexities of women's image politics in humorous narratives. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32, 55-80.
- Kuipers, G. (2006). *Good humor, bad taste. A sociology of the joke*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Lampert, M.D., & Ervin-Tripp, S.M. (2006). Risky laughter: Teasing and self-directed joking among male and female friends. *Journal of Pragmatics*,

38(1), 51-72.

- LaFrance, M., & Woodzicka, J.A. (1998). No laughing matter: Women's verbal and nonverbal reactions to sexist humor. In J. Swim & C. Stagnor (Eds.), *Prejudice: The target's perspective* (pp. 61-80). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Maltz, D., & Borker, R. (1982). A Cultural approach to male-female miscommunication. In J. J. Gumperz (Ed.), *Language and social identity* (pp. 196-216). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Martin, R. A. (2007). *The psychology of humor: An integrative approach*. Amsterdam: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Martin, R.A., Puhlik-Doris, P., Larsen, G., Gray, J., & Weir, K. (2003). Individual differences in uses of humor and their relation to psychological well-being: Development of the Humor Styles Questionnaire. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 37(1), 48-75.
- Raskin, V. (1985). *Semantic mechanisms of humor*. Dordrecht, Holland: D. Reidel Pub. Co.
- Robinson, D. T., & Smith-Lovin, L. (2001). Getting a laugh: Gender, status and humor in task discussions. *Social Forces*, 80(1), 123-158.
- Rudgard, O. (2017, April, 3). Religion now the butt of workplace humour as sexist jokes have become taboo, survey finds. *The Telegraph*. Retrieved from: <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/04/02/religion-now-butt-workplace-humour-sexist-jokes-have-become/>
- Solis, B. (2007). *Defining social media*. Retrieved from [http://www.briasolis.com/2007/defining social media](http://www.briasolis.com/2007/defining-social-media).
- Sultanoff, S.M. (1995). Levity defies gravity: Using humor in crisis situations. *Therapeutic Humor*, 9(3), 1-2. Retrieved from: <file:///Users/joel61185/Desktop/pandemic%20humor/Using%20Humor%20in%20Crisis.webarchive>
- Torres, J.M. (2016, December 8). Politeness strategies vis-à-vis genders and exposures to western culture: The case of 'The Voice of the Philippines' Coaches'. Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3621795>

- Torres, J.M. & Flores, E.R. (2017). Exploring the role of L2 in L1 writing: Clues from English teachers' think aloud protocols. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics*, 48, 30-50.
- Torres, J.M. (2019). *Gendered humor: A sociolinguistic inquiry* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). De La Salle University, Manila.
- Torres, J.M. & Alieto, E.O. (2019). Acceptability of Philippine English grammatical and lexical items among pre-service teachers. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 21(2.3), 158-181.
- Torres, J.M. & Pariña, J.M (2020). Sociolinguistic Inquiry on the humor production of Tagalog tertiary students. *Journal of Asian Society*, 1(1), 45-62.
- Torres, J.M., Pariña, J.M., Collantes, L.M., Tan, Richard, K. (2020). Humor styles and perceptions of college students in Central Luzon. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(2.1), 196-209.
- Torres, J.M. & Medriano, R. (2020). Rhetorical Organization of Ilocano and Tagalog Pre-service teachers in their argumentative essays. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 27(2.2), 261-286.
- Wisdom J., & Creswell J.W. (2013). *Mixed methods: Integrating quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis while studying patient-centered medical home models*. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality.
- Whatmore, E.J. (1987). *Mediamerica* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). United States: Wadsworth Publishing Co.
- Wong, A. (2012, July 29). What Filipinos can be proud of? *Philippine Daily Inquirer*, Retrieved from: <http://globalnation.inquirer.net/45875/what-filipinos-can-be-proud-of>



**EFL Teachers' Strategies in Teaching English at Kampung Inggris Pare,  
Kediri, Indonesia**

**Chaidir Malik**

*[maliqsaddu@gmail.com](mailto:maliqsaddu@gmail.com)*

**Murni Mahmud**

*[murnimahmud@unm.ac.id](mailto:murnimahmud@unm.ac.id)*

**Anshari Anshari**

*[anshari.unm@gmail.com](mailto:anshari.unm@gmail.com)*

**Kisman Salija**

*[kismansalija@unm.ac.id](mailto:kismansalija@unm.ac.id)*

*Universitas Negeri Makassar*

**Bio-profiles:**

**Chaidir Malik** is an English teacher at Junior High School in Gowa, South Sulawesi. He is currently doing his Doctoral program at English Education Department, Post-Graduate Program of Universitas Negeri Makassar. His research interest is mainly on TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign language).

**Murni Mahmud** is a lecturer of Anthrop linguistics and Discourse Analysis at English Literature Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Her research interests are in Anthrop linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Gender Studies, and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language).

**Anshari** is a lecturer of Indonesian Language at Indonesian Language department of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. His research interests are in Indonesian Language and Literature.

**Kisman Salija** is a lecturer at English Education Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. His research interests are in Writing, and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language).

### **Abstract**

This research aimed at investigating the EFL teacher's strategies in teaching English in Kampung Inggris Pare, Kediri, Indonesia. Kampung Inggris Pare (KIP), Kediri, Indonesia is one of the recommended places for learning English in Indonesia as it provides a model for effective learning environment in studying English. The objective of this study is to explore the teaching strategies and procedures applied by English language teachers in Kampung Inggris Pare (KIP), Kediri. This research employed qualitative method using basic interpretative study. It was conducted at INTERPEACE English Course, KIP, Kediri. The subjects of the research were two teachers who teach vocabulary and pronunciation. The instruments were observation, interview, and documentation of the language teaching process in vocabulary and pronunciation class. The data were analysed descriptively through three stages of Thematic Content Analysis (TCA) included Pre-analysis, Exploration and Treatment and Interpretation. Based on the results, it has been found that the teaching strategies for vocabulary employed by ELT Teachers in KIP, Kediri were rote learning, flash card exchange, drawing games, guessing game, miming game, and topical discussion. In pronunciation teaching, some strategies were applied such as drilling technique in the form of tongue twister and choral drill, lecturing strategy in the form of Sammy diagram, cognitive strategy is in the form of picture dictation, and communicative games in the form of word chain and spelling race. Since KIP, Kediri Indonesia has been chosen as recommended place to study English in Indonesia, exploration of teachers' strategies in this study can become a model for creating effective learning environment for studying English in another area of Indonesia, especially in Makassar, South Sulawesi.

**Keywords:** *teaching strategies, vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking skill, EFL, and drilling and technique.*

## **Introduction**

The implementation of the teaching of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has only gained limited success due to the occurrence of some issues in Indonesian context. Several studies indicated that there have been many problems in the TEFL implementation in Indonesia and the learning of English has been considered less satisfactory (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Mustafa, 2001; Yuwono, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Soepriyatna, 2012; Lie, 2017).

Several factors may contribute to the insignificant success of TEFL implementation. One of the leading factors was unqualified English teachers. Lengkanawati (2005) asserted that almost 50% of English teachers in West Java as the participants in her study were not qualified in teaching English because of their poor English proficiency. Vikers (2019) also confirmed the similar notion in Indonesian EFL teachers regarding the communicative competence. His finding revealed that, from 600 Indonesian EFL teachers, they had low proficiency in English which was derived from the results of their Test of English for International Communication (ToEIC). The other issues are associated with the implementation of the culturally-inherited tradition on teacher-centered instruction and rote learning or memorization in Indonesian classroom context (Azra, 2002; Bjork, 2005; Mulyasa, 2007).

Communicating in English well is an inseparable part of the four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing (Butler & Iino, 2005; Chacon, 2005). Among those four essential skills above, speaking is considered to be the undervalued skill (Bygate, 1997). Speaking as a productive skill is a crucial component in language learning. Through speaking, people can communicate information and their ideas, express their opinion and feeling, share their experiences and negotiate, and maintain social relationship by communicating with others (Ellis, 2003; Darius, 2012; Nation, 2013). However, some issues occur in the classroom speaking activities which typically indicates students' speaking skill in Indonesian context (Fauzi, 2016).

The first issue is regarding the students' minimum vocabularies and poor English grammatical knowledge as well as poor pronunciation skill to enhance students' English-speaking skill. The second issue is concerning the students' low self-confidence in practicing their English oral skill. The latter issue is regarding the non-existence of

qualified teachers in English speaking instruction. The final one is related to the lack of the school/institutional provision regarding the facilities which can enhance students' learning activities such as computer, English learning software and other electronic devices which can foster the students' language improvement especially in speaking skill in Indonesian ELT context. However, Zulfikar (2009) argued that the most highlighted problem which is accountable for students' low performance is the teacher's low qualification in their pedagogical competence. It is indicated by the teacher's non-innovative and uncreative selection of teaching strategies which are comfortable and interesting for students which corresponds to the student-centred learning.

This fact shows that teachers need to be creative in the teaching and learning process. Being "*creative*" in this context means that the teachers must be able to select the appropriate communicative strategies or tasks based on the students' needs. A study by Wu (2008) had proved that there are differences in learning strategies of the students based on the proficiency, in which higher proficiency EFL students use learning strategies more often than lower proficiency EFL students, especially cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies. Therefore, teachers need creativity to design and develop the suitable communicative activities which urge to encourage the students to improve their communicative competence. An example of study had been conducted by Bin Tahir (2017), which show that teachers need a combination of approaches in teaching such as immersion, transitional approach, dual language, and pullout. These studies show that teachers need to consider many aspects in teaching and learning process, especially in the choices of strategies.

One of the recommended places in Indonesia to study English is at KIP Kediri. It is located at Anyelir, Brawijaya, Kemuning street in small village Tulungrejo and Singgahan, Pare, Kediri, East Java. KIP Kediri was established in 1977 by Mr. Kallen with his institution initially known as "Basic English Course (BEC)". There are more than 100 English courses in KIP, Kediri in 2018 that students or parents can choose. Some of them are *BEC, Interpiece, EECC, HECI, Elfast, Daffodils, Mahesa, Kresna, Global English, Marvelous, Peace and Mr. Bob*, etc. BEC English course, for example, consists of 2 centers which has around 1000 students for every ONC (Opening New Class) which is held annually. Furthermore, some of the dominant programs provided at KIP, Kediri

are four English-language skill mentoring, TOEFL, IELTS, and TOEIC especially for speaking skill and speaking internship program.

Strategies and approaches of English teaching at *Kampung Inggris Pare* (KIP), Kediri is more unique, creative and varied in every single teaching activity. Those KIP, Kediri's strategies and approaches in teaching English especially speaking skill could improve their student's English competence which became an instructional goal of English schools (Ardiansah, 2014; Afif, Sutiksno, Hardiyanto, & Shiratina, 2015).

For that reason, the researchers are interested to explore the teaching strategies applied the teachers in teaching speaking at KIP, Kediri. The major purpose of this study is to explore the strategies applied by an English-speaking Teachers of INTERPIECE in carrying out their class. Findings from this study can become a reference for English teachers in Indonesia and Makassar, South Sulawesi, in order to apply effective strategies in teaching English.

## **Methods**

This research was conducted under *qualitative method*. In this study, the researchers used qualitative study by applying case study. Qualitative research is the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative and visual data to gain insights into a particular phenomenon of interest (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006, p. 399). Case study is a systematic methodology involving the discovery of theory through the analysis of data.

The subjects of this research were two English Teachers who teach English for beginner class. One of them teaches vocabulary and another one teaches pronunciation in speaking class. Before deciding the subjects; the researcher had conducted a preliminary study by interviewing some Students of INTERPEACE English School at *Kampung Inggris Pare, Kediri, (KIP, Kediri) East Java* in knowing their speaking skill and teacher who used various teaching techniques in speaking class and make students speak English entirely.

Participant observation was conducted at the subjects' dermatory and at the English Course classroom, a total of 30 days. The data were collected by observing the teachers and students in the classroom while getting involved to participate in the

classroom process. The class was observed for 90 minutes for each meeting; there are 20 meetings in one level of the program in Brian English course. The notes were taken during the observations. Interview was also conducted with the two teachers. The interview was intended to obtain the data to support the data that had been collected, or to obtain the data which cannot be obtained through observation alone.

In analysing data, *Thematic Content Analysis (TCA)* was employed (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017). **TCA** as the name implies, includes the content descriptor which emphasizes themes. It comprises three general steps: *1). Pre-analysis*, *2). Exploration*, and *3). Treatment and Interpretation* (Bardin, 2011). *In the pre-analysis step*: the goals of the content analysis were set by putting the relevant-based materials into a good selection according to its goals, analysing the materials after reading, setting up the materials in an organized way for conducting analysis. Then, *in the exploration step*: the analysis unit was determined, e.g. the smallest section of the content where an element could be recognized, that was, the part of the text to which code was linked. The analysis unit can be words, paragraphs, or themes. The *last stage*, generally known as *treatment and interpretation* was done by considering the rules established in the exploration stage, and inferences can be used.

## Results

Based on the data which have been analyzed through *TCA*, the researchers, in this section, presented the descriptions of teaching strategies in speaking skill in *INTERPEACE* Course Place, one of the leading course places in speaking class at KIP, Kediri. Furthermore, the researcher classified the findings pertaining teacher's strategies into two categories which include strategies in teaching speaking skill in terms of *vocabulary* and teaching speaking skill in terms of *pronunciation aspect*.

## Strategies in Teaching Vocabulary

### *Rote Learning*

**Table 1: Rote Learning**

No.	Strategies	Procedure	Day/Date
1.	Rote learning (Memorization strategy).	The teacher has to arrange the classroom with round model. Before students entering the class, the teacher checks the student's vocabulary.	Monday, 22 May 2018 07:00:0830

Based on the above table, it shows that this strategy was derived from memorization strategy in which in this course, INTERPEACE, most teachers employed “rote learning”. This kind of activity was always given for students in every meeting during the beginning of the observation, especially for checking the students’ attendance list. Students were not allowed to attend the classroom before completely memorizing the vocabularies assigned by the teacher in their previous meetings. Although “rote learning” has been considered as a traditional and negative memorizing task, it was still considered as the effective strategy especially in INTERPEACE, KIP, Kediri. Moreover, when it was combined with many other kinds of techniques such as recording the vocabularies’ pronunciation, repetitive reading and listening while covering a half part of the book with English in half page and showing the other half part of the book with Indonesian. Students were assigned to perform this series of task by their teacher to consolidate the previous vocabularies they have learned.

### *Flash Card Exchange*

**Table 2: Flash Card Exchange**

No.	Strategies	Procedure	Day/Date
2	Flash card exchange (Cognitive strategy).	The teacher arranged all the chairs into a cycle. Students sit on a chair and held a flash card Teachers taught students about bad habits, and then each student was having a different picture of bad habit on their flash card.	Wednesday, 23 May 2018 7.00-8.30

---

One student was standing on the middle of the cycle without holding a flash card.

Teacher called out different bad habits.

Two students who had those bad habits on their flash card had to swap place.

Students in the middle had to try to sit in one of their seats while they were on swapping chairs.

If the student in the middle managed to sit in one of the chairs.

The student left standing had to give their flash card to the students who were taking their place.

---

From table 2, it can be seen that this strategy was derived from cognitive strategy where the learners should be alert directly on incoming information, manipulating it in multiple ways that enhance learning process. In this entertaining game, flash card was useful to teach vocabulary. This game helped students made simple inferences based on the information (instruction) given by their teacher. Swapping the chairs is the element of interactive and fun game. Students think as if they are playing but they are actually learning. This simple flash card game is visual teaching aid which is important to help communicate meaning and help students memorize new words. All in all, this game is not only interactive and fun but also it can be learned by studying them with pictures of their meaning instead of the definitions.

### *Drawing Games*

**Table 3: Drawing Games**

No.	Strategies	Procedures	Day/Date
3.	Drawing Games (Cognitive strategy)	Teacher divides the class into two teams. One student from each team is taken out of the classroom. The two students from each team are given a marker.	Friday, 25 May 2018 7.00-8.30

---

---

They are told the name of a famous film, TV show, book or person, etc.

The team try to guess the answers.

The first team who answered correctly would win a point.

Two students were taken out the room again and so on.

---

From table 3, it can be seen that drawing offers numerous benefits in language teaching especially English. This strategy was a part of cognitive strategy which can substitute other types of pictorial game in vocabulary instruction. Drawing game is the classroom activity which can be divided into two forms. The first drawing is drawing on the board conducted by the teachers where they want to illustrate the meaning of new language in presentation. The latter one is drawing done by students, which consists of various forms such as for reading, listening and exercises. However, in this game, the representative students themselves were in charge of drawing the objects they were told by the teacher. Guessing in this cognitive strategy was a final part of the game which has a similar purpose with the compensation strategy. In this game, making inference after seeing the image was mostly emphasized before deciding to guess. So, it still dominantly employed the elements of cognitive rather than compensation strategy regardless of the use of guessing element.

### ***Hot Seat – (Guessing Games)***

Table 4: Hot Seat – (Guessing Games)

No	Strategies	Procedure	Date
4	Hot Seat – (Guessing Games) - (Compensation Strategy)	The teacher starts by dividing the classes into two groups. The teacher takes two empty chairs and place them facing away from the board.	Monday, 28 May 2018 7.00-8.30

---

---

The teacher gives a chance to one student from each team to sit on the chair facing away from the board.

One person from each team is asked to sit on the chairs facing their team and having their backs toward the board. These chairs are hot seats.

The teacher writes a list of words clearly on the board.

The teacher explains the rule of the game to have the students understand in order to run the game properly.

Students in the hot seats are listening to their group mates explaining the clue of words written on the board while their group mates continue to explain until teacher says "*stop*". The students on the seats may ask further questions to their group mates if they want to clarify their explanation.

When the teacher says "*stop*", the one who sit on the chair may guess.

The first student from each team who mentioned word correctly score a point for their group and take turn to change place with someone on their team.

The other team had to keep same player on the hot sit until he can answer the words first.

The teacher writes the next word.

---

Subsequently, the other strategy used to teach vocabulary in speaking class was compensation strategy. This kind of strategy is beneficially used for understanding and producing new language items despite the lack of knowledge possessed by the learners. This strategy may include guessing game. This game is interesting to play, and it includes the interactions among group of people, in pairs or in team. The basic principle for this game is actually one person/a group of people know something that another person/other group of people should find out what it is. From the implementation above, it can be seen that “guessing game” in a classroom promotes fun and interactive elements. The main points of the above game are promoting interaction, group-work, and the values creation which imply mutual-respect and communication. Based on the assertions above, it can be concluded that guessing game is a simple game encouraging students guessing something in which a person or participant competes both individually or in group to identify or find out about it.

### ***Miming Games***

***Table 5: Miming Game***

No	Strategies	Procedure	Day/Date
5.	Miming Games (Compensati on Strategy).	The teacher divides the class into a group of 4 or 5. The teacher provided a sentence written on small pieces of paper that would be described by the students using ‘mimic’. A sentence, at least contain Subject + verb + Object... The teacher gives a chance to one person from each group to come forward, practice “ <i>miming</i> ” without any voice but only with the body movement/gesture-and mouth as if they talked. The team who could guess every sentence correctly is the winner	Tuesday, 29 May 2018 7.00-8.30

Another compensation strategy which also offers the learners with fun and interactive atmosphere is *miming game*. In this fun game, the role of gestures /body language is critical. It is because gesture/ mimic can communicate meaning in different perspective, only speech can make the performance more effective followed by gestures and body language. Specifically, this game is characterized by the inexistence of voice but only rely only on body-language communication. Mime as non-verbal communication has yet to wait for the reach of broader audience in current world. Similar to guessing game, miming game can also be played both individual and group game. Mime provides all types of knowledge only through gestures. Because mime is not representative of any languages, mime is considered as a pedagogical tool to encourage the EFL learners to teach vocabulary in English speaking skill.

### *Topical Discussion*

**Table 6: Topical Discussion**

No	Strategies	Procedure	Day/Date
6.	Topical Discussion - (Social Strategy)	<p>The teacher needs to consider some main things in the classroom to ensure that they can run properly.</p> <p>The students are provided with some planning time, both in individual or in small groups. They are given time and topic. Students are given some associated vocabularies and functional language for the discussion.</p> <p>The teacher chooses the topics which she/he believes the students find it interesting.</p> <p>The teacher brainstorms some ideas from students for discussions they'd like to conduct and use the ideas as a starting point at the end after the previous topics have been completely discussed.</p>	Tuesday, 29 May 2018 8.30-10.00.

The last strategy of vocabulary instruction implemented in KIP; Kediri was social strategy. Social strategy itself serves as the help for students learning through interaction with the others. Therefore, this strategy acts as a useful tool to help learners facing when facing speaking activities. As we know that the essence of speaking skill lies on the interaction and communication among people. Therefore, using social strategy helps students improve the opportunities to employ the target language. The manifestation of social strategy is *topical discussion*. Discussion in the form of group talking about certain topics aims to achieve some goals including increase the students' responsibility for their own learning, develop social and leadership skills and get involved in the alternative instructional approach. Discussion is defined as the cooperative attempts on the part of a group of individuals to work together as a group through verbal exchange of ideas. From the definitions above, it can be concluded that discussion is the exchange of information, opinion and ideas in oral form.

## Strategies in Teaching Pronunciation

### *Tongue Twister*

*Table 7: Tongue Twister*

No	Strategies	Procedures	Day/Date
1.	Tongue twister (drilling technique)	The teacher comes to explain the task to the students. The teacher introduced tongue twister exercises that students should practice and write in their symbols on the white board. The teacher reads aloud the words and he asks students to listen carefully. The teacher reads aloud words randomly which are selected from the list. Ask the students to identify the words by watching the movement of the teacher's mouth and tongue.	Monday, 21 May 2018 Tuesday, 22 May 2018 Wednesday, 23 May 2018 Friday, 25 May 2018 Saturday, 26 May 2018 Monday, 28 May 2018 Tuesday, 29 May 2018

---

The teacher asks students practice pronouncing the list of tongue twister sentences.

The teacher repeated another tongue twister, for example: I ate an apple and a banana in cinema in Canada and Martha smith's an author and an athlete.

---

This strategy employs a drilling technique. Drilling is potentially a good practice for beginner students to start their English-speaking learning since this technique provide students with rehearsal opportunity on the language practice pertaining the production of accuracy. Tongue twister, as the fun and interesting pronunciation game, should initially be introduced before practicing and writing their symbols on the board. Tongue twister is defined as the activity where teacher reads aloud the words/phrases while students are listening carefully and then students are repeating after the teacher. It can also be defined as sentences or phrases which are intended to be challenging to pronounce particularly when repeated rapidly and frequently. Similar to rote-learning implementation in vocabulary teaching, tongue twister also becomes one of the most frequent techniques to apply in pronunciation class especially in English speaking skill. Basically, this activity aimed to consolidate the English sounds the students had learned by creating a game like atmosphere for the practice. It was good to include tongue twisters that highlighted particularly problematic minimal sound differences (e.g. pronunciation of /f/ and /v/; /s/ and /ʒ/; /f/ and /θ/).

### ***Sammy Diagrams***

***Table 8: Sammy Diagrams***

No	Strategies	Procedure	Day/Date
2.	Sammy Diagrams	The teacher is teaching students about a phonetic alphabet. Students practice it in pairs and group.	Tuesday, 24 May 2018 14.00-15.30

---

---

Teacher made sure that every student had known and distinguished each sound as represented by phonetic symbols.

The student had to spend considerable time to master each phonetic symbol.

After memorizing the diagrams, students are asked to draw the diagrams corresponding to each phoneme and produce the correct explanation of how they were produced.

The teacher gives students a short-term proficiency test such as a quiz as an effective testing. In this case, because it is giving students' an opportunity to review the materials in order to perform well on the test.

---

The purpose of presenting this activity is to grow the students' consciousness of the position of the mouth when English sounds (consonant and vowels) are produced. This activity also aims to improve students' automaticity in pronunciation by (using repetition-drill). This strategy employs a lecturing technique and followed by drilling technique as well. In order to produce native-like or understandable sounds, learners have to learn how they are produced, and they must acquire the accurate forms or positions of the mouth when they are produced. This strategy was taught by making sure that every student has known and distinguished the sound represented by phonetic symbols. Therefore, the students had to spend considerable time to master the symbol. After memorizing the diagrams, students were asked to draw the diagrams corresponding to each phoneme and produce the correct explanation of how they were generated.

### *Picture Dictation*

**Table 9: Picture Dictation**

No	Strategies	Procedures	Day/Date
3.	Picture Dictation	Students had a picture given by the teacher. The background series of pictures containing objects that represented the minimal pair words. Students followed the instruction to highlight the picture of their minimal pair words which included activities such as coloring, making marks, or drawing additional items.	Saturday, 26 May 2018 14.00-15.30

Mostly, the implementation of pronunciation instruction employed dictation by using pictures or flash cards. Getting the students to write down and repeat orally what teachers had said was good for listening practice which facilitated the oral production. Especially when practicing minimal pairs, the students really needed to listen carefully in order to respond the other speakers' questions properly in communication process.

### *Words Chain*

**Table 10: Words Chain**

No	Strategies	Procedure	Day/Date
4.	Words Chain	The teacher gave the instruction to all students to stand up then one student is starting by saying any English words. Students next to them then had to say a word which began with the last letter of the previous word. The next student followed suit and so on for example: Environment-totally-young steers-shadow-waiting list-twin-namely and so on.	Tuesday, 29 May 2018 14.00-15.30

---

The game is starting over when one student answers incorrectly or if they could not think of a word.

The student was then out and had a sit down, and the last student remained standing is the winner.

---

This was a quick EFL spelling game which was very simple but. to set up and play. This kind of interactive and fun game was conducted by teacher by giving the students opportunity to speak up any English words whatever on their mind. Then, it is continued by next student by speaking out a word in which the initial is from the last letter of the previous word. The next students follow the line and so on. The idea can also be creating a word chain in which the last two letters of a word formed the first two letters of the next. Word chains help students with their spelling ability because they are encouraged to recognize possible letter combinations. It sounds complicated but beginner students may quickly follow the rules and the scoring system. From the elaboration above, it is clear that this word-chain was apart from teaching students' vocabulary but also teaching the students' pronunciation and especially facilitates the recall of previous knowledge regarding vocabulary spelling.

### ***Choral Drill***

***Table 11: Choral Drill***

<b>No</b>	<b>Strategies</b>	<b>Procedures</b>	<b>Day/Date</b>
5	Choral Drill	The teacher pronounced the word for each picture, pointing at it one by one, 5 times or start from the teacher.  The next is the right side of students saying 5 times to the left side then saying it together while students expressed the feelings.  Students repeated the word after the teacher in chorus.	Wednesday, 30 May 2018 14.00-15.30

---

---

The teacher reminded students that they followed pronunciation and miming strategy should be worked on all the time, while doing this, the teacher could label the picture with the words written on the cards.

This activity can be done rather quickly, so that students did not get bored so easily.

---

Another drilling technique applied in this study was “*choral drill*”. It involves the learners giving an oral model of a word or phrases and the whole class repeating it. Drilling actually helps learners memorise language but still under the teacher’s control. The teacher can correct any mistakes that students make and encourage them to concrete on difficulties at the sometime. The use of this technique in pronunciation instruction provided the students with opportunities to practice the sounds of new words or phrases especially the phrases which could be used in the future communication activities. Choral drilling gave a lot of fun and made some languages more memorable. This activity was conducted twice in the afternoon on 30<sup>th</sup> May 2018. This activity is a typical daily routine for pronunciation class. Specifically, in this technique, teacher pronounced the words for each picture pointing at it one by one while students expressed certain feelings. Subsequently, students repeated the words their teacher has repeated in chorus. Pronunciation and miming are strategies that should worked on all the time. During this technique implementation, the teacher was able to label the vision.

### *Spelling Race*

**Table 12: Spelling Race**

No	Strategies	Procedures	Day/Date
6.	Spelling race	The teacher is divided the class into two teams. The teacher is helping up a card with a picture on it. Students had to spell the words. The first student from each team is running to the board and writing the first later.	Wednesday, 30 May 2018 14.00-15.30

---

---

Students ran back and tag the next person who ran to the board and writing the next latter and so on. The team complete the word quickly is winning a point. The teammates could help the writer by shouting out the correct answer or by writing the letter in the air.

---

This EFL spelling game was best played in large classes. It worked well with young learners especially at the beginner class. This activity was conducted twice in the afternoon in 30<sup>th</sup> May. This activity is the second most frequently daily routine for pronunciation class IN KIP, Kediri. The idea can also be created similar to the word chain. However, after the teacher divided the class into two groups – the teacher then held up a card with picture on it and students had to spell the words. The first student from each team ran to the board and wrote the letter but one by one. They ran back to their group and tag the next person who ran to the board and wrote the next letter, and so on. The first team to complete the word quickly won the game. Spelling game helps students with their spelling ability also to strengthen their memory on the new information but in fun and interactive way. It sounds complicated but when students are beginner students, they may quickly comply with the rules and the scoring system. From the explanation above, it is clear that the spelling game (spelling race) was not inseparable from teaching students' vocabulary and pronunciation. The spelling race facilitates the recall of previous knowledge regarding vocabulary spelling.

## **Discussion**

Based on the results of the observation above, it was found out that teachers at KIP, Kediri employed many kinds of strategies in teaching speaking skill both in vocabulary and pronunciation instruction.

The teaching strategies for vocabulary employed by ELT Teachers in KIP, Kediri were rote learning, flash card exchange, drawing games, guessing game, miming game, and topical discussion. In vocabulary instruction, the teaching strategies included direct

and indirect strategies. In pronunciation teaching, some strategies were applied such as drilling technique in the form of tongue twister and choral drill, lecturing strategy in the form of Sammy diagram, cognitive strategy is in the form of picture dictation, and communicative games in the form of word chain and spelling race.

Based on the findings from the interview with Teacher A (Vocabulary teacher in speaking class), he claimed that applying “*rote learning*” aimed to consolidate the students’ memory and attention on the previously-learned vocabularies was quite effective. In line with this finding, Nguyen and Nga (2002) didn’t even recommend the use of this strategy. He claimed that vocabulary learning by using this technique seemed to be ineffective for English language learners although memorization technique is good to some extent since it helps learners learn and apply the correct type of words. However, despite the negative belief about rote learning, it was contrast to Nation in Sinhaneti & Kyaw (2012), they found that the repetition like *rote learning* was essential for vocabulary learning because there is so much to know about each word that one meeting was not enough to gain this information, because vocabulary items should not only be known but also should be understood so that they can be fluently accessed.

The other teaching strategies which were also employed to improve vocabulary acquisition in speaking skill were cognitive, compensation and social skill. Furthermore, cognitive strategy in this research was manifested in the form of pictorial games/cards and drawing games. The provision of images in vocabulary instruction contributes to the increasing effect of remembering the new words especially in the teaching of speaking skill. It was in similar thought with Joklová (2009) that the distinctiveness of pictures/images make the single vocabulary more memorable especially when the pictures are personified in the form of drawing activity (by the teacher to students to guess or by the students themselves to draw for their own classmates to guess). However, Joklová suggested that the preparation for integrating pictures to the vocabulary lessons in communication class would be a little bit time-consuming especially for novice teachers.

The other interactive games for improving the students’ vocabulary development were guessing games and miming games. Guessing games, according to Teacher A in KIP Kediri, was one of the most preferred teaching strategies for students. Guessing game

was considered by Teacher A as the activity encouraging the students for communicating in English and providing the students with relaxed atmosphere in their learning process. Anggreyni (2014) confirmed the benefits this kind of game could offer to students. Guessing games train the students to describe comprehensively their vocabulary and sentence structure, to express opinion and use functional language skill in speaking, to assist students to comprehend the topic of guessing, to assist the students to speak more natural, to give students motivation to speak and to build up their confidence in speaking. Lee stated that both guessing games and miming games were similarly useful for developing and strengthening students' concepts or ideas in oral communication skill but in relaxed learning atmosphere (cited in Tuan & Doan, 2010).

Another compensation strategy which represents interactive game was miming game. From the interview results, this game was considered to develop the concepts and reinforce them and also good for ice breaking. This strategy was also considered effective to encourage students to practice their skills in English oral communication. Therefore, it made students fun and didn't feel bored. It was in line with this result, Lee in Tuan and Doan (2010) stated that both guessing games and miming games were similarly useful for developing and strengthening students' concepts or ideas in oral communication skill but in relaxed learning atmosphere.

The very last strategy was social strategy which was realized in *topical discussion*. It was claimed by Teacher A that this typical activity enhanced students' cooperation and social skills. According to Teacher A, employing this kind of technique contributes to the better development of students' responsibility with their own learning process. This was very relevant to the finding of Kidsvatter in Argawati (2014) that the implementation of group discussion set in small-group potentially met the objectives of improving speaking skill which was indicated by the enhancement of vocabulary and pronunciation and the improvement of self-values such as autonomous learning, social and leadership skills.

The typical features of finding above especially related to the *topical discussion* concepts was similar to the concept of *Mudzakarah* explained by Munawaroh (2010). Munawaroh associated *Mudzakarah* to discussion method. This could be seen from the definition of Sukamto (1999) that in Islamic boarding schools – there were a number of specific instructional strategies which was only followed by senior boarders. One of them

was *Mudzakarah* which covered scientific discussions talking about worldly knowledge. From the statement above, it is clear-cut the method that *Mudzakarah* has is similar to the *topical discussions*.

In line with Munawaroh, Sanjaya (2009) defined *Discussion method* as the learning method which let students encounter the problems. The main goals of having discussion are solving the problems, responding to questions, enhancing and understanding students' insights and also for making decision. The goals stated above went in line with the findings proposed by Munawaroh (2010), that students' activities in the classroom involved those four goals above.

From the strategies applied in vocabulary instruction above, there are four sequential strategies which are systematically organized in building the students' vocabulary development. Initially, memorization strategy (rote learning) serves as the consolidator of new vocabularies obtained by the students. Then, cognitive strategy serves as the students' trigger to associate the words with the pictures and make inferences based on the images. They are in the form of flash card exchange and drawing games. A bit complex process is the compensation strategy. In this strategy, the students begin to apply the vocabularies in communicative activities such as guessing games and miming games. Finally, the most complex vocabulary building is the social strategy where the students build more complex communicative activities by asking questions, sharing ideas and opinions, doing the exchange of information, concepts or ideas such as in discussions both in pairs or in groups about various topics. Therefore, the researcher claimed the series of strategies above as the applicable for building the students' vocabulary development in systematic way and named it as "*Systematic Vocabulary Building/SVB*" as one of the research discoveries. As the name implies, what made this strategy different with the other strategies is that this strategies are the combination of vocabulary strategies which can build up and develop the students' vocabulary acquisition in order to master speaking skill from the simple one to the more complex speaking activities.

In pronunciation class, the teacher (Teacher B) dominantly employed repetition and drilling technique. The repetition and drilling technique are repeated operations or exercises desired to develop a skill or habit with a systematic procedure (Yuwanda, 2017).

There were five strategies observed by the researcher in the pronunciation class in speaking skill. They were memorization tasks, lecturing (teacher-centred method), cognitive strategy, drilling technique and communicative games.

For repetitive tasks or memorization, “*tongue twister*” technique became the choice. This practice trained the students to practice difficult sounds in phrases or sentences. According to Teacher B, (the pronunciation teacher) in speaking class, this kind of activity was intended to reinforce the English sounds (vowel, consonant, stress and intonation) that students had learned by creating a game like atmosphere for the practice. In line with this, Rohman (2016) conducted a study investigating a tongue twister technique to improve EFL students’ pronunciation. The finding revealed that tongue twister technique was proven as the effective technique to improve EFL students’ pronunciation since there was a significant improvement of students’ score from pre-cycle to the last-cycle. From this, it can be inferred that tongue twister is suitable for students as it creates a supportive environment in teaching and learning process and promotes pleasant or joyful learning atmosphere.

Another pronunciation teaching technique was *Sammy diagrams*. In this technique, the teaching just employed conventional “lecturing”. To have the effective pronunciation teaching, having an understanding of how the speech sounds of English are produced is important. This technique was conducted to grow the students’ recognition on how the mouth was positioned and how the speech sounds were produced. The finding obtained from the interview with the Teacher B. was that *Sammy diagram* was good to be used for teaching pronunciation. The students were considered to be able to improve their pronunciation just by memorizing parts stated in a diagram. However, this didn’t explain the kind of phonetics explained in the diagram. In contrast to the above finding, Kumazawa (2016) just stated that merely memorizing the parts in diagram would make no difference at all. The good way to master the diagrams could be done through formal teaching (lecturing). However, teachers had to formally lecture on the diagram to facilitate learners’ learning on pronunciation, not only that the success of learner’s memorization leads them to grow their consciousness on the correct forms but also help the learners produce the accurate sounds.

Another technique for teaching pronunciation in speaking skill is by using *pictures/cards*. This practice trains the students to describe a picture using words containing target sound. According to Teacher B, she had to prepare such as creating a page containing pictures of objects that contain the sound (s) being practiced. Dictate instructions for learners to follow.

Another form of pronunciation teaching technique was *Choral Drill*. In this technique, choral drilling involves students giving an oral model of a word or phrases and the whole class repeating after the teacher. According to teacher interviewee, Teacher B, she claimed that choral drilling helped learners memorise language with the teacher's control. Apart from that, teacher could give any correction to any mistakes that students make and encourage them to concrete on difficulties occasionally. The benefits above were similar to what Yuwanda (2017) has found that using choral drilling in pronunciation instruction was better employed in order to improve the students' speaking skill. Choral drill can give students' retention and it can make some bits of language more memorable.

Quite similar to the concept of *choral drill*, *Mudzakarah* also contains some technical concepts similar to choral drilling including a) remembering Allah by reciting AlQuran and calling Allah's names, b) teachers giving oral model of something repeatedly and students follow it, c) students practicing new words or phrases revealing strange attributes of something, d) recalling something forgotten (al-muhafazhah), and e) performing the act of remembering (*mudzakarah*), and g) expressing what is in the heart orally.

Due to the similarity of concepts between *topical discussion*, *choral drill*, and *Mudzakarah*. The researcher integrated both of them by initiating the new term with "*Mudzakarah Teaching Strategy/MTS*" as one of his research discoveries. The researcher claimed that this strategy is one of the best strategies in the world because it integrated vocabularies and pronunciation teaching all at once in a meeting for improving their speaking skills. What makes this strategy standing out from the other strategies is that this method integrated two language elements (vocabulary and pronunciation) while employing content-based instruction (Islamic Content Knowledge) inside it such as six points of Sahabah and Prophet's and His companions, etc. This strategy can also give

birth to knowledge, experience and values internalized into the heart/conscience ('ilm al-yaqin) as well as the enhancement in pronunciation and spelling ability.

## **Conclusion**

This study concludes that teachers at KIP, Kediri employed many kinds of strategies in teaching speaking skill both in vocabulary and pronunciation instruction. The teaching strategies for vocabulary employed by ELT Teachers in KIP, Kediri were rote learning, flash card exchange, drawing games, guessing game, miming game, and topical discussion. In pronunciation teaching, some strategies were applied such as drilling technique in the form of tongue twister and choral drill, lecturing strategy in the form of Sammy diagram, cognitive strategy is in the form of picture dictation, and communicative games in the form of word chain and spelling race.

Findings from this study have some pedagogical implications. Findings show that the teacher's strategies at KIP, Kediri which emphasized on student-centered learning both direct and indirect strategies were effective to be applied to improve the vocabulary development. Moreover, the integration of rote learning (memory strategy) in vocabulary instruction class was still considerable to use for consolidating the students' vocabulary development. The teacher's strategies which emphasized on the repetition and regular drills in teaching pronunciation were considered to be necessary to foster the students' phonetic recognition. In addition, the implementation of teacher's strategies using direct and indirect strategies (cognitive, compensation, and social strategies) in teaching vocabulary and the implementation of drilling technique or repetitive tasks in teaching pronunciation were considered to be effective to improve both vocabulary development and phonetic recognition in speaking skill provided that the strategies involved the elements of interactivity, games and collaboration. Since KIP, Kediri Indonesia has been chosen as recommended place to study English in Indonesia, exploration of teachers' strategies in this study can become a model for creating effective learning environment for studying English in another area of Indonesia, especially in Makassar, South Sulawesi.

## References

- Afif, N. C., Sutiksno, D. U., Hardiyanto, N., & Shiratina, A. (2015). Building brand loyalty through increasing brand trust and brand effect. *International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research*, 4(11), 336-340.
- Anggreyni, D. (2014). Improving students' speaking skill through guessing game technique at grade xi of SMA Negeri 1 Angkola Selatan Tapanuli Selatan. *Komposisi: Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa, Sastra, dan Seni*, 15(1), 1-15.
- Ardiansah, D. (2014). *Kampung bahasa sebagai city branding kota Pare Kediri: Studi kualitatif komunikasi pemerintah kabupaten Kediri (Kampung Bahasa as City Branding of Pare Kediri City: A qualitative study of the government of Kediri regency's communication)*. (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). UIN Sunan Ampel, Surabaya.
- Argawati, N. O. (2014). Improving students' speaking skill using group discussion: Experimental study on the First Grade Students of Senior High School. *ELTIN JOURNAL, Journal of English Language Teaching in Indonesia*, 2(2), 1-8.
- Azra, A. (2002). *Paradigma baru pendidikan Nasional: Rekonstruksi dan demokrasi (New paradigm of national education: Reconstruction and democracy)*. Jakarta: Kompas.
- Bardin, L. (2011). *Análise de conteúdo*. Paris : PUF.
- Bin Tahir, S. Z. (2017). Multilingual teaching and learning at Pesantren Schools in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal*, 89, 74-94.
- Bjork, C. (2005). *Indonesian education: Teachers, schools, and central bureaucracy*. New York and London: Rutledge.
- Butler, Y. G., & Iino, M. (2005). Current Japanese reforms in English language education: The 2003 "action plan. *Language Policy*, 4(1), 25-45.
- Bygate. (1997). *Speaking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Chacon, C. T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teacher in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(3), 257-272.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2000). English teaching in Indonesia. *EA journal*, 18(1), 22-30.

- Darius. (2012) *Improving speaking skills of the students of English department of Cokroaminoto University, Palopo through English debate (unpublished thesis)*. Universitas Negeri Makassar.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fauzi, I. (2016). The application of multimedia-based presentation in improving students' speaking skill. *Journal of ELT Research: The Academic Journal of Studies in English Language Teaching and Learning*, 1(1), 103-112.
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. Columbus, OH: Pearson Education
- Huyen, N.T.T. & Nga, K.T.T., (2002). Learning vocabulary through games: The effectiveness of learning vocabulary through games. *Asian EFL Journal*. 3(9), 1-15.
- Joklová, K. (2009). *Using pictures in teaching vocabulary (Master Thesis)*. Masaryk University. Brno, Czech Republic.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). Teaching English across culture: What do English language teachers need to know how to teach English? *EA Journal*, 23(2), 21-26.
- Lengkanawati, N. S. (2005). EFL teachers' competence in the context of English curriculum 204: Implication for EFL teacher Education. *TEFLIN Journal*, 16(1), 79-92.
- Lie, A. (2017). Education policy and EFL curriculum in Indonesia: Between the commitment to competence and the quest for higher test score. *TEFLIN Journal*. 8(1), 1-14.
- Mulyasa, E. (2007). Introduction to the special issue on competence: Competence the essence and use of concept in IEVT. *European Journal of Vocational Training*. 40(1) 5-21.
- Munawaroh, S., (2010). *Pelaksanaan Metode Muzakarah Pada Pembelajaran Kitab Kuning di Pondok Pesantren Nurul Huda Al-Islami Kelurahan Maharatu Kecamatan Marpoyan Damai, Pekanbaru. Islamic Region Education (Unpublished Thesis)*. Universitas Islam Negeri Sultan Syarif Kasim Riau.

- Mustafa, B. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: Issues of theoretical assumptions. *TEFLIN Journal*, 12(2), 96-109.
- Nation, I. S. (2013). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E., & Moules, N. J. (2017). Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16(1).
- Sanjaya, W. (2011). *Strategi pembelajaran yang berorientasi pada standar proses pendidikan*. Jakarta : Kencana, Prenada Media Group.
- Sinhaneti, K., & Kyaw, E. K. (2012). A study of the role of rote learning in vocabulary learning strategies of Burmese students. *Online Submission*.
- Soepriyatna. (2012). Investigating and assessing competence of high school teachers of English in Indonesia. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research*, 8(2), 38-49,
- Sukamto. (1999). *Kepemimpinan Kiyai*. Jakarta: PT Pustaka LP3ES.
- Tuan, L. T., & Doan, N. T. M. (2010). Teaching English grammar through games. *Studies in literature and language*, 1(7), 61-75.
- Vickers, A. (2019). Southeast Asean studies after Siad. *The Proceedings of the Sydney University Aries Association*, 31, 58-72.
- Wu, Y. L. (2008). Language learning strategies used by students at different proficiency levels. *Asian EFL Journal*, 10(4), 75-95.
- Yuwanda, D. Y., (2016). *The use of choral drill technique to improve the students' speaking skills: An experimental study of the eight grade students of Madrasah Tsanawiyah Aassalafi Susukan in the academic year of 2016/2017*. A graduating Paper, English Education Department, Teacher Training and Education Faculty, State Institute for Islamic Students (IAIN) Salatiga.
- Yuwono, G. (2005). *English Language teaching in decentralised Indonesia: Choices from the less privileged schools*. A paper presented at the AARE International Education Research Convergence, The University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW.
- Zulfikar, T. (2010). The making of Indonesian education: An overview on empowering Indonesian teachers. *Journal of Indonesian Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2, 13-39.



## **Iranian EFL Learners' Perceptions towards the Cooperative Learning (CL) Implementation in Islamic Azad University**

**Maryam Beiki**

*Department of English Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch, Islamic Azad University,  
Varamin, Iran*

*Email: [Maryam.beyki1248@gmail.com](mailto:Maryam.beyki1248@gmail.com)*

**\*Neda Gharagozloo**

*Assistant Professor of Department of English Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch,  
Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran*

*Email: [N.gh@iauvaramin.ac.ir](mailto:N.gh@iauvaramin.ac.ir)*

**Reza Raissi**

*Assistant Professor of Department of English Translation, Varamin-Pishva Branch,  
Islamic Azad University, Varamin, Iran*

*Email: [rezaraissi99@gmail.com](mailto:rezaraissi99@gmail.com)*

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Maryam Beiki** is PhD candidate in Islamic Azad University Varamin-Pishva branch. She has published several papers in national and international journals and participated in several national and international conferences. Her area of interest is applied linguistics and testing.

**Neda Gharagozloo** holds a PhD in Linguistics from Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran. She is an assistant professor of department of English translation in Islamic Azad University Varamin-Pishva Branch, and teaches in related

disciplines. She has written several books and published several papers in national and international journals. Her area of interest is cognitive linguistics and applied linguistics.

**Dr. Reza Raissi** holds a PhD in TESL from UTM university Malaysia. He is an assistant professor of department of English translation in Islamic Azad University Varamin-Pishva Branch and teaches in related disciplines. He has published several papers in international journals and his area of interest is teaching methodology, testing and applied linguistics.

### **Abstract**

Nowadays the instructors face challenging context in higher educations regarding the most effective technique of writing instruction. It looks to be a change in university contexts towards the learner-centered classes. The dominant factor to develop the intellectual capacity of learners includes Cooperative Learning (CL) in education. Incorporation of new techniques into the educational context may accompanied by some challenges and problems. Learners' perceptions and ideas are considered dominant factors for accomplishing the instructional programs in educational contexts. Thus, it looks crucial to identify learners' perceptions and challenges regarding the CL application. To this aim, the researchers conducted a survey study to ask the CL importance form Iranian students. Through stratified random sampling, 169 English language translation students in Islamic Azad University (IAU) of Tehran were selected as the participants of the study. The questionnaire were used to find out participants' perceptions regarding the CL implementation in university contexts. Results of the study revealed Individual Accountability as the most favorable CL component. Although most of the learners were agreed with the CL but they had some problems regarding the CL in their classes like, time consuming techniques, classroom management, unequal group members' participation and the conflicts that occur when one-member has lower performance compared to other members. The results of the current study are useful for several people who can benefit the results namely language practitioners, university students, and educational administrators.

**Keywords:** *Cooperative learning, English language teaching, and learning, Learners' perceptions.*

## **Introduction**

According to Johnson and Johnson (2009) investigators like Sexton in late 1960s criticized competitive learning, and social researchers such as (Hartup, 1976; Johnson, 1980; Johnson & Johnson, 1981; Lewis & Rosenblum, 1975 as cited in Zareia & Layeq, 2016) stressed the necessity of learners' interaction in educational context. Then, during 1980s through the introduction of communicative language teaching approach, the CL became popular and the context for its implementation in academic context was shaped. Kagan (1995) asserts that the two key parts of communicative language teaching, such as socially directed educations and group communication, are closely linked to the core of the CL. Thus, the CL applied as a teaching procedures to signify the concept of communicative language teaching in academic setting.

According to Marashi and Baygzadeh (2010) the CL is nothing new in the realm of teaching, and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), as the crucial aspect of Vygotskian perspective, is linked to the CL. According to Vygotsky (1978) all good learning includes the attainment of skills which happen through communication in the student's ZPD (p. 29). Vygotsky claims that, the genuineness of the context and the sympathy between students are central factors to motivate the students feel part of this context. Opposed to the Vygotskian viewpoint about the role of learning through social interaction which leads to cognitive growth, Piaget's theory highlights the role of cognitive development and learning. Both scholars' theory supplement each other, the earlier supports social communication in learning whereas the later supports vigorous learning of the learners. Thus, both of them are vital features in the recognition of the CL in education. In addition, some investigators mentioned that learners are not passive receivers of information, they can dynamically construct knowledge, link it to their former knowledge, and construct their own clarification (Brooks & Brooks, 1999; Cheek, 1992; Yager, 1991 as cited in Marashi and Baygzadeh, 2010). It exactly highlights the perspectives of constructivism where the learners choose and alter information, builds

hypotheses and then go through the process of decision making and trust a cognitive structure to do so.

According to Krashen (1985) the CL and language acquisition are related to input, output, and context of acquisition. Further, the CL have an intense positive effect on almost all of these three issues related to language acquisition. The nature of the CL considers input in the Zone of Proximal Development and stimulates language development (Vygotsky, 1978). In this vein, Liangn (2002) highlights fruitful language learning needs comprehensible input and output. In traditional classroom students' output was limited to the supremacy of teacher fronted activities. Through reducing the amount of teacher-centered activity and application of the CL, students' output would be enhanced. Beside, acquisition could be raised if it happens in a supportive, motivating, communicative and a rich feedback context (Kagan, 1995).

Recently, the CL pedagogy and its productivity have been broadly admitted in ESL/EFL educational contexts. Johnson and Johnson (2009) mentioned that the CL is grounded in social interdependence theory which definitely effects individual interaction within an academic context. Consequently, it effects the result of the communication in class setting (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1998). Through positive interdependence, the CL enhances promotive interaction where students' contribution helps them grasp their goals and provide effective feedback. In this case, students challenge each other and gain various perspectives which contributes to educational attainment (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). Likewise, the CL provides learners with the opportunities to express their own knowledge and gain deeper understanding of the content (Van Boxtel, van der Linden & Kanselaar, 2000).

O'Neil, Chuang, and Chung (2004) believe that the CL and problem solving should be merged in educational context to teach learners and take into account today's requirements. The CL needs students to work together in groups to accomplish a shared objective. Furthermore, it enhances the chances of student-student interaction in a supportive environment (Abrami, Poulsen and Chambers, 2004; Açıkgöz, 1992; Johnson & Johnson, 2011; Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2000; Slavin, 1995). Besides, Gocer (2010), mention that in the CL context, students should work so as to enhance the learning of themselves and their peers. In the CL context, peers support

each other's learning and conduct appropriate communication among themselves. Students with diverse cultures, experiences and learning modes work together and attempt for a common goal.

It is stated that the CL is an extremely suitable choice for all learners because it highlights dynamic interaction between individuals of different capabilities and circumstances (Tsai, 1998; Wei, 1997; Yu, 1995 as cited in Azizinezhad et al. ,2013) and result in more positive outcome in academic attainment and social behavior. Besides, Abu and Flowers (1997) highlight that cooperative interactions prepare students for working with others outside of the academic context. In the same vein, Adams (2013) mentioned that groups interaction in a supportive environment enhance academic learning and satisfy psychological states of learners. The crucial factor of the CL is the suitable application of interpersonal and small group skills. According to Johnson and Johnson (1990) cooperative skills include staying with the group, inspiring participation, connecting present learning to the past learning, criticizing thoughts without criticizing people, inquiring questions and asking for further justification.

The CL is grounded based on the theory of Social Constructivism which emphasis the needs for the learners to engage dynamically in learning process. According to this theory, the CL leads to the co-construction of interaction (Storch, 2005). Moreover, the CL approach is related to Wittrock's Generative Learning theory and the theory of motivation (Gonzales & Torres, 2015; McLeish, 2009; Pan & Wu, 2013), which highlights individual learner's desire for interaction with each other in class setting. It exactly highlights the idea that learners individually and socially construct the knowledge themselves (Hein, 1991). Thus, it demands learners to be engaged in the learning process. Correspondingly, the role of pair work and peer feedback was a conspicuous subject for scholars (Cheng,2019). To this aim, learners should experience learning together where they are motivated and encouraged to critically explore their learning environment. This kind of education supports long term retention of knowledge through peers scaffolding when they experience peer feedback by working together (Atkinson, 2003; Donato, 1994; Mcleish, 2009). On the other hand, Kagan and Kagan (1998) believe that the CL endorses multiple intelligences when students work together in terms of interpersonal relationship. Through interpersonal intelligence and the CL, instructor targets interpersonal efficacy

for learners' progress. Kagan and Kagan (1998) believe that learners who do not understand themselves cannot understand others, therefore, they are unable to respond properly to their other peers.

Concerning Iranian context, a teacher-centered approach appears to be applied at all instructive levels (Farzaneh & Nejadansari,2014). In this case the instructors are seen as the source of knowledge with learners inactively taking notes and enquiring very few inquiries. Taking this into account, this investigation was directed to examine students' perception regarding using the CL in Iranian higher educational context. Some studies are conducted about the CL implementation in Iranian academic setting. In this regard, writing as a productive skill and as an indispensable part of academic success (Erkan & Saban,2011) was studied through the CL implementation in academic context (Ahangari & Samadian,2014). The other investigation have been conducted to evaluate the positive effect of the CL on reading skills (Farzaneh & Nejadansari,2014) and speaking skills (Azizinezhad et al. ,2013), but to the researchers' knowledge few studies have been conducted about this issue about Iranian EFL learners' attitude towards implementing the CL at higher educational contexts. Consequently, in the current investigation the researchers took the initiative to conduct a study in this regard.

## **Literature Review**

According to Johnson and Johnson (1990), the CL as a teaching procedure is appropriate for a variety of purposes. The CL groups can be employed to clarify definite content, to guarantee vigorous cognitive processing of information through discourse and offer learners long-term support for academic development. Based on Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) theory of Reasoned Action, the act of believing that one is able to do a task, can result in a positive consequence. In other words, a positive attitude result in better performance because attitude forms the way of thinking, feeling, understanding, and behaving. Thus, if learners believe that the CL will have a significant effect on their learning, then it will be to their advantage (Gonzales & Torres, 2015). In comparison with the traditional methods of teaching and learning, CL is more effective in terms of increasing students' interaction and learning (e.g. AbdelWahab, 2014; Almugren & Ahmed, 2009; Azizinezhad, Hashemi & Darvishi,2013; Chen, 2004; Cole, 2012; Elola

& Oskoz, 2010; Er & AksuAtaç, 2014; Farzaneh & Nejadansari, 2014; McLeish, 2009; Mohamed & Mahmoud, 2014; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Valdez, Lomoljo, Dumrang & Didatar, 2015). Besides, some researchers have stated positive effects of using the CL activities in EFL classroom as a move beyond the teacher-centered teaching, as it expands students' language proficiency, learning motivation, communication ability, collaboration, and study skills (Antil, Jenkins, Wayne & Vadasy, 1998; McCafferty, Jacobs & DaSilva Iddings, 2006; Liang, 2002; Ning, 2011; Pan & Wu, 2013; Shaaban, 2006 as cited in Memari Hanjani & Li, 2017).

Regarding implementing the CL in EFL teaching context, Liang (2002) investigated the effect of the CL on the high school learners' communicative ability. The result showed that the CL could significantly improve learners' oral communicative competence and their attitudes regarding English language learning. Similarly, Priyantini (2014) investigated students' attitudes towards the CL in enhancing their motivation for further interaction in classroom. The researcher believed that the most challenging issue in EFL context, is dealing with reluctant learners during implementing interactive tasks in academic setting. The researcher applied Gardner's Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery questionnaire, and an interview to find out the students' attitudes after conducting cooperative activities in classes. Findings revealed that 75% of students had a positive attitude towards the CL implementation in enhancing their motivation for further communication and interaction. In similar vein, Chen (1999) investigated the effect of traditional method and the CL on the development of English language in junior colleges. The findings showed that the students who were engaged in the CL meaningfully attained higher scores on the total test and the cloze test.

Among the studies surveyed the attitudes of learners toward the CL, approximately all of them pooled the similar results and learners presented positive attitudes towards learning with their peers. In this regard, Er and AksuAtaç' (2014) studied Turkish students enactment in classes. The results revealed that 66.9% of EFL learners valued the CL application in Turkish educational context while 31.1% favored working alone. In the same vein, Akinbobola (2009) investigated the view point of students regarding the implementation of cooperative, competitive and individualistic education in Nigerian secondary schools. The result revealed that the CL strategy was the

utmost operative factor in smoothing students' perception towards teaching and learning process. Similarly, Tuan (2010) showed that Vietnamese learners preferred the CL due to its positive effect on improving learners understanding of subject matter and learning. Besides, studies such as (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Valdez, Lomoljo, Dumrang, & Didatar, 2015) showed the similar results in Philippine context. Based on Valdez et al. (2015) through the CL, learners are involved in their learning vigorously and the CL encouraged learners to develop critical thinking. In the same vein Mahamod and Somasundram (2017) studied the effectiveness of the CL towards students' achievement and motivation in secondary school in Malaysian context. Also, the study investigated students' perception towards the CL. 60 students participated in this study and the CL Questionnaire was conducted as the main instrument for data collection. Result of the study showed that students had a positive attitude towards the effectiveness of the CL in Malaysian schools.

On the other hand, Clik, Aytin and Bayram (2012) studied the attitudes of Turkish EFL teachers towards the CL implementation in Turkish educational context. The investigators used two distinct focus group interviews. The results of their study showed that the teachers believed in efficacy of group learning and considered EFL curriculum and learners' perception as difficulties in applying the CL strategy in the Turkish context. In the same line, Nadrag (2017) investigated the effect of students' attitudes towards the CL implementation and highlighted the difference between the CL as a modern approach and the traditional teaching methods. In order to analyze the students' attitudes, the researcher conducted a study accompanied by a questionnaire. The findings revealed that the CL is an applicable strategy for developing oral production and reading comprehension. Students believed that the application of the CL helped them improve their reading, communication and interaction skills. Researcher reported that through the CL, students maintained friendly relationships with their classmates and motivated to express their ideas and opinions in an anxious -free environment.

On the other hand, McLeish's (2009) survey with Jamaican students gained opposite results. His study revealed that 50% of the participants were not comfortable in the CL classes. The study showed that learners may prefer to work on their own rather than within a group. Similarly, Reda (2015) surveyed student's attitudes towards the CL

in university context. 48 students participated in this study. The data was collected through questionnaires. The result showed that the participants had a positive attitude towards the CL application in university context and there was an important alteration between male and female learners in their attitude towards the CL. The finding revealed that female participants had positive attitude towards the CL implementation in university context. In addition, the findings specified that there was no significant difference between students' educational level and their attitudes towards the CL implication. Moreover, the findings reflected a negative relationship between students' performance and their attitudes towards the CL.

In this vein, in Iranian context Farzaneh and Nejadansari (2014) investigated EFL learners' attitude towards the CL implementation and the finding revealed positive outlook towards the CL. A similar positive viewpoint about the CL can be seen in Azizinezhad, Hashemi and Darvishi's (2013) which was conducted among Iranian students in a heterogeneous language proficiency of a junior high school. The findings of their study revealed that the CL enhanced the students' communicative competence and their incentive toward learning English language. Based on the literature review, the following research questions and research objectives have been proposed by the researchers.

### **Research Question**

To accomplish the purpose of this investigation, the following research question was suggested.

What are participants' perceptions towards Cooperative Learning?

### ***Objective of the Study***

This study investigates the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards Cooperative Learning in higher educational context. The aim of the present study has the following objective;

To investigate the perception of learners toward the CL.

## Method

In the current investigation, the researchers used a quantitative method to gather the required data. To this aim the Cooperative Learning questionnaire (McLeish, 2009) has been used to gather learners' perceptions regarding the CL. In the likert scale questionnaire that has been used for the data collection, the items were ranged from Strongly Disagree (SD) to Strongly Agree (SA).

## Design of the Study

The design of the current study is a quantitative survey. According to Scheuren (2004) the survey is a method of gathering data from a sample of individuals. It is a strategy used for gathering the quantitative data from nearly a large sample of the population. In the current investigation quantitative survey was directed and the data collected through a questionnaire.

## Participants

Stratified random sampling was used to gather the required data. To this aim, the researchers considered some criteria for selecting the sample. The first criterion was the participants' age. Consequently, 169 freshmen students between 19 and 31 years old served as the participants of the study. Second criterion related to the students' major of the study. Thus, students who were majored in English language translation at Islamic Azad University of North and Southeast branches of Tehran were selected. The third criterion related to the mother tongue of the learners. All the participants were Iranian native speakers. According to the Table1, 37 males and 132 females, attending at Islamic Azad University in 2018 participated in the current study.

**Table1.**Demographic Background of the Participants

No of Students	169 Freshmen Student
Gender	37 Male and 132 Female
Native Language	Persian
Major	English Language Translation

Universities	IAU, North Tehran Branch and South-east Tehran Branch
Academic Years	2018
Age Range	19 to 31

### **Instrumentation**

The instrument of this study was Cooperative Learning questionnaire (McLeish, 2009). It has been used to elicit learners' attitudes regarding the implementation of the CL in higher educational context. Based on the related literature, Azizinezhad, Hashemi and Darvishi (2013) proposed the categorization regarding the CL components. Consequently, the definition regarding each component of the CL is presented in table 2 and the researchers categorized questionnaire items based on the CL components which is presented in table 3.

### **Reliability and Validity of the Instrument**

Prior to the administration of the cooperative questionnaires, it was piloted. The pilot study was executed among 30 English language translation students, similar to the target population, at Islamic Azad University. After collecting the data, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire was computed. The internal consistency of pilot study was calculated through Cronbach's Alpha and validity was computed through Factor Analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability was 0.81 which is above 0.7 and seems to be acceptable. According to Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) the reliability Index below 0.60 is considered as weak, and above that is an acceptable measure for the reliability index of the questionnaire. On the other hand, the KMO of the factor analysis was 0.66 which is above 0.5 and seems to be acceptable. Bartlett's test of sphericity yielded significant ( $p = .000 < .05$ ). Also, the KMO measure which should be above 0.6 (Pallant, 2007) was considered as a significant one.

**Table2.** Components of Cooperative Learning

<b>Components</b>	<b>Description of Components</b>
Positive Interdependence	Positive interdependence is generating the sense that “we sink or swim together” (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). In the CL contexts, students have to acquire the allocated material, and guarantee that all associates of the group learn the given material(Johnson & Johnson, 1994).
Quality of group interaction process	Through verbal and face-to-face interaction learners explain, argue and elaborate assigned material in a cooperative learning context. Students group together and face each other, in order to interchange ideas and accomplish the task.
Individual Accountability	Each student should admit the accountability for accomplishing his or her role and helping the team gain its learning objectives.
Teaching interpersonal and small group skills	Engaging unskilled students in a group tasks and telling them to collaborate did not assure that they have the ability to do so successfully (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). Consequently, they must be educated overtly how to collaborate with others.
Teaching of the social skills	Schultz (1999) mentioned that social skills must be taught overtly. Thus, students should work themselves, in terms of cooperation and without aggression. In this case each student is encouraged work within freedom and fun (Schultz,1999).

The McLeish (2009) questionnaire has been divided into the following components by the researchers.

**Table 3.** Categorization of the Questionnaire Items Based on the Related Components

<b>Components</b>	<b>Questionnaire items</b>
Positive interdependence	1,7,8
Quality of group interaction process	3,6
Individual accountability	2
Teaching interpersonal and small group skills	5
Teaching of the social skills	4

### ***Data Collection Procedure***

This study investigated the attitudes of Iranian EFL students in Islamic Azad university towards Cooperative Learning implementation in university context. 169 learners participated in this study. The investigation was implemented at regular English teaching hours of the class. It needed about 30 minutes for all the contributors to fill up the questionnaire. The 8 items of the CL questionnaire were on a five-point Likert scale, with the choices fluctuating from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. The options were given values from 1 to 5 accordingly. It also had 6 open ended questions in order to survey learners’ ideas regarding group work implementation in the university context.

### **Data Analysis Procedure**

This is a quantitative study. Quantitative data was examined statistically through using the SPSS program (Statistical Package for the Social Science) version 22 and descriptive analyses (frequency, percentage, means and standard deviation) were run.

### **Results of the study**

This section provides the results obtained from analyzing students’ responses to the CL questionnaire. The first section reports the results of the CL components. The second section deals with the participants’ point of view, related to each component.

**Result of the CL Questionnaire**

The CL questionnaire was used in order to know students’ attitudes towards the CL application in university context. Result of study based on the CL components are presented below.

**Table 4.** Ranking of the CL Components Based on their Mean

<b>Components</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std Deviation *</b>
1. Individual Accountability	2.33	1.00
2. Positive Interdependence	2.13	.04
3. Quality of group interaction process	2.05	.12
4. Teaching of the social skills	2.05	1.06
5. Teaching interpersonal and small group skills	2.01	.96

\* Standard Deviation

Based on the above table, participants of the current study reflected their most favorable CL component as Individual Accountability (M=2.33), followed by Positive Interdependence (M=2.13), Quality of group interaction process (M=2.05), Teaching of the social skills (M=2.05) and Teaching interpersonal and small group skills (M=2.01).

**Results of Individual Accountability**

**Table 7.** Individual Accountability

<b>Items</b>	<b>SA+A</b>		<b>N</b>		<b>D+SD</b>		<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std Deviation</b>
	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>		
1. When I work together I achieve more than when I work alone.	124	73.4	8	4.7	37	21.9	2.17	1.29

7.Creativity is facilitated in the group setting.	119	70.4	39	23.1	11	6.5	2.08	.95
8.Group activities make the learning experience easier.	120	71.0	21	12.4	28	16.6	2.14	1.1

Based on the participants' point of view, most of them (73.4%) believed that when they work together, they achieve more than when working alone. Furthermore, most of them (70.04%) mentioned that creativity is eased in the group setting. On the other hand, 71% believed that group activities make the learning practice easier. Besides, (80.2%) believed that working together as a group member is more focused which leads to further support, better performance and full participation. Students claimed that in this case they monitor each other and ask for clarification in a stress free context that result in better outcome and positive learning experience. On the other hand, (19.8%) believed in working on their own. They highlighted that due to conflicts among members and lack of accountability they cannot trust other students and engage in group activity.

### ***Results of Positive Interdependence***

**Table8.** Positive Interdependence

Items	SA+A		N		D+SD		Mean	Std Deviation
	F	P	F	P	F	P		
3.CL can improve my attitude towards work.	115	68	41	24.3	13	7.7	2.14	.97
6.Cooperative learning enhances class participation.	128	75.8	27	16.0	14	8.3	1.97	.97

Based on the participants' point of view, most of them (68%) believed that the CL can improve their attitude towards work. Additionally, most of them (75.8%) believed

that the CL enhanced their class participation. Furthermore, regarding incorporation of group activities in university classes, (88.6%) of learners mentioned that positive atmosphere, better pronunciation, well-formed sentences, boosted vocabulary knowledge and better time management are facilitated through the application of group activities in classes. On the other hand, (11.4%) believe that group work is hard for newcomers specially due to gap among learners regarding their language proficiency.

### ***Results of Teaching of the Social Skills***

**Table 9.** Teaching of the Social Skills

Items	SA+A		N		D+SD		Mean	Std Deviation
	F	P	F	P	F	P		
2.I willingly participate in cooperative learning activities.	109	64.5	38	22.5	22	13.1	2.33	1.00

The majority of learners (64.5%) believed that they willingly participate in cooperative learning activities in classes. Regarding learners' ideas about incorporating more group activities in their classes, (76%) of learners preferred further implementation of cooperative task and group activity in their classes. They believe that through cooperation, socialization process and creativity will enhance. Additionally, problem solving and correction is done better which can lead to better understanding and recall. On the other hand, (24%) of learners preferred less group activities in their classes. They believed that through engaging in group task in class, conflict and chaos will occur in classes. In this case the class will be noisy which results in waste of time and lack of cooperation.

**Results of Quality of Group Interaction Process**

**Table 10.** Quality of Group Interaction Process

Items	SA+A		N		D+SD		Mean	Std Deviation
	F	P	F	P	F	P		
5.CL enhances good working relationships among students.	123	72.8	35	20.7	11	6.5	2.01	.96

Additionally, based on the participants’ point of view, most of them (72.8%) believed that the CL enhances good working relationships among students. Regarding working in large (7 or more persons) or small (4 or less persons), (51.2%) of learners preferred working in a large group. They believed that working in the large group is more productive, interesting and interactive which leads to generating multiple ideas and divided task. On the other hand, (48.8%) of learners preferred working in a small group. They believe that through working in the small group they can manage their time better. In this case they have more concentration on the task and higher motivation for group work which leads to better decision making and well organized product.

**Results of Teaching Interpersonal and Small Group Skills**

**Table 11.** Teaching Interpersonal and Small Group Skills

Items	SA+A		N		D+SD		Mean	Std Deviation
	F	P	F	P	F	P		
4.CL helps me to socialize more.	118	69.8	34	20.1	16	9.5	2.05	1.06

Based on the participants’ point of view, most of them (69.8%) believed that the CL helps them to socialize more. Regarding the tasks that better learning could be facilitated through group activities, (50%) of learners reported that speaking skills such as discussion and lecture should be done through group activity. Besides, (27%) of

learners highlighted the writing skills, especially the pre-writing stage, where implementing group activities merit attention. Moreover, (23%) reported that reading skills especially pre-reading activities and post-reading needs more group activity. Regarding the guidelines that lecturers consider for the completion of group activities in the class, (63.1%) of learners believed that lecturers guidelines are vivid; hence, learners can accomplish the group task in the specified time. On the contrary, (36%) of learners believed that lecturers guidelines are not clear in educational context; thus, they cannot complete the group task in a due time.

## **Discussion**

The results of the study showed that learners reflected “Individual Accountability” as the most favorable CL component. Researchers found that most learners believe in CL and they try to follow group work in their classroom routine. On the other hand, minority of learners mentioned some challenges concerning the CL implementation in university context. The finding of the study is in line with Marashi and Baygzadeh’s (2010) investigation which showed momentous effect of the CL on the total attainment of EFL learners. In the current study, learners considered group work for better performance , higher motivation for full participation as well as better decision making which leads to well organized product. The result echoes Marashi and Khatami’s (2017) investigation which showed CL had a significantly positive effect on EFL learners’ creativity and motivation. Their investigation provided further evidence in favor of applying the CL in the EFL context.

Besides, the result of the present survey is in line with Neo et al. (2012), which revealed that Malaysian learners similarly favored the CL because it assisted them become more tolerant, make more effective decisions and to achieve more as a group member. Besides, the result of present work showed that the CL can enhance students’ concentration. The finding echoes the outcomes of Bunce, Flens, and Niele’s (2010) study concerning students’ engagement to enhance students’ attention in class setting. Likewise, the results of the current investigation reflects Valdez et al. (2015) study who stress that the CL involve learner in an interactive context. Similarly, the finding supports Zareia and Layeq (2016) investigation about autonomous learning. In the current study,

the students highlighted the CL as an effective means to increase their self confidence and autonomous learning.

Besides, the result of the study highlights Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis about anxiety-free environment for learning. The CL context inspires learners to produce more output and stride to superior presentation. On the other hand, the finding revealed that minority of learners rejected the CL and preferred working alone rather than in a group. McLeish's (2009) study demonstrated parallel results when it comes to learners for working independently rather than as a group member. The present study can inspire language instructors to do some research on the efficacy of cooperative tasks at several stages of English language proficiency.

## **Conclusion**

The findings regarding the research questions revealed that learners favored "Individual Accountability" as the most promising CL component. Besides, majority of learners preferred the CL due to increase in the group interaction, communication, creativity in generating ideas and increase in noticing, focusing, reasoning, learning and enhancing self-confidence with appealing strategies. On the other hand minority of students highlighted some challenges concerning the CL in classes such as classroom management, unequal group members' participation, the conflicts occur among students when one-member works less than the other, gap between students regarding their language proficiency which may lead to lack of trust and accountability among group members.

The outcome supports the findings of the researchers who emphasized the effectiveness of the CL in university context (e.g., AbdelWahab, 2014; Mohamed& Mahmoud, 2014; Reda,2015). Additionally, similar results have been specified by Melihan and Sirri's (2011) investigation which revealed the CL as an effective strategy for learners' successful academic attainment. Likewise, the findings concerning "Individual Accountability" supports Mizuki's (2003) investigation regarding shifting accountability from the instructor to students through group task enactment in classes. Further, finding of current study signify that the CL improved learners' communicative ability. The finding echoes some researchers study (Azizinezhad et al. ,2013; Polloway,

Patton & Serna,2001) who highlighted the CL as an effective strategy for enhancing learners' oral communication, participation and motivation in academic context. Besides, the finding supports Johnson and Johnson's (2009) out look concerning positive interdependence and promotive interaction where students' contribution, help them attain communicative goals and provide effective feedback for group task implementation.

### **Pedagogical Implication**

Current study has pedagogical implication for language teachers,syllabus designers and curriculum developers who attempt to find alternate way of teaching to EFL/ESL learners. The CL can ameliorate the process of learning, and students' interaction in class setting. Besides, the CL supports students to experience peer feedback, achieve valued input from other learners and attain social skills while working together (Atkinson, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978).Findings of the present investigation can assist instructors to investigate the effectiveness of group task implimentation in several contexts. Additionally,learners may benefit from group tasks implementation in anxiety-free atmosphere where the class attention is on the whole groups, positive relationships among students and learning community (Slavin & Kaweit, 1981). Likewise, the CL can assist instructors to include group tasks in their classes to improve students' thinking and support them construct their own understanding of subject matter,and stimulate constructive interactions among students in classes.

### **References**

- AbdelWahab, M.M. (2014). The effectiveness of using the cooperative language learning approach to enhance EFL writing skills among Saudi University students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* ,5 (3), 616-625.
- Abrami, P., Poulsen, C., & Chambers, B. (2004). Teacher motivation to implement an educational innovation: factors differentiating users and non-users of cooperative learning. *Educational Psychology*, 24(2), 201-216. doi:10.1080/0144341032000160146
- Abu, R.B., &Flowers, J. (1997). The effects of cooperative leaning methods on Achievement, retention and attitude of home Economic students in North

- Carolina. *Journal of Vocational and Technical Education*, 13(2), 16-22.  
<http://Scholar.Lib.Vt.Edu/Ejournals/Jvtev13n2abu.html>.
- Açıkgöz, K. Ü. (1992). *İşbirlikli öğrenme: Kuram, araştırma, uygulama*. Malatya: Uğurel Matbaası.
- Adams, F. H. (2013). Using Jigsaw Technique as an Effective Way of Promoting Co-Operative Learning Among Primary Six Pupils in Fijai. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 1(6), 64-74.
- Ahangari, S., & Samadian, Z. (2014). The effect of cooperative learning activities on writing skills of Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of Linguistics and Literature Studies*, 2(4), 121-130.
- Ajzen, M., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Akinbobola, A. (2009). Enhancing students' attitude towards Nigerian senior secondary school physics through the use of cooperative, competitive and individualistic learning strategies. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(1), 1-9. Retrieved from <http://ajte.education.ecu.edu.au/issues/PDF/341/%20Akinyemi>.
- Almugren, M. & Ahmed, R. (2009). *The impact of cooperative language learning on improving the writing competency of third-year English majored college students* (Unpublished master's thesis), University of Al Imam Muhammad, Saudi Arabia.
- Atkinson, D. (2003). L2 writing in the post-process era: Introduction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 3-15.
- Azizinezhad, M., Hashemi, M., & Darvishi, S. (2013). Application of cooperative learning in EFL classes to enhance the students' language learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 93, 138 – 141. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.09.166.
- Bunce, D., Flens, E., & Nieves, K. (2010). How long can students pay attention in class? A study of students' attention decline using clickers. *Journal of Chemical Education*, 87(12), 1438-1443.
- Cheng, R.T.J. (2019). Perception of peer feedback and feedback quality in ESL graduate writing. *Asian EFL Journal*, 21(2), 7-26.

- Chen, H. (1999). A comparison between cooperative learning and traditional, whole-class method teaching English in a junior college. *Academic Journal of Kang-Ning*, 3, 69-82.
- Chen, M.L. (2004). *A Study of the Effects of Cooperative Learning Strategies on Student Achievement in English as a Foreign Language in a Taiwan College*. NY: ProQuest Information and Learning Company.
- Clik,C., Aytin,K., &Bayram , E. (2012).Implementing cooperative learning in the language classroom: opinions of Turkish teachers of English. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* ,70 (2013), 1852 – 1859.
- Cole, K. S. (2012). Promoting cooperative learning in an expository writing course. *Journal of International Education Research* ,8(2), 113-124.
- Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J.P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.). *Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research*(pp.33-56). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Dornyei, Z. and Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing(2nd Ed)*.Routledge, New York.
- Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2010). Collaborative writing: Fostering foreign language and writing conventions development. *Language Learning & Technology* ,14(3), 51-71.
- Er, S., & Aksu Ataç, B. (2014). Cooperative learning in ELT classes: The attitudes of students towards cooperative learning in ELT classes. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, 2(1), 109-122.
- Erkan, D.Y., & Saban, A.I. (2011). Writing performance relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing: A correlational study in Turkish tertiary-level EFL. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1),164-191.
- Farzaneh, N., & Najadansari, D. (2014). Students' attitudes towards using cooperative learning for teaching reading comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(2), 287-292.
- Gonzales, W. D. W., & Torres, P. (2015). Looking at CIRC through quantitative lenses: Can it improve the reading comprehension of Filipino ESL learners? *Philippine ESL Journal*, 15, 67-98.

- Gocer, A. (2010). A Comparative research on the effectivity of Cooperative Learning method and jigsaw technique on teaching literary genres. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 5(8), 439-445.
- Hein, G.E. (1991). Constructivist learning theory, the museum and the needs of people, paper presented at *CECA (International Committee of Museum Educators) Conference*, Jerusalem, Israel, 15-22 October.
- Johnson, D. W. & Johnson, R. T. (1990). *Cooperative Learning and Achievement*. In W-M. Roth & A. Roychoudhury (1993). Concept map as a tool for micro analysis of high school physics students. *Journal of research in science teaching*. 30. 237-244.
- Johnson, R.T., & Johnson, D.W. (1994). An overview of cooperative learning, In J., Thousand, A., Villa, & A., Nevin (Eds.), *Creativity and Collaborative Learning*. Baltimore, Maryland, USA: Brookes Publishing.
- Johnson, D.W. and Johnson, R.T. (2009). An Educational Psychology Success story: Social Interdependence Theory and cooperative learning. *Educational Research*, 38(5), 365-379.
- Johnson, D.W. & Johnson, R.T. (2011). "Intellectual Legacy: Cooperation and Competition".  
In P. T. Coleman (Ed.), *Conflicts, Interdependence, and Justice: The Intellectual Legacy of Morton Deutsch* (pp. 41-64). New York: Springer.
- Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T., & Smith K. (1998). Cooperative Learning returns to college: What evidence is there that it works?, *Change*, 27-35.
- Johnson, D.W., Johnson, R.T., & Smith. K. A. (2000). "Cooperative Learning Returns to College: What Evidence Is There That It Works?" In D, DeZure (Ed.), *Learning from Change: Landmarks in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education from Change Magazine, 1969-1999* (PP. 205-212). Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Kagan, S. (1995). We can talk: Cooperative learning in the elementary ESL classroom. ERIC Clearing house on Languages and Linguistics. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED382035.pdf> (18 January 2013).
- Kagan, S., & Kagan, M. (1998). *Multiple intelligences: The complete MI book*. San Clemente, CA: Resources for Teachers.

- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in Second Language Acquisition*. California: Pergamon Press Inc.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis*. New York, NY: Pergamon.
- Liang, T. (2002). *Implementing cooperative learning in EFL teaching: process and effects*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan.
- Mahamod,Z., & Somasundram,B. (2017). Effectiveness of cooperative learning on the achievement and motivation of the student in learning Malay language. *Creative Education*,8, 2438-2454.
- Marashi,H., & Baygzadeh,L. (2010). Using cooperative learning to enhance EFL learners' overall achievement. *IJAL*, 13(1), 73-98.
- Marashi, H., & Khatami,H. (2017). Using cooperative learning to boost creativity and motivation in language learning. *Journal of Language and Translation*,7 (1),43-58.
- McLeish, K. (2009). *Attitude of students toward cooperative learning methods at knox community college: a descriptive study* (Unpublished Master Thesis). University of Technology, Jamaica.
- Melihan, U., & Sirri, A. (2011). The effect of cooperative learning method on the students' success and recall levels of the 8<sup>th</sup> grade students learning in permutation and probability subject. *Journal of Kirsehir Education Faculty*, 12, 1-16.
- Memari Hanjani,A., & Li,L. (2017). Cooperative learning pedagogy: A response to an urgent need in the Iranian EFL reading comprehension context. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills (JTLS)*,36(3), 33-58.
- Mizuki, P. (2003). Metacognitive strategies, reflection, and autonomy in the classroom. In A. Barfield & M. Nix (Eds.), *Autonomy you ask!* (pp. 143–156). Tokyo: Learner Development Special Interest Group of the Japan Association for Language Teaching.
- <http://ld-sig.org/autonomy-you-ask/>

- Mohamed, M., & Mahmoud, A.W. (2014). The effectiveness of using the cooperative language learning approach to enhance EFL writing skills among Saudi University Students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(3),616-625.
- Nadrag,L . (2017). Language and Discourse. In I. Boldea (Ed.), *Literature, Discourses and the Power of Multicultural Dialogue* (33-45). Arhipelag Press: Tîrgu Mureş.
- Neo, T., Neo, M., Kwok, W., Tan, Y., Lai, C., & Zarina, C. (2012). Designing multimedia content to foster active learning in a Malaysian classroom. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 28(5), 857-880.
- O'Neil, H. F., Chuang, S., & Chung, G. K. W. K. (2004). *Issues in the computer-based assessment of collaborative problem solving (CSE report 620)*. Los Angeles: University of California.
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual—A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows (3rd ed.)*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Pan, C. Y., & Wu, H. Y. (2013). The Cooperative Learning effects on English reading comprehension and learning motivation of EFL Freshmen. *English Language Teaching*, 6(5), 13-27.
- Polloway, E. A., Patton, J. R., & Serna, S. (2001). *Strategies for teaching learners with special needs*. 7th Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Priyantini, T. (2014). Students' attitudes towards cooperative learning in enhancing their motivation to speak. Paper presented at the 61st TEFLIN International Conference, Sebelas Maret University, Solo, 7-9, 846-849.
- Reda, T.A. (2015). Attitude of students towards cooperative learning methods. *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)*, 24(2), 33-44.
- Scheuren, F. (2004). *What is a survey?* Alexandria, VA: American Statistical Association. Retrieved from <http://www.whatisasurvey.info>
- Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. In Z. Dörnyei, & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 313-259). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

- Schultz, P.W. (1999). Changing behavior with normative feedback interventions: A field experiment on curbside recycling. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 21, 25-36. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15324834basp2101\\_3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15324834basp2101_3)
- Slavin, R. E. (1995). *Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Slavin, R.E. & Karweit, N. (1981). Cognitive and effective outcomes of an intensive student team learning experience. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 50, 29-35.
- Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 153–173.
- Tuan, L. (2010). Infusing cooperative learning into an EFL classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 64-77.
- Valdez, A., Lomoljo, A., Dumrang, S., & Didatar, M. (2015). Developing critical thinking through activity –based and Cooperative Learning Approach in teaching high school chemistry. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 5(1), 139-141.
- Van Boxtel, C., van der Linden, J., & Kanselaar, G. (2000). The use of textbooks as a tool during collaborative physics learning. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 69, 57–76.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Zareia, A., & Layeq,H. (2016). Cooperative and competitive teaching techniques affecting Iranian EFL learners' autonomy level. *International Journal for 21st Century Education*, 3, 26-34.

## Appendix

### Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is developed by McLeish (2009)

Students' Questionnaire Instructions: Read the following questions carefully and place a “√” in the box that corresponds with the answers chosen.

**Cooperative Learning** can be defined as the collaboration of students working in groups to achieve as prescribed objective.

#### SECTION I:

1. Age:  Under 20  20 – 25  26 – 30  31 – 35  Over 35
2. Gender:  Male  Female
3. What is your area of study?  
 Part Time English Language Translation Studies  Full Time English Language Translation Studies

#### SECTION II:

4. Have you ever participated in a group activity/assignment?  Yes  No
5. If yes, where do you usually participate in group activities/assignments?  In class  Outside of class  Both
6. What has been the typical size of your group?  2 - 4  5 -7  8 – 10  other

#### SECTION III

Read the following statements and indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the statements. Questionnaire Key SA – Strongly Agree A - Agree N - Neutral D - Disagree SD - Strongly Disagree

- |  | SA /A/ N/ D/ SD  |
|--|--|
| 7. When I work together I achieve more than when I work alone. | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. I willingly participate in cooperative learning activities. | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Cooperative learning can improve my attitude towards work.  | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |

10. Cooperative learning helps me to socialize more.
11. Cooperative learning enhances good working relationships among students.
- 
12. Cooperative learning enhances class participation.
13. Creativity is facilitated in the group setting.
14. Group activities make the learning experience easier.
15. Rate the extent to which lecturers use group activities.  Never  Sometimes  
 Always

#### SECTION IV

Please read the following items and answer accordingly.

16. Do you prefer working in large (7 or more persons) or small (4 or less persons) groups? Give a reason for your answer.
17. Do you prefer to work on your own rather than in a group? If so Why?
18. Would you prefer if your lecturers used more group activities/assignments? Please give a reason/reasons for your answer.
19. Name the task/tasks in which you believe greater learning could be facilitated via group activities.
20. Do lecturers give clear guidelines for the completion of group activities/assignments whether in/outside of the class setting? If yes, do these guidelines enable the task to be clearly understood and completed in the specified time?
21. Would you be more comfortable if more group activities were incorporated in your course of study? Give a reason for your answer.



## Effects of Teaching Strategies on Reading Comprehension Development

**Rowena P. Balinon, MAEd**

*Come and See Christian School, Inc.*

*Cumabao, Tumauni, Isabela, Philippines*

[rowenabalinon2019@gmail.com](mailto:rowenabalinon2019@gmail.com)

**Boyet L. Batang, Ph.D.**

*Isabela State University-Ilagan Cluster*

*City of Ilagan, Isabela*

[boyet.l.batang@isu.edu.ph](mailto:boyet.l.batang@isu.edu.ph)

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Rowna P. Balino** is currently the school principal of a mission foundation school: 'Come and See' Christian School Inc., located at Cumabao, Tumauni, Isabela. She pursued her graduate studies in Theology at the Philippine Baptist Theological Seminary, located at Pinsao, Baguio City and finished Masters in Missiology and her Master's degree in Education major in English at Isabela State University-Cabagan.

**Boyet L. Batang, Ph.D.** – is currently the Cluster Executive Officer, Isabela State University System. He obtained his PhD degree in English Language Studies at the University of Santo Tomas and his Master's degree in English Language Arts at the Philippine Normal University, Manila. He has presented papers in national and international conferences. He teaches both in the undergraduate and graduate levels of Isabela State University and Cagayan State University, respectively. He is a national senior accreditor of AACCUP and member of the Regional Quality Assessment Team (RQAT) of the Commission on Higher Education, Region 02.

## **Abstract**

The study focused on the reading comprehension development of the grade V pupils. Specifically, it aimed to compare the effects of the traditional lecture, predicting and think-aloud protocol strategies on the reading comprehension of pupils. The study used the experimental method of research, specifically, the pretest posttest equivalent groups design.

Findings of the study revealed that there is a consistent improvement in the reading comprehension of pupils based on the pretest and posttest mean scores in the said teaching strategies. Moreover, the traditional lecture, and predicting and think-aloud protocol strategies are equally effective in improving the reading comprehension of the pupils. In addition, it was found out that there is a significant improvement in the pupils' reading comprehension when taught with the use of traditional lecture and predicting strategies. The think-aloud protocol strategy showed an increase but it was not significant at .05 level. Furthermore, it can be concluded that the predicting and TAP strategies can be used to complement the traditional lecture and other teaching strategies to create a more challenging teaching-learning activities. Predicting strategy is a good strategy to develop critical thinking and other higher order thinking skills. Think-aloud protocol is suitable for all ages because it is a keep talking strategy that makes everyone active. Learners tend to speak more if they can easily relate to the topic. Thus, TAP could be very effective with common materials that activate prior knowledge and does not require the heavy use of the cognitive processes.

**Keywords:** *Teaching Strategies, Reading Comprehensions, Think-aloud protocol*

## **Introduction**

One of the important skills in English is Reading. Reading must be with comprehension to find the meaning of what the writer delivered. Without comprehension, reading is simply just following words on a page from left to right and has no meaning.

People read for many different reasons, and the main goal is to develop some understanding of what the writer is trying to express and make use of that information.

That is why reading comprehension skills are so important. Without them the reader cannot gather any information (Aziz, 2016).

As learners have an important role in new teaching methodologies, raising their awareness of learning strategies and helping them utilize these strategies is a crucial aim of teachers. One type of these learning strategies is metacognitive strategies including planning, self-monitoring and self-evaluation. The present study aimed at examining the effect of metacognitive (planning & self-monitoring) strategy instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance (on authentic and inauthentic texts) and their metacognitive awareness (Takallou, 2011).

Carroll (1999) stated also that one of the most crucial skills that has to be developed in one's initial stage of formal education is reading, the major avenue to knowledge. Their success in reading gauge their success in school also and their inability to read could be a fundamental cause of their failure. In fact, in the primary grades, promotion is almost entirely dependent upon one's attainment in reading. Harries (1996), also observed that reading proficiency is closely related to the scholastic success as found between good reading comprehension and scholastic success in subjects like Social Studies, Mathematics, Science and others.

Pupils then need to be served with an adequate reading comprehension technique that they expect. They need a strategy which can make them excited about reading activities. Thus, teachers need to use good strategies to enhance pupils' ability in reading comprehension and one of the good strategies is prediction (Aziz, 2016).

Predictions oftentimes deal with background knowledge of the readers during their life experience or through reading any other materials (Moreillon, 2007). Smart readers usually anticipate what is coming next. Based on what they have already read, readers wish certain new events to happen. When an event does not suit a prediction, readers rethink and review their thinking. More importantly, they are warned to possible misperception. So instead of ignoring an incorrect prediction, they get back into the action by making a new guess. Predicting brings readers back on track. It keeps them involved so they are not surprised by incorrect conclusions (Tovani, 2000).

One promising approach for activating metacognition and thereby improving reading comprehension among second-language learners is known as the Think-Aloud

Strategy (McKeown and Gentilucci, 2007). The purpose of think-aloud is to help second-language learners develop the ability to monitor their reading comprehension and employ strategies to assist understanding of text (Baumann, Jones, Seifert-Kessell, 1993). It permits these students to self-regulate the reading process and improve comprehension by employing “fix-up strategies” where needed (Cassanave, 1988).

The traditional lecture method was the most widely used instructional strategy in the classrooms. According to Cashin (1990), nearly 80% of all U.S. college classrooms in the late 1970s used the lecture method to teach students. Until now lecture remains an important way to disseminate/communicate information, theories, ideas and facts to students. Thus, it should be designed to include certain procedures in order to be effective— procedures that research and expert lecturers have identified as essential to assist student learning.

Reading achievement has been a continual goal for educators and are often used as means to determine student accomplishment. Reading success often serves as a predictor of future academic achievement. Thus, providing pupils with essential instruction to bridge the gap between achievement and potential is the key. They must become proficient readers (Duffy, et. al, 2003) for future academic victory. Thus, the teacher must use different types of instructions teaching reading since children learn to read in different ways.

Based on the background above, the researchers are interested in experimenting the predicting strategy and think-aloud protocol versus the traditional lecture method in the reading comprehension development of the grade V pupils.

### **Research Questions**

The study was conducted to determine the effect of teaching strategies on reading comprehension development among the grade V pupils.

Specifically, the study sought to answer the following questions:

1. How does reading comprehension differ among pupils exposed to traditional lecture and predicting strategies?
2. How does reading comprehension differ among pupils exposed to traditional lecture and think-aloud protocol?

3. How does reading comprehension differ among pupils exposed to predicting and think-aloud protocol strategies?
4. How significant is the improvement in the reading comprehension of the pupils who were exposed and taught with the use of the following: Traditional Lecture, predicting and Think-aloud Protocol?

### **Teaching Strategies**

Teaching strategies comprise the principles and techniques used for instruction to be implemented by teachers to achieve the desired learning of students. These strategies are determined partly on subject matter to be taught and partly by the nature of the learner. For a certain strategy to be appropriate and efficient it has to be in relation with the characteristic of the learner and the type of learning it is supposed to bring about. Selection of teaching methods must be then taken into account not only on the nature of the subject matter but also the students' learning style in order to bring out their creativity.

According to Wongs (2009), effective teaching strategies engage gifted students, as well as slow-learning children and those with attention deficit inclinations through the use of a balanced mix of teaching techniques to help reach all students in a given classroom not just the few who respond well to one particular technique of teaching. This is supported by Duke and Pearson (2002) in their book stating that prediction strategy must not be singled out; it has to be combined with other strategies. The think-aloud protocol for instance must be collaborated with other methods for it to maximize its effectiveness likewise with any other strategies.

### **Prediction Strategy**

A prediction strategy at its best is conceiving a prediction, then subsequently reading the text to find out what happens. This includes activating background knowledge, previewing or summarizing predictions. When readers manufacture senseless use of expressions that do not fit into the course of the text, it is evident that they are not foreseeing implications. Readers must be taught that taking chances and speculating is a part of the reading development. Teachers must illustrate to pupils that reading is a foretelling and validating activity (Thomas-Fair, 2005).

According to Gaither (2011), prediction is a strategy in which readers use information from a text (including titles, headings, pictures, or diagrams) and their own personal experiences to anticipate what they are about to read (or what comes next). A reader involved in making predictions focuses on the text at hand, constantly thinking ahead and also refining, revising, and verifying his or her predictions. This strategy also helps students make connections between their prior knowledge and the text. All of the activities in prediction strategy will avoid the readers from boredom.

In line with that, Guisinger (2011) believed that predicting is a strategy in which readers think about what they are going to read based on clues from the reading. It is an ongoing process that actively engages the reader in two ways: The reader's mind is a jump ahead, trying to figure out what is coming next (making new predictions), while at the same time the reader is revising and refining the old predictions. In addition, Thomas Fair (2005) said that prediction is a strategy which activating background knowledge of the readers', peeking or previewing and over viewing or summarizing. This strategy is the supposition of moving from what the reader already knows with what it is anticipated that the readers will learn from the text.

Subsequently, Farrel (2002) said that prediction is the strategy of activating prior knowledge. This is further explained by Hansen (1981) and Hansen & Pearson (1983) who said that the activation of prior knowledge is vital in the use of the prediction strategy and they work hand in hand. Hansen and Pearson provide rich examples about this, wherein in both instances, pupils were encouraged to generate expectations about what characters might do based on their own experiences in similar situations. This technique led to superior comprehension of the stories in which the activity was embedded and to superior performance for younger and less able readers on new stories that the pupils read without any teacher support. According to Guisinger (2011), using prediction strategy keeps the students actively engaged in the reading process, and being engaged is the key to comprehend. The readers will be more interested in finding what will happen in the text ahead, whether or not it matches with their prediction. This will increase their curiosity to find it out. Thus, readers will read the texts more actively and enthusiastically. Furthermore, by constantly thinking about their prediction to confirm or revise, readers remain motivated and focused.

In addition, Moreillon (2007) believed that by using this strategy, it will encourage readers to generate thoughts or outcomes about how characters might act or react based on the setting, situation, events, or other characters. Readers will combine the clues that are found in the text with their prior knowledge or experiences about the text and draw a connecting point between them.

Alexander et al. (1999) cited in (Suciarti Ak. Solong, 2010) defined predicting as a set of strategies called Reciprocal Teaching or Collaborative Teaching. Predicting is asking students to take in information (a headline or title, a picture, a summary, or a chart) and make an informed guess as to the ideas or concepts that might appear in a text. After making a prediction, students read or listen to a text and either confirm or revise their predictions. Beginning-level English language learners may not have adequate fluency to generate predictions. They may need additional input that can deepen their background knowledge and increase their vocabulary before they can guess. For this group, simple visuals without text might serve as a starting.

According to Solong (2010), predicting strategy is activating students' background knowledge as they start to engage with key concepts. It activates background knowledge and shows students that they are smart enough to figure things out even if they have trouble with English or with reading. Students learn to make connections between their own prior knowledge and the ideas in a text. It's helpful for students to see that sometimes their predictions are off and they have to stop and think and possibly revise their predictions. Predicting and revising also assist students in thinking while they listen or read, as they pay attention to see if they were right in their predictions. Having students revise their prediction supports "rereading," an important component of comprehension, especially for struggling readers. From the quote above can be concluded predicting is helping students to make an informed guess as to the ideas, concepts or action that might appear in a text. Review and revise as reading continues.

Further, the purposes of steps in using prediction are as follows: it motivates the student, it increases comprehension, it helps students to share peer knowledge/ reasoning processes and it gives responsibility of comprehension to the students. The vital thing that should be remembered is that all of this steps aim to encourage the students to think and make the predictions as well as the revisions at every stopping point. By encouraging the

students to do so, it will increase the students' intention to participate to the reading learning activity. Finally, it will multiply the students' understanding and comprehension of the text.

There are several studies that show the effectiveness of predicting strategy in comprehension development and an example of this is the study of Solong (2010). In his conclusion, Solong stated that the use of Predicting Strategy is effective to improve students' comprehension. He found out that the students' score in pre-test and post-test has a significant difference. The data analysis showed that the students' reading comprehension using predicting strategy, in post-test 45 are higher than in pre-test 32, the data also showed that the value of t-test 11.63 was greater than t-table 2.045.

### **Think-Aloud Protocol**

The Think Aloud strategy refers to a method of learning where students are required to voice their inner thoughts loudly when they read (Oster, 2001). This process often begins when the student takes the book that he intends to read. There are many thoughts that are likely to go through the mind of a person when reading a book. This strategy is essential for the improvement of comprehension as well as fluency. It is therefore important for teachers to fully understand this strategy, so that they are able to implement it in the classroom in an appropriate manner. Prediction, vocabulary and making connections are just a few of the important components of this strategy. The other components of the strategy are reading aloud, and pausing to reflect on the reading before moving to the next one.

Harvey (2001) provided an explanation of how she conducted the Think Aloud strategy during her teaching sessions. She suggested the first step was to question the text. She did questioning by reading aloud, stopping, and informing the students what her thoughts were about the text she read. Being able to question the text during reading is the first step towards understanding and comprehension. The next step she took was to select the text that could be used for discussion. This is done by either selecting a text or a picture that she thought would likely bring up a lot of debate. The third step is the introduction of the strategy. She explained to the children the importance of asking questions while they read. She asked if any of them had questions they would like to ask.

The last step in this procedure was using sticky notes to mark the important parts of the text and to notate important facts about the text they would like to remember.

According to Alqahtani (2016), the findings of the research showed that students' lack of awareness of their learning goals may hinder their capacity to adopt the most appropriate learning strategies. It was discovered that when the students were not taught using the Think Aloud strategy, they tended to have a much lower understanding of what they read, which was caused by their lack of awareness of exactly what was to be deduced from a piece of reading. This further emphasized the need for adopting the Think Aloud method when teaching. Learning should always be measured by marks and scores.

The next stage is to introduce the book to the students. During this stage, the teacher should explain to the students that he or she intends to stop periodically to check for analysis and understanding. Next, when the reading begins, the teacher should ensure that at each of the places where he or she makes stops, the students have understood completely and are ready to move to the next part. Another method that is often used to make students comprehend is reading the same text more than once. Once the teacher has identified the spots in the reading where these strategies are to be applied, he or she ensures that when reading, the class stops at these points to have a discussion. The teacher should ensure that the discussion is centered primarily on the students, since the learning is meant for them. In case the children are reading on their own, he or she should encourage them to conduct the same exercise in this manner.

Think aloud may also include expressing varying thoughts that can take the form of suggestions, questions, connections, and judgments made through personal experiences. In explaining how he implemented this strategy, Santoro (2008) stated that he initiated the learning activity then encouraged the students to join and make significant contributions to the discussion. He also demonstrated to the students the practical methods that ought to have been employed when addressing challenging problems so as to bring to the surface complexities of thinking when dealing with cognitively challenging tasks. He then provided the students with progressive solution steps that could equip them with corresponding prompts to understand the questions or learning concepts. Students were then encouraged to engage in a monologue where they first defined the question or learned a concept and then applied the solution steps to identify possible solutions to the

problems. Teachers began by modeling the steps that students applied when solving complex problems. They then gradually transferred this responsibility to the students,

Think aloud can also help students solve math problem. Dorl (2007) explained how she employed the Think Aloud strategy in a mathematics class by asking students to estimate the number of pencils that students within the school could have. She explained that she assisted the students to calculate the number of classes that the entire school has as well as the number of students that could be occupied in each class. She then encouraged them to state loudly the number of pencils that all students in all the classes could have assumed that each student has only one pencil. This technique could enable teachers, to equip students with easy steps for making quick and accurate calculations while on the other hand integrating an aspect of reasoning (Smith, 2002).

Scholarly evidence has shown that the Think Aloud strategy improves learner's level of achievement in science subject that mainly include scientific inquiries. An inquiry undertaken by Gregory and Cahill (2010) in the attempt to determine the effect of integrating Think Aloud approach in a scientific inquiry among sixth grade students showed that the strategy improved their achievement in the unit. These results were established through using an experimental group that engaged in reading aloud, writing and discussion of the results obtained from a scientific inquiry. A control group was also used, and this group did not read aloud or even discuss the results obtained from the inquiry. With significant statistical differences being realized between the two groups, Gregory and Cahill concluded that Think Aloud approach cultivated substantial benefits that mainly included improved achievement in scientific inquiry.

The Think Aloud strategy help the teachers in identifying those students who need extra attention. The good comprehender is one who is able to quickly synthesize information as they read it. The non-risk taker is one who does not like to dig deep into their minds to try and understand a text; they would rather look for clues from people who have understood, rather than speak their minds and come out wrong. The non-Integrator is one who is quick at developing hypotheses from the texts that they read without being concerned with connecting them to the previous points of reading. The schema imposer is one who does not change his mind. He sticks with the hypothesis that he developed earlier without considering the new information that is incoming; which is likely to

disapprove the earlier hypothesis. The storyteller is one who relies a lot on information that he gathered through experience or otherwise, and pays very little attention to that which is contained in the text. Therefore, he may sometimes miss the vital information in the current story by basing too much in the past. The Think Aloud strategy is able to be used effectively for all types of learners.

### **Traditional/Lecture Method**

This is a teacher-centered method frequently entails lengthy lecture sessions or one-way presentations. Students are expected to take notes or absorb information. This is acceptable for certain higher-education disciplines and auditorium settings with large groups of students. The pure lecture method is most suitable for subjects like history that necessitate memorization of key facts, dates, names, etc. but it is a questionable model for teaching children because there is little or no interaction with the teacher (Westwood, 2008).

Effective lectures need to bridge between what's in the students' minds to the structures of the content to be learned, linking the known concepts to the new ones. The lecturer must take a different approach that differ from the former one. It is like focusing more on building knowledge and then later change it into a more analytic approach as students have a better conceptual foundation of the course content (McKeachie, 2006)

Since many students take notes during a lecture, the summaries of presented concepts help student quickly review what they have written to confirm their interpretations or change it for better accuracy. Lastly, check for understanding. In the use of power point, teachers must avoid these common pitfalls: DO – be brief; use large fonts (minimum of 28 pt.) and ensure contrast. Slides should be visually interesting. Be sure to run through the entire presentation on the computer before the actual lecture. DON'T put everything on the slides; use different colors and/or fonts on every slide; use too much animation (McKeachie, 2006).

### **Reading Comprehension**

Sing (2019) investigated the effectiveness of implementing a metacognitive strategy training approach in second language reading instruction. Reading strategies

were taught in three treatment sessions to a Japanese female participant of upper intermediate English proficiency. The aims of these sessions were to promote greater awareness and use of metacognitive reading strategies, and to improve reading comprehension ability in timed and untimed tasks. Graded news articles were used in each session, during which several metacognitive strategies, such as skimming, scanning, summarizing, contextual guessing, and questioning, were modeled by the instructor and utilized by the participant. Pre- and post-test scores reveal significant gains in reading comprehension skills, specifically in timed reading activities. The findings support the teaching of metacognitive strategies as an effective means of developing second language reading ability.

Reading is defined as a complex made up of several interlocking skills and process where the skills and strategies are employed before, during, and after reading. (Tankersley, 2003, as cited in Aziz, 2016). Reading is not merely an activity of following words of a text but also must be with comprehension. Reading in tandem with comprehension is a dynamic combination for attaining reading purposes. It is a process by which the reader makes personal connections with a text to construct meaning. Reading and responding to a text are integral parts of language learning. Effective readers employ a wide repertoire of meaning-making (comprehension) strategies that they can deploy independently with a range of texts. Effective readers understand and remember what they read. They can summarize and discuss the content and demonstrate their comprehension of the text. They can analyze and evaluate what they have read. Effective readers recognize words quickly and efficiently. They demonstrate high word recognition. They possess strong fluency skills. They read with good expressions, intonation, pitch, and phrasing. Comprehension is the main objective of reading process in order to acquire meanings and insights that contains in a text. Snow (2002 cited in Aziz 2016) contended that 10 comprehension in reading is the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. Additionally, comprehension requires making meaning from words when reading, making connections among words are the key to comprehension. Readers do not comprehend unless he or she makes connections and are able to process the words that he or she reads at the thinking level (Tankersley, 2003 cited in Aziz 2016).

In a similar view, Macadangdang (2019) found out that problem solving proficiency increases when students have better prior competence in English and Mathematics. Further, reading comprehension level has an impact in the problem-solving proficiency of the students. Moreover, problem solving proficiency level of the students in terms of the different skills exists, particularly in favor of the skill in understanding the problem and in planning the solution. The students' ability to solve worded problems depends on how they translate phrases into mathematical symbols. Problem solving is a difficult task as it involves a lot of steps. Students have to hurdle the challenges in going from one step to another although the steps may not necessarily have to be taken in sequential manner. Some of the processes in solving word problems involve reading comprehension and how students make a plan.

According to Aziz (2016), reading comprehension has been defined in various definitions by a number of experts. Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that reading is the ability to achieve meaning from a written material. In the process of reading, readers need to comprehend in order to understand and to gain the message that comes in the text. Reading comprehension refers to the capability of the readers to understand what is being read. Reading without comprehension is empty, the readers will get nothing from a text without comprehension.

The purpose of reading will determine the appropriate approach used in reading comprehension. Grabe and Stoller (2002), Aziz, 2016), give the purposes of reading can be classified into seven sections: 1) Reading to search for simple information 2) Reading to skim quickly 3) Reading to learn from texts 4) Reading to integrate information 5) Reading to write (or search for information needed for writing) 6) Reading to critique texts 7) Reading for general comprehension In addition, The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study or PIRLS (2016) describes two purposes that account for most of the reading done by young students both in and out of school are: reading for literary experience and reading to acquire and use information. a. Reading for Literary Experience In literary reading, the reader engages with the text to get involved in imagined events, setting, actions, consequences, characters, atmosphere, feelings, and ideas, and to enjoy language itself. To understand and appreciate literature, the reader must bring to the text his or her own experiences, feelings, appreciation of language and knowledge of literary

forms. For young readers, literature offers the opportunity to explore situations and feelings they have not yet encountered. b. Reading to Acquire and Use Information In reading for information, the reader does not engage with imagined worlds, but with aspects of the real universe. Through informational texts, one can understand how the world is and has been, and why things work as they do. Readers can go beyond the acquisition of information and use it in reasoning and in action. Informational texts need not be read from beginning to end; readers may select the parts they need. Informational texts which are ordered chronologically present their ideas as a sequence ordered in time. Such texts may be recount events, for example as historical facts or as diary entries, personal accounts, or letters. Biographies and autobiographies, detailing the events of real lives, are a major group of texts of this type. From several explanations of reading purposes that has defined before, it can be conclude that reading has many purposes depending on what people need. However, the main purpose of reading can be divided into two categories. First, reading to obtain and gain the information from the text. It also can be reading for pleasure, which will entertain the readers.

Although comprehension takes place at several levels, mastery at any level is not a precondition to comprehension at another level. Furthermore, the reading skill for each level or strand cut across ages, they are applicable to young readers in primary school, secondary school students' right up to students at tertiary level. Teachers also need to keep in mind that the three levels are not different. Dividing comprehension into literal, inferential, and critical stand is only intended to guide teachers in preparing reading assessments.

## Methods

### Research Design

This study employed the experimental method. It specifically employed the pre-test posttest equivalent groups design with the following diagram:

	Pretest		Post Test
R	O <sub>1</sub>	X	O <sub>2</sub>
R	O <sub>3</sub>	C	O <sub>4</sub>

Where: R is the randomization of subjects to the experimental and control groups.

O<sub>1</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> are the pretests

X is the exposure of the pupils to the experimental treatment-predicting or TAP strategies

C is the exposure of the pupils to the traditional lecture method

O<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>4</sub> are the posttests

### **Subjects of the Study**

The eighteen (18) grade V pupils of Come and See Christian School Incorporated are the subjects of the study. They were the officially enrolled for school year 2018-2019. This study utilized simple random sampling, where the pupils were assigned at random to the experimental and control groups with 9 members each.

The researchers used the Philippine Informal Reading Inventory (PHIL-IRI) result for its equal distribution. Based on the results of the Phil-IRI, the pupils were classified as independent, instructional and frustration readers. Independent readers were those who acquired enough vocabularies that helped them read and comprehend a given text on their own. Instructional readers were those that comprehend a given text with the guidance of the teacher while those that fell under frustration level were the pupils who could hardly recognize words, have poor vocabularies and poor comprehension.

Two pupils were classified under independent and another two pupils were under the instructional level and the rest were all under the frustration level. The researcher used match randomization. The four matched pupils were assigned to the experiment and control groups in alphabetical order. Since the remaining 14 pupils were all under frustration level, the researcher assigned the first pupil to the experimental group and the second to the control group. The same procedure was followed to the next 12 pupils.

The two groups from this method were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. The concepts were taught to the experimental group using the prediction strategy and think-aloud protocol while the control group was taught the same set of concepts using the traditional lecture method. Time of day, length and other factors were relatively equated.

## Research Instruments

The Philippine Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) is a standardized test in English designed by the Department of Education to monitor the development of the reading comprehension progress of all elementary pupils both in the private and public sector all over the Philippines. In order to cluster the pupils with equal distribution, the researcher conducted the Phil IRI to the grade V pupils as the basis of their groupings.

Nine stories were utilized also in the testing where three of it namely: Robinson Crusoe; Camping to Mt. Batulao, Young Sea Divers were used for the predicting and traditional lecture strategies. Another 3 stories namely: Where is the Sun?; Bea and Carla at the Farm; Joey and His Friends were used for the think-aloud protocol versus traditional lecture method. Finally, the last 3 stories namely: Galileo, the Scientist, Magician Invents Special Effects and “Bulong” Whisper from the Philippine Informal Inventory 2012-2013 were utilized for the comparison of the predicting and think aloud protocol strategies. These nine stories were considered in this study because they were not lengthy and they were suitable to the age and grade level of the pupils.

A teacher-made test consisting of 10 items per story were analyzed for their assessment test. The stories: Robinson Crusoe has 10 items; Young Sea Divers has 10 items, Camping to Mt. Batulao has 10 items with a total of thirty items was used for the predicting and traditional lecture strategies whereas the stories: Where is the Sun? has 10 items; Bea and Carla at the Farm – 10 items; Joey and His Friends – 7 items with a total of 27 items were used for the think aloud protocol versus the traditional lecture method. The last 3 stories from the Phil Iri material from the Department of Education: Galileo, the Scientist has 8 items, Magician Invents Special Effects has 8 items and “Bulong” has 7 items with a total of 23 items. These stories were used for the predicting and think aloud protocol comparison. The items from the teacher-made test were validated by three experts, one from the said institution who majored in English and the two were almost to retire master teachers from the Department of Education- Elementary Department.

To determine the reliability of the test, the researchers applied the test-retest method using the Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient. It was administered to the grade V pupils of Come and See Christian School Inc. school year 2017-2018 with an interval of one week. The questions for the first achievement test to compare the

Traditional Lecture and Predicting Strategies are the following: Story 1 has a reliability of 0.75 (acceptable), story 2 has 0.76 (acceptable), story 3 has 0.84 (good reliability) and for the second achievement test to compare the Traditional Lecture and TAP are as follows: story 4 has .88 (good reliability), story 5 has .84 (good reliability) and story 6 has .79 (acceptable).

The first and third predicting and traditional lecture stories, “Robinson Crusoe” and “Young Sea Divers” were taken from the RBS English Series, S.M.A.R.T. 4 First Edition 2008 by Rex Publishing. The second story, “Camping to Mt. Batulao” was taken from Reading Links Work text: Reach Out Educational Resources (2004), Caloocan City, Philippines in coordination with the Department of Education, National Education Testing and Research Center and National Diagnostic Results SY 2003-2004. The fourth story, “Where’s the Sun?” for the think-aloud protocol and traditional lecture strategy was taken from the RBS English Series, S.M.A.R.T. 4 First Edition 2008. The fifth story, Bea and Carla at the Farm was taken from the same book including the sixth story, “Joey and his Friends”. The last three stories that were used for the predicting and think aloud protocol comparison were all taken from the Phil Iri material SY 2012-2013.

### **Data Gathering Procedure**

This study made use of 9 stories and achievement test. The nine stories were the following: (1) Robinson Crusoe Adventure, (2) Camping at Mt. Batulao, (3) Young Sea Divers, (4) Where’s the Sun? (5) Bea and Carla at the Farm, (6) Joey in Manila, (7) Galileo, the Scientist, (8) “Bulong” and (9) Philippine Musicality. Stories 1-3 were used to compare the Traditional Lecture Method and Predicting as a strategy with 30 items; stories 4-6 were used to compare the Traditional Lecture method versus Think Aloud Protocol with 27 items and lastly stories 7-9 were used to compare predicting strategy versus think aloud protocol with 23 items. The stories were taken from different books. “Robinson Crusoe” was gotten from Reading Links Work text: Reach Out Educational Resources (2004), Caloocan City, Philippines in coordination with the Department of Education, National Education Testing and Research Center and National Diagnostic Results SY 2003-2004, p. 61, the “Camping to Mt. Batulao” was taken from the same book pp.54-55 likewise with the “Young Sea Divers”, “Where’s the Sun?” pp 173-175,

The Bea and Carla at the Farm and Joey in Manila. Galileo, the Scientist, “Bulong” and the Magician and Special Effects gotten from the Philippines Informal Reading Inventory of the Department of Education (Phil-IRI), Bureau of Elementary Education, Pasig City, Manila, Philippines SY 2012-2013.

The achievement test consists of 30 items for the Traditional Lecture method versus Predicting Strategy, 27 items for stories 4-6 comparing the Traditional Lecture method and the Think Aloud Protocol finally 23 items for stories 7-9 comparing the predicting strategy and the Think Aloud Protocol. The reliability of the test are at least acceptable or good.

To determine the reading comprehension of the pupils, a teacher made test was constructed for stories 1-6 only since stories 7-9 were taken from a standardize material from the Department of Education.

In constructing the test, the researcher followed some steps: (1) preparing the 60 test questions wherein 10 questions were given for each story. Daily lessons plans were made to make sure that the objectives set for the day is being met (2) asking the expert judgment of the two master teachers of Lagawe Central School, Lagawe, Ifugao and it was proof read and edited by one of the teachers at Come and See Christian School Inc. who majored in English. The latter also checked the content, appropriateness and how the test was constructed, (3) trying out the test, the researcher tried out the constructed test questions to the grade V pupils of Camasi Elementary School but because of the very poor result and few numbers of pupils, the researcher conducted the test again to two more schools namely: Cumabao Integrated School and the Tumauni Methodist Christian School Inc.. (4) tabulating the scores and analyzing the items using a formula ( Appendix E), (5) making the necessary changes to improve the test questions and eliminating those questions that were difficult to be fixed, (6) producing the improved copy of the test questions, (7) conducting the test after the teacher had explained the story and then giving a re-test after 1 week to the grade V pupils of Come and See Christian School 2017-2018 in order to establish its reliability, (8) checking and recording of the test, (9) tabulating and analyzing the test items using a formula.

The control group took the first period in the morning from 7:30 – 8:30 from Monday to Friday for the whole month of July to the last week of September for school

year 2018-2019. The experimental group had their class at the second period from 8:30-9:30 in the morning. On the first day, the pupils took their pretests for 20 minutes and the rest of the hour was consumed for vocabulary enrichment. The second and third days were used for the reading comprehension exercises using the predicting strategy. The validated story is being tackled on the fourth day and the fifth day was the review and posttest.

Usually, a thought provoking image or picture was presented to the pupils followed by a motif question which was usually followed up by another 2-3 open ended questions that would trigger their background knowledge about the story they were about to read. Higher order thinking questions were prepared ahead to be asked during the discussion. The stories were not shown to the pupils blatantly. They have to start guessing from the title down to the statements or phrases that trigger their curiosity. The pupils were not allowed to proceed to the next event or scenario without confirming first if their guesses were right or incorrect. If it was incorrect, more probing questions were asked that led them to the correct answer. After the lesson, the pupils were given the chance to read the whole story again without interruption for them to check their predictions and grasp the entire scenario of the story. The posttest was given the following day but before that few pupils were asked by the teacher to recall the story by giving a short summary. One lesson normally took 3 (minimum) to 5 days maximum. Every lesson has different objectives and competencies to be developed thus other stories were introduced as their practices per lesson.

The think aloud protocol strategy was different. The teacher prepared pictures for the retelling and a video recording part. Since it was time consuming, the teacher used 2 other stories for the pupils to practice and after that the 3 stories with validated assessment tests were given one at a time without practices in between. Beforehand, the pupils had their vocabulary enrichment. The teacher put a sign board that says “keep talking” or “tell anything that you observe from the one shown in the power point usually a picture”. The pupils were allowed to express their thoughts in any language they were most comfortable with. When they almost said everything, the plain texts were shown for them to read and associate what they had seen earlier. The pupils did that repeatedly until they finally finished the whole story. They read the whole text again to confirm or check their

understanding. The nine pupils were asked to sequence the story using some pictures of events which were prepared by the teacher after that they retell the story. They did that one by one whereby in this case, the teacher consumed 2 hours and 30 minutes without break. After all the pupils did the sequencing and retelling activities, the pupils had their posttest.

### Statistical Analysis of Data

The Mann-Whitney U-test was used to determine if there is a significant difference between traditional lecture and think-aloud protocol, traditional lecture method and predicting, and predicting and TAP strategies at .05 level of significance.

The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to test the significance of change or improvement in the pupils' reading comprehension from pretest to posttest at .05 level of significance.

To describe the academic performance based on the reading comprehension development of the grade V pupils, the Department of Education Grading Scale with corresponding descriptors are given in the following table.

<b>Dep Ed Grading Scale</b>	
<b>TG Grading Scale</b>	<b>Descriptors</b>
90 - 100	Outstanding
85-90	Very Satisfactory
80 - 84	Satisfactory
75 -79	Fairly Satisfactory
74 below	Did Not meet Expectations

To interpret the reliability of the tests, the following intervals and descriptions were used:

Interval	Description
0.90 and above	Excellent
Between 0.80 and 0.90	Good Reliability
Between 0.70 and 0.80	Acceptable Reliability
Between 0.60 and .070	Questionable
Reliability	

Between 0.50 and 0.60

Poor Reliability

Less than 0.50

Unacceptable Reliability

## Results and Discussion

### Pupils Reading Comprehension in Traditional Lecture and Prediction Strategies

A descriptive comparison of pupils reading comprehension in traditional lecture and prediction strategy is shown in Table 1.1 According to the table, the reading comprehension of the pupils in the pretest are either fairly satisfactory or Did not Meet Expectation in both traditional lecture and prediction strategies ( $TG_1 = 75$ ,  $TG_2 = 73$ ,  $TG_3 = 70$ ) for the traditional lecture and ( $TG_1 = 76$ ,  $TG_2 = 75$ ,  $TG_3 = 68$ ) for the prediction strategy.

Table 1.1

*Descriptive Statistics of Pupils' Reading Comprehension in Traditional Lecture and Prediction Strategy (N=9)*

Strategy	Pretest					Posttest		
Traditional								
Lecture	Story	Items	Mean	TG	Description	Mean	TG	Description
	1	10	6.11	75	FS	8.22	88	VS
	2	10	5.22	73	DNME	5.78	74	DNME
	3	10	4.11	70	DNME	5.67	74	DNME
	Total	30	15.44	72	DNME	19.78	78	FS
Predicting								
	1	10	6.22	76	FS	6.78	79	FS
	2	10	6.00	75	FS	6.22	76	FS
	3	10	3.56	68	DNME	4.56	71	DNME
	Total	30	15.78	73	DNME	17.56	74	DNME

Note: DNME = did not meet expectation, FS = Fairly Satisfactory, VS = Very Satisfactory,

TG=Transmuted Grade

Their posttest mean scores in the reading comprehension of pupils range from Did not Meet Expectation to Very Satisfactory for the traditional lecture and from DnME to FS for the predicting strategy.

On the average, the reading comprehension in both strategies did not meet expectation as their overall mean scores in the pretest scores are almost the same ( $M_{TL} = 15.44$ ,  $M_P = 15.78$ ,  $TG_{TL} = 73$ ,  $TG_P = 74$ ) However, the reading comprehension of pupils in the posttest is fairly satisfactory ( $M_{TL} = 19.78$ ,  $TG_{TL} = 78$  and DnME in the predicting strategy ( $M_P = 17.56$ ,  $TG_P = 74$ ).

The Mann-Whitney U-test was conducted to compare the two strategies in terms of the pupils' scores in the reading comprehension test as shown in Table 1.2. The table reveals that there is no significant difference in the reading comprehension of pupils exposed to the traditional lecture and predicting strategies ( $U = 31$ ,  $U_{crit} = 17$ ,  $P\text{-value} = 0.436$ )

Table 1.2

*Difference in the Reading Comprehension of the Pupils Exposed to the Traditional Lecture and Predicting Strategies.*

Strategy	N	Rank	Rank	U-Stat		
U-crit		Ave.	Total			P-value
Trad.Lecture						
9		8.44	6	31	17	0.436
Predicting						
9		10.56	95			

Note: Ustat is the computed Mann-Whitney U value. Ucrit is the critical value of Mann-Whitney U-test. If  $U\text{-stat} > U_{crit}$ , then it is not significant.

## Pupils' Reading Comprehension in Traditional Lecture and Think-Aloud Protocol Strategies

The pupils reading comprehension in the traditional lecture and think - aloud protocol strategies were compared in terms of descriptive statistics as shown in Table 2.1 and in terms of inferential statistics as shown in Table 2.2.

The reading comprehension of the pupils exposed to traditional lecture strategy range from DnME, FS to S (TG<sub>4</sub> = 74, TG<sub>5</sub> = 82, TG<sub>6</sub> = 74) but for the think aloud protocol their reading comprehension range from FS, S to Outstanding (TG<sub>4</sub>=75, TG<sub>5</sub>= 91, TG<sub>6</sub>=75).

Table 2.1

*Descriptive Statistics of Pupils' Reading Comprehension in Traditional Lecture and Think Aloud Protocol Strategies.*

Strategy		Pretest						Posttest	
Trad.								Descriptio	
Lecture	Story	Items	Mean	TG	Description	Mean	TG	n	
	4	10	5.78	74	DNME	6.56	78	FS	
	5	10	7.22	82	S	7.67	85	VS	
	6	7	4.11	74	DNME	5.22	84	S	
	Total	27	17.11	77	FS	19.44	82	S	
Think-									
Aloud	4	10	6.11	75	FS	7.00	81	S	
Protocol	5	10	8.56	91	O	7.67	85	VS	
	6	7	4.22	75	FS	5.22	84	S	
	Total	27	18.89	81	S	19.89	83	S	

Note: DNME=did not meet expectation, S=satisfactory, FS=Fairly satisfactory, VS= very satisfactory, O=outstanding

On the other hand, the posttest results reveals that the reading comprehension of pupils in the traditional lecture strategy range from FS, S to very Satisfactory (TG<sub>4</sub>= 78,

TG<sub>5</sub>=85, TG<sub>6</sub> = 84). The posttest scores in the TAP shows that the reading comprehension of pupils are either Satisfactory or Very Satisfactory (TG<sub>4</sub> = 81, TG<sub>5</sub> = 85, TG<sub>6</sub> = 84).

The overall mean pretest score of the pupils in the traditional lecture strategy implies that they have FS reading comprehension ( $M_{TL} = 17.11$ ) but in the TAP, the reading comprehension is Satisfactory ( $M_T = 18.89$ ). With regard to their posttest score in the said strategies, their overall mean scores are both Satisfactory ( $M_{TL} = 19.44$ ,  $M_{TAP} = 19.89$ ).

The Mann Whitney U-test was conducted to compare the traditional lecture and TAP strategies in terms of the reading comprehension of the pupils as shown in Table 2.2. The computed value of the test statistics is not significant at .05 level ( $U = 40$ ,  $U_{crit} = 17$ ,  $P=0.931$ ). It can be said therefore that the reading comprehension of the pupils exposed to the traditional lecture and think aloud protocol strategies are not significantly different.

Table 2.2

*Difference in the Reading Comprehension of the Pupils Exposed to Traditional Lecture and Think Aloud protocol Strategies.*

Strategy	N	Rank Ave.	Rank Total	Ustat	Ucrit	P-value
Traditional Lecture	9	9.56	86	40	17	
Think Aloud Protocol	9	9.44	85			0.931

Note: Ustat is the computed Mann-Whitney U test. Ucrit is the critical value of Mann Whitney U-test. If U-stat > Ucrit, then it is not significant.

### Pupils Reading Comprehension in Predicting and Think Aloud protocol Strategies

The reading comprehension of pupils in the predicting and TAP strategies were compared using descriptive statistics as shown in Table 3.1 and inferential statistics as shown in Table 3.2.

As presented in Table 3.1, the reading comprehension of the pupils consistently did not meet expectation. In the pretest ( $TG_7 = 74$ ,  $TG_8 = 67$ ,  $TG_9 = 68$ ), likewise in the TAP pretest ( $TG_7 = 73$ ,  $TG_8 = 66$ ,  $TG_9 = 68$ ). On the other hand, the posttest results shows slightly higher reading comprehension in story 7 (Galileo, the Scientist) but all other stories did not meet expectation, that is in predicting strategy ( $TG_7 = 83$ ) and in TAP ( $M_7 = 76$ ).

Generally, the reading comprehension of pupils consistently did not meet expectation in the pretest for the prediction strategy and TAP ( $M_P = 9.22$ ,  $M_{TAP} = 8.56$ ) the same is through to the posttest mean score wherein the pupils did not meet expectation for both the prediction and TAP strategies ( $M_P = 12.78$ ,  $M_{TAP} = 10.22$ ).

Table 3.1  
*Descriptive Statistics of Pupils' Reading Comprehension in Predicting and Think Aloud Protocol Strategies.*

Strategy		Pretest			Posttest			
Predicting	Story	Items	Mean	TG	Description	Mean	TG	Description
	7	7	4.00	74	DNME	5.11	83	S
	8	8	2.44	67	DNME	3.22	70	DNME
	9	8	2.78	68	DNME	4.44	73	DNME
	Total	23	9.22	70	DNME	12.78	73	DNME
<hr/>								
Think- Aloud								
Prot	7	7	3.89	73	DNME	4.33	76	FS
	8	8	2.00	66	DNME	1.89	65	DNME

9	8	2.67	68	DNME	4.00	72	DNME
Total	23	8.56	69	DNME	10.22	71	DNME

Note: DNME=did not meet expectation, S=satisfactory, FS=Fairly satisfactory

The difference in the reading comprehension of the pupils exposed to predicting and TAP strategies was determined using the Mann Whitney U-test as shown in Table 3.2. The table reveals that there is no significant difference in the reading comprehension of the pupils at .05 level of significance (U=26, Ucrit=17).

Table 3.2

*Difference in the Reading Comprehension of the Pupils Exposed to Predicting and Think Aloud Protocol Strategies.*

Strategy	N	Rank	Rank	Ustat.	Ucrit	P-value
		Ave.	Total			
Predicting	9	11.11	100	26	17	0.161
Think-aloud Protocol	9	7.89	71			

Note: Ustat Is the computed Mann-Whitney U value. Ucrit is the critical value of Mann-Whitney U-test. If U-stat > Ucrit, then it is not significant

### Reading Comprehension Development

The reading comprehension development among pupils in this study was measured by getting the difference between their pretest and posttest scores. Table 4 shows the summary of descriptive and inferential statistics for this purpose.

Table 4

*Summary of Wilcoxon-Signed Ranks Test Statistics for the Test of Significance of Improvement of Pupils' Reading Comprehension from Pretest to Posttest*

Teaching	Mean		Wilcoxon	Critical	Decision
Strategy	Pretest	Posttest	(T)	( T*)	
			246		

---

Traditional Lecture Improvement	15.44	19.78	0	8	Reject H <sub>0</sub>	Significant
Predicting Improvement	15.78	17.56	2	3	Reject H <sub>0</sub>	Significant

---

Traditional Lecture Significant Improvement	17.11	19.44	0	2	Reject H <sub>0</sub>	
TAP Significant	18.89	19.89	12	5	Accept H <sub>0</sub>	Not Significant

---

Predicting Significant Improvement	9.22	12.78	1.5	8	Reject H <sub>0</sub>	
TAP Significant	8.56	10.52	9.5	8	Accept H <sub>0</sub>	Not Significant

---

Note: If  $T < T^*$ , then reject  $H_0$   $\alpha=0.05$ .

By mere inspection, it can be seen in Table 4 that there is a consistent increase in the pupils' mean scores from pretest to posttest. For the traditional lecture method, the means increased (15.44 to 19.78, and 17.11 to 19.44) and for the predicting strategy, it also increased (15.78 to 17.56 and 9.22 to 12.78). The TAP strategy also showed increase in pupils' mean scores (18.89 to 19.89 and 8.56 to 10.52).

To test the significance of the improvement in their reading comprehension, the Wilcoxon signed ranks test was used. As presented in Table 4, the improvements that took place among pupils in their reading comprehension are significant in the traditional

lecture strategy ( $T=0$ ,  $T^*=8$  and  $T=0$ ,  $T^*=2$ ), likewise in the predicting strategy ( $T=2$ ,  $T^*=3$  and  $T=1.5$ ,  $T^*=8$ ). Hence, the hypothesis that there is no difference in the pretest and posttest mean scores of the pupils under the traditional lecture and predicting strategies is rejected. This means that there is a significant increase or improvement in the reading comprehension of the pupils under said strategies. This is confirmed by Oktaviana in his research (2013) cited in Chairul Iqbal Aziz (2016), Chairul Aziz (2016) and Solong (2010) who claimed that prediction strategy can improve students' ability in reading comprehension.

On the other hand, the TAP strategy showed increase in the pupils' scores from the pretest to posttest, but this increase does not warrant a significant improvement in their reading comprehension ( $T=12$ ,  $T^*=5$  and  $T=9.5$ ,  $T^*=8$ ). There is not enough evidence to claim that the TAP strategy significantly improved the reading comprehension of the pupils at 0.05 level of significance.

Interestingly, a similar finding was made. According to the study of Regina G. McKeown and James L. Gentilucci (2007) the Think-Aloud Strategy did not help improve the English learners 'comprehension of expository text; individual scores were nearly identical on pre- and posttests think-aloud strategy while in the Intermediate students (Level 3), it was found out that there was a difference in pre- and posttest means but was not statistically significant however, the data suggest measurable growth in students 'reading comprehension between pre- and posttests. Furthermore, on the Early Advanced students (Level 4), the think-aloud strategy actually hindered reading comprehension based from the Pre- and posttest findings. This suggests that these readers already possess metacognitive skills developed in their second language—they did not need to make metacognition through the use of think-aloud to increase comprehension.

## **Conclusion**

Based on the findings that they are equally effective, the predicting and think-aloud strategies and the traditional lecture method can all be used to complement other strategies to deviate from the monotony of teaching learning activities in the classroom. The traditional lecture method can be used when the scope to be covered for a limited period of time is huge especially in Social Studies, Literature and Grammar. The

predicting strategy is a good strategy to develop critical/analytical thinking and higher order thinking skills with appropriate materials to be utilized. . In the think-aloud protocol, the result demonstrated that the factors contributed to pupils' proficiency are successful verbal guessing and appropriateness of materials; resources that do not require heavy cognitive processes nor promote automaticity.

### **Pedagogical Implication**

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, classroom teachers should use differentiated instructions in contextualizing difficult concepts considering the comprehension level of the learners, their social standing and environment. Teachers should provide more opportunities for actual reading with well-chosen materials appropriate to the level of the learners and must be trained the rudiments of predicting and think-aloud protocol processes among other strategies for efficient and effective implementation.

### **References**

- Alexander, J.E (1999). *Improving Reading Speed*. New York: Scottforesman.
- Alqahtani, M. A. (2015). *The effects of think aloud strategy to improve reading comprehension of 6<sup>th</sup> grade students in Saudi Arabia* (Master's thesis, State University of New York, Fredonia, New York). Retrieved from [https://dspace.sunyconnect.suny.edu/bitstream/handle/1951/66593/Alqahtani\\_Mona\\_Ali\\_MastersThesis\\_Fall2015.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y](https://dspace.sunyconnect.suny.edu/bitstream/handle/1951/66593/Alqahtani_Mona_Ali_MastersThesis_Fall2015.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y).
- Aziz, C (2016). *Using prediction strategy to improve students' ability in reading comprehension* (Doctoral thesis, Ar-Raniry State Islamic University, Darussalam, Banda Aceh). Retrieved from <https://repository.ar-raniry.ac.id/2602/1/Chairul%20Iqbal%20AZ.pdf>
- Baumann, J., Jones, L., & Kessell, N. (1993). *Using prediction strategy to improve students' ability in reading comprehension* (Doctoral thesis, Ar-Raniry State Islamic University, Darussalam, Banda Aceh). Retrieved from <https://repository.ar-raniry.ac.id/2602/1/Chairul%20Iqbal%20AZ.pdf>

- Bourbia, R. (2010). Prediction as a reading strategy and its use by third year students of English (Master's thesis, University of Constantine, *Algeria*, 184-193). Retrieved from <https://repository.ar-raniry.ac.id/2602/1/Chairul%20Iqbal%20AZ.pdf>
- Dorl, J. (2007). Think aloud: Increase your teaching power, young children, 62(4), 101-105. Retrieved from <http://files.ourcolorfulcreation.webnode.com4112541947/Think%20Aloud%20Strategy%20Middle%20School%20ESL.pdf>
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2002). A strategic approach to teaching reading (e-book). National Institute of Education, Singapore, REACT, 2002(2), 133-140. Retrieved from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/e012/da52e17ecbb44ca1ca9f15d6c79e9731eaad.pdf>
- Gaither, J. F. (2011). Making prediction: A strategy for reading and science learning. Retrieved from: <https://beyondweather.ehe.osu.edu/issue/the-sun-and-earthclimate/making-predictions-a-strategy-for-reading-and-science-learning>.
- Ghaith, G & Obeid, H. (2004). Effects of think aloud on literal and high order reading comprehension. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 27(3), 49-57. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ792862.pdf>
- Gregory, A., & Cahill, M. (2010). Kindergartners can do it too: *Comprehension strategies for early readers*. *The reading teacher*, 63(6), 515-520. Retrieved from [https://www.jstor.org/stable/25615842?seq=1#page\\_scan\\_tab\\_contents](https://www.jstor.org/stable/25615842?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents)
- Guisenger, N. (2011). Reading strategy instruction and teacher change: Implication for teaching training. *South African Journal of Education*, University of South Africa, 191-193. Retrieved from <https://www.ajol.info/index.php/saje/article/view/76601/67050>
- Harvey, S. (2001). Questioning the text. Stenhouse, Denver, Colorado, 1-2. <https://www.scholastic.com/teachers/articles/teaching-content/questioning-text/>
- Mann Whitney U-test and Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. Retrieved from <https://explorable.com/test.retest.reliability>.
- Macadangang, M.D. (2019). Problem Solving Proficiency and Reading Comprehension Skills of College Students and Selected correlates, *Asian EFL Journal*, 23(3.3), 52.79.

- McKeachie, W.J. et al. (Wadsworth, 2006) *The joy of teaching*. University of North Carolina Press. Retrieved from <http://www.ohsu.edu/xd/education/teaching-and-learning-center/for-faculty/lecture-strategies.cfm>.
- McKeown, R., & Gentilucci, J. (2007). *Think-aloud strategy: Meta cognitive development and monitoring comprehension in the middle school second-language classroom*. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 51(1). Retrieved from [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/240773219\\_Think\\_Aloud\\_Strategy\\_Metacognitive\\_Development\\_and\\_Monitoring\\_Comprehension\\_in\\_the\\_Middle\\_School\\_Second-Language\\_Classroom](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/240773219_Think_Aloud_Strategy_Metacognitive_Development_and_Monitoring_Comprehension_in_the_Middle_School_Second-Language_Classroom)
- Migyanka, J., Policastro, C., & Lui, G. (2005). *The effects of think aloud strategy to improve reading comprehension of 6<sup>th</sup> grade students in Saudi Arabia* (Masteral thesis, State University of New York, Fredonia, New York). Retrieved from [https://dspace.sunyconnect.suny.edu/bitstream/handle/1951/66593/Alqahtani\\_Mona\\_Ali\\_MastersThesis\\_Fall2015.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y](https://dspace.sunyconnect.suny.edu/bitstream/handle/1951/66593/Alqahtani_Mona_Ali_MastersThesis_Fall2015.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y).
- Moreillon, J. (2007). Collaborative strategies for teaching reading comprehension (e-book). American Library Association, Chicago, 13-14. Retrieved from [https://books.google.com.ph/books?hl=en&lr=&id=VXnzdJxLp0YC&oi=fnd&pg=PR7&dq=Moreillon,+J.+\(2007\).+Collaborative+Strategies+for+teaching+reading+comprehension&ots=E1jfTAEwtK&sig=JctNL4Y1XQ8\\_Cp0m7PruMFax8pQ&redir\\_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Moreillon%2C%20J.%20\(2007\).%20Collaborative%20Strategies%20for%20teaching%20reading%20comprehension&f=false](https://books.google.com.ph/books?hl=en&lr=&id=VXnzdJxLp0YC&oi=fnd&pg=PR7&dq=Moreillon,+J.+(2007).+Collaborative+Strategies+for+teaching+reading+comprehension&ots=E1jfTAEwtK&sig=JctNL4Y1XQ8_Cp0m7PruMFax8pQ&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Moreillon%2C%20J.%20(2007).%20Collaborative%20Strategies%20for%20teaching%20reading%20comprehension&f=false)
- Pang, E. S., Muaka, A., Bernhardt, E. B., & Kami, M. L. (2003). *Teaching Reading*. The International Academy of Education, IBE, Publication Unit, Geneva, Switzerland. Retrieved from [http://www.ibe.unesco.org/sites/default/files/resources/edu-practices\\_12\\_eng.pdf](http://www.ibe.unesco.org/sites/default/files/resources/edu-practices_12_eng.pdf)
- Smith, D. (2002). Reading to remember: Studies of metacognitive reading skills in elementary school-aged children, *Journal of Educational Research*, University of Illinois, Chicago, 75(3), 157-164. Retrieved from [https://www.jstor.org/stable/27539885?seq=1#page\\_scan\\_tab\\_contents](https://www.jstor.org/stable/27539885?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents).

- Sing, S. (2019). Developing Reading Comprehension Through Metacognitive Strategy Learning. *Asian EFL Journal*, 23(3.3), 264-277.
- Snow, C. (2002). Prediction strategy to improve students' ability in reading comprehension (Doctoral Thesis, Ar-Raniry State Islamic University, Darussalam, Banda Aceh, 9). Retrieved from: <https://repository.ar-raniry.ac.id/2602/1/Chairul%20Iqbal%20AZ.pdf>
- Solong, (2010). Improving the students' reading comprehension through predicting strategy at the second year of Mts. Aisyiah Sungguminasa Gowa (Undergraduate Thesis, University of Islam Negeri, Alauddin, Makassar). Retrieved from <http://repositori.uin-alauddin.ac.id/4440/1/A.%20Suciarti%20Ak.%20Solong.pdf>.
- Takallou, F. (2011). The effect of Metacognitive Strategy Instruction on EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Performance and Metacognitive Strategy Awareness. *Asian EFL*, 13(1), 275-320.
- Tankersley, K. (2003). Using prediction strategy to improve students' ability in reading comprehension (Doctoral Thesis, Ar-Raniry State Islamic University, Darussalam, Banda Aceh, 10). Retrieved from: <https://repository.ar-raniry.ac.id/2602/1/Chairul%20Iqbal%20AZ.pdf>
- Tovani, C. (2004). Using prediction strategy to improve students' ability in reading comprehension (Doctoral Thesis, Ar-Raniry State Islamic University, Darussalam, Banda Aceh). Retrieved from: <https://repository.ar-raniry.ac.id/2602/1/Chairul%20Iqbal%20AZ.pdf>
- Wongs, H. & Wong, R. (2009). The first days of school: *How to be an effective teacher (e-book)*. Mountain View, Author, 1-98. Retrieved from <https://kaylakaras.weebly.com/uploads/5/2/9/5/5295275/honors.pdf>



## **Managing Respect among English Students in Social Media Conversations (Whatsapp Chats) through Polite Expressions**

**Murni Mahmud**

*Universitas Negeri Makassar*

*[murnimahmud@unm.ac.id](mailto:murnimahmud@unm.ac.id)*

### **Bio-profile:**

**Murni Mahmud** is a lecturer of Anthrop linguistics and Discourse Analysis at English Literature Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. She graduated from Undergraduate of IKIP Ujung Pandang, Magister of American Studies of Gadjah Mada University, and Doctoral Program of the Australian National University. Her research interests are in Anthrop linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Gender Studies, and TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language). She can be reached via email [murnimahmud@unm.ac.id](mailto:murnimahmud@unm.ac.id).

### **Abstract**

This paper explores the expressions employed by English students in managing their respect in their conversation in social media, in this case the WhatsApp chats. This paper was based on the descriptive-qualitative study conducted at Universitas Negeri Makassar in 2018. The subject of this research is the English students of the Graduate Program of Universitas Negeri Makassar. To collect data, the chats of the English students in WhatsApp when communicating to each other were collected and transcribed. Politeness strategies of the English students were explored and discussed in relation to the “face-saving view” of Brown and Levinson (1987). Findings show that English students applied several strategies in expressing politeness in the ways they were asking questions, requesting, and refusing. The strategies can be seen in the forms of greetings, thanks, apologies, some identity markers, such as the use of address terms and some terms

from the students' regional language. In addition, the students applied humor and small talk as the ways to be polite. Those strategies were used each other to support their politeness expressions in order to create good conversations. Findings from this study become a reference for study of politeness in a different context of speech situation. This study shows that although English students were subject to high technology of online communication, some strategies to show respect are still applied for the sake of good interaction and mutual understanding.

**Keywords:** *polite expressions, politeness, politeness strategies, WhatsApp chats, social media*

## **Introduction**

For over decades, politeness had attracted the attention of many scholars especially in the field of sociolinguistics and anthropolinguistics. A number of studies have dealt with politeness in different settings of communication (Nor & Aziz, 2010; Senowarsito, 2010; Izadi, 2013; Zander, 2013; Maros & Rosli, 2017; Fenclova & Horova, 2017; Sukarno, 2018; Jazeri, Sukarsono, & Susanto, 2020).). These politeness studies confirmed that politeness is needed as a strategy to build good communication and to create effective interaction.

Early researchers had noticed the important roles of politeness in communication. Lakoff (1976, p. 64) interprets politeness as “forms of behaviour which have been developed in societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction”. Holmes (1995, pp. 4-5) describes politeness as “behaviour which is somewhat formal and distancing, where the intention is not to intrude or impose”. According to her, “being polite means expressing respect towards the person you are talking to and avoiding offending them”. Sifianou (1992, p. 82) also tries to see politeness as a means of “restraining feelings and emotions in order to avoid conflict” and more as “a means of expressing them”. Whereas according to Yule (1996), politeness is a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction in human interaction by minimizing potential conflict. In other words, politeness helps to avoid conflict which may possibly happens in daily life,

especially in communication. Politeness in fact is one of social phenomenon that plays important roles in human interaction.

Due to high advances in the use of online communication, discussion of language use in online communication then also becomes an interest of scholars. Locher (2010) argues that online communication tends to develop its own set of communicative norms and practices due to factors such as the merging of public/private audiences and the multimodal capabilities of digital media, and as digitally mediated communication has increased and evolved, the ways that we navigate the expectations of (im)politeness and interpret others' behavior in digital contexts has increasing importance in our digital world. A study by Stapa and Shaari (2012) had noticed that there are some features of language use in online communication such as the use of spelling innovations and modifications, combinations of letter and number homophone, reduction or omission of vowels, replacement of <s> with <z>, the use of one letter to represent a word, the use of playful jargons, the use of acronyms and abbreviations and the use of emoticons. Idris and Ghani (2012) in their study show that Facebook postings encourage active participation, interaction and construction of knowledge. These facts show that the ways people communicate in online communication with their own features may bring effects on the function of communication.

Some studies were conducted to see the politeness expressions as one communication strategy in online communication. A study was conducted by Zena, Maros, & Nor (2012) who studied the politeness used by Arab students in their e-mails and found that politeness strategies help Arab students to avoid misunderstanding and misinterpretation in their communication of their emails. In addition, Maros & Rosli (2017) proved that politeness strategies have crucial functions on the ways students communicate in social media (twitters). These studies show that politeness as one strategy of communication is also needed in online communication.

One of the advances of technology in online communication can be seen in terms of the use of social media network, in which one of them is the use of WhatsApp. This application is so popular among students, especially because they need to communicate freely and easily for their needs in campus and in their daily life. It is interesting to see

how the students communicate using WhatsApp in their daily life and to depict the ways they manage their respect in their conversations.

For that purpose, the study in this paper addresses the strategies of the students, in this case the English students in communication, especially in the way they manage their respect to each other. It is the goal of this paper to explore the ways that the context of social media influences and reflects the ways that politeness as a pragmatic device is conceptualized, negotiated and enacted in digital interaction. Findings from this study become a reference for study of politeness in a different context of speech situation. As a part of character building, the study of politeness, especially among English students is needed to still maintain their polite behavior among the high advances of technology.

## **Methods**

The study applied descriptive qualitative design. According to Gay, Mills & Airasian (2006), the qualitative method deals with the collection, analysis and interpretation of comprehensive, narrative and visual data in order to gain insight into a particular phenomenon of interest. In this research, the qualitative design was employed by the researcher to explore the strategies applied by the students in expressing politeness in their WhatsApp chats.

This study was conducted among the English students of the Graduate program of the State University of Makassar in 2017. To collect data, chats in WhatsApp by the students in some groups were collected and transcribed. The data were collected by screen shooting and capturing the pictures of certain chats that meet the criteria for the study. In this study, the collected chats were transcribed into text and the texts were then analysed using a discourse analysis approach.

The collected data were then transcribed and analyzed based on the politeness strategies framework proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). There are seventy five extracts resulted from the screenshots of the WhatsApp chats among English students. The transcribed extracts were then selected based on the purpose of this study, that is the strategies for expressing politeness. Fifteen extracts were chosen as representatives of the data that show politeness expressions. Those extracts were then interpreted, elaborated for analysis, and reported. The data analysis applied the techniques of Discourse Analysis,

which consist of data collection, data, selection, data transcription, and data interpretation (Wood & Kroger, 2000). These WhatsApp chats provided the explorations of language uses in a particular context, which may bring significant contribution to the process of analyzing the meaning and context as usually examined in doing discourse analysis.

## Results

This part presents the WhatsApp chats among the students that employ some strategies of politeness. Some of the extracts can be seen in the following examples with MS as a message sender and MR as a message receiver:

### Asking Questions

#### *Extract 1*

MS: *Assalamualaikum, Miss Hen, jam berapa ke kampus?*

*“Peace be upon you, Miss Hen, What time are you going to the campus?”*

MR: *Walaikumsalam Miss*

*“Peace be upon you, Miss”*

In this chat, MS asked a question to MR. In order to be indirect, MS applied Islamic greeting “*Assalamualaikum*” (peace be upon you) and an address term “*Miss Hen*” to minimize the impoliteness due to the direct question asked by MS. It can be seen that greeting and address term were applied in the same time in the beginning of the chats among the students. Another example can be seen in the following extract:

#### *Extract 2*

MS: *Assalamu Alaikum Kak. Saya Hilda. Afwan mengganggu. Sudah ada MC nya Kak. Kpn bisa latihannya Kak ?*

*“Peace be upon you, Older Sister. I am Hilda. I am sorry [I] disturbed [you]. [we] have already got the MC [master of ceremony]. When can we have the training, Older Sister?”*

MR: *Walaikumsalam. Kpn acara ta dek?*

*“Peace be upon you too. When is the activity, Younger Sister?”*

MS: *Insy Allah tgl 25 Kak*

*“Hopefully, God permits, on 25<sup>th</sup>, Older Sister”*

In the dialogue above, MS used the Islamic greeting to open the dialogue, *“Assalamualaikum”* (Peace be upon you). After that MS introduced herself *“Saya Hilda”* (I am Hilda) and apologized by saying *“Afwan mengganggu”* (I am sorry [I] disturbed [you]). She also explained what she has done by saying *“sudah ada MC nya Kak”* ([we] have already got the MC [master of ceremony]). After that, she asked the receiver’s time *“Kpn bisa latihannya Kak?”* (When can we have the training, Older Sister?). In this dialogue, it can be seen that the speaker, MS, applied many kinds of polite strategies in the chats. As younger speaker, she applied address term *“Kak”* (Older Sister). She also applied Islamic greeting to begin the chat. Before coming to the intention of the chat, she also apologized and introduced her name. These strategies were all employed by the speaker MS to be polite in her chat. Conversely, MR applied polite strategies too. She responded the greeting by saying *“Walaikumsalam”* (Peace be upon you too). Next she answer the question by asking more question *“Kpn acara ta, Dek?”* (When is your activity, Younger Sister?). This question showed that MR paid attention to MS’s question. She also applied Bugis polite pronoun *“ta”* (we inclusive) instead of *“mu”* (you) to address MS. Also, it can be seen that MR applied intimate address term *“Dek”* (Younger Sister). Therefore, in this chat, it can be seen that both speakers were trying to apply polite strategies in asking and answering the question by applying greeting, apologizing, and using polite address and intimate address terms.

### *Extract 3*

MS: *Halo, assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh. Malam kak, mau nanya nih,, bagaimana kesiapan kakak untuk mengikuti kegiatan kerelawanan TIMIP Hamada??? Mau ikut andil atau bagaimana??” (disertakan dengan emotikon senyum lebar)*

*“Hello, Peace be upon you, Good evening, Older Sister. I want to ask, how is your readiness to join the voluntary program of MIMIP Hamada ?[a kind of social organization] do you want to join or not (big smiley emoticon)*

*(no answer)*

*The next day*

*MS: Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh. Halo kak, mohon maaf yah, sebaiknya kakak aktif memberikan masukan di grup agar tempo dan jalinan emosionalnya bisa terhubung. Kalau sekedar silent reader, insya allah saya akan bersikap sedikit tegas. (disertakan dengan emotikon senyum lebar)*

*“Peace be upon you. Hello, Older Sister, I am really sorry. I suggest you to actively give suggestion in the group so the emotional relation can be connected. If you just become a silent reader, I will be strict”*

In the above chat, face threatening acts were potentially done by MS to MR. It can be seen that MR never took a part in the conversation in the group. MR just became a silent reader and therefore all of the members in the group including MS did not know whether MR wanted to participate or not. To begin the conversation, MS greeted by saying “Halo” (Hello), followed by Islamic greeting, “Assalamualaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh” (peace be upon you). To be more polite, MS also used another kind of greeting by saying “Malam, Kak” (Good evening, Older Sister). This greeting was more softened by applying address term “Kak” (Older Sister) in order to respect the seniority of MR. All of these expressions softened the direct question of MS, “*bagaimana kesiapan kakak untuk mengikuti kegiatan kerelawanan TIMIP Hamada??? Mau ikut andil atau bagaimana???*” (How is your readiness to join the voluntary program of MIMIP Hamada? do you want to join or not). The smiley emoticon was expressed. However, MR did not respond. In the following day, MS messaged MR again. After the greetings, MS apologized and gave strict warning to MR by saying “*sebaiknya kakak aktif memberikan masukan di grup agar tempo dan jalinan emosionalnya bisa terhubung. Kalau sekedar silent reader, insya allah saya akan bersikap sedikit tegas*” (I suggest you to actively give suggestion in the group so the emotional relation can be connected. If you just become a silent reader, I will be strict). Here it can be seen that there are some strategies applied

by the speakers in the chat to be polite such as greetings, intimate address terms, and apologies. The smiley emoticon was also helpful in reducing the impolite situation in the chat.

*Extract 4*

MS: *Afwan, itu tugas 2 chapter sj toh kak. Baru sy kerja ini malam/  
(Pardon me, the Discourse is only 2 chapters [[to work out]]. I'm just working it out tonight)*

MR: *Tugas apa lagi ?  
(What assignment is it again?)*

MS: *itu tugas final kayaknya kak.  
(It is final assingment, maybe.kak)*

MR: *Ouwhhh hehhhe iyyek. Intinya review literature.  
(Oh hehe Yes. The point is just review literature).*

In the extract above, MS asked a confirmation to MR about the next assignment they must do in their class. He started by saying an islamic apology “Afwan” (I am sorry) since he just started to do it in the night before the class. Getting the question in the chat, MR responded by asking a question too “Tugas apa lagi” (What assignment is it again?). This question was expressed by MR since they have already got too much assignment in that class. MS realized the annoyed situation seen from MR’s answer and tried to calm down by saying, “*itu tugas final kayaknya, Kak* (It is final assignment, maybe, Older Brother). MR confirmed by saying “*Oh Iyek...*” (Oh yes) while laughing. The word “*Iyek*” (Yes) is a very polite expression in Bugis culture. In this extract, the chat between MS and MR created a polite situation using apologies, address terms, and a little joke to minimize the strict situation due to the assignment they must submit to the class.

*Extract 5*

MS: *dimana ki? Bemana m tugas tefl ta  
“where are we [you]? How is you TEFL assignment?”*

MR: *tugas kelompok? sedikit mami, ada m sy buat setengah.. jdi p nant ku kirimkn ki nh qt mo print i ka ada j print ta*

*“Group assignment? Almost finish. I have already done a part of it. So later I will send it or do you want me to print it for you?”*

MS: *ok.ok*

*“Okey, Okey”*

In the above extract, MS asked a question to MR about their assignment in the class. That question actually asked about the readiness of MR to finish the assignment that had been assigned to him. MR responded well that he had finished almost and indeed he offered to send it to him or to print it for him. In this extract, it can be seen that MS applied polite ways in asking his question “*dimana ki? Bemana m tugas tefl ta* (where are you? How is your TEFL assignment?). The use of “*ki*” (we inclusive) in “*dimanaki*” (Where are we [you]?) and the use of “*ta*” (our) in “*Tefl ta*” (our Tefl [your Tefl]) are indicators of polite expressions. The use of “*ki*” (we inclusive) and “*ta*” (we possessive inclusive) is a polite pronoun used by Bugis-Makassar people to address people. Instead of saying “*ko*” (you) and “*mu*” (your) which are less polite, MS address a question using those polite pronouns which made his questions more polite.

## Requesting

### Extract 6

MS: *Asslm [Assalamualaikum]*

*“peace be upon you”*

MR: *Waalikumsalam, Ma’am*

*“Peace be upon you too”*

MS: *Bisa minta tolong di fotokan atau di videokan Zaky? Terima kasih sebelumnya.*

*“can I ask for help to take pictures or videos for Zaky? Thanks in advance”*

MS: *Iye Ma’am*

*“yes, Ma’am”*

In the conversation above, MS requested to MR by saying “*Bisa minta tolong di fotokan atau di videokan Zaky?*” (can I ask for help to take pictures or videos for Zaky?). In order to reduce the threat due to that request, MS used greeting in the beginning. After MR replied, MS stated that request and to be polite again, MS expressed thanks by saying, “*Terima kasih sebelumnya*” (thanks in advance}. It can be seen here that greeting and thanks were applied to create the good atmosphere of chats especially when doing requests to the message receivers.

#### *Extract 7*

*MS: Assalamualaikum. Maaf, Kak mengganggu. Untuk kelancaran baksos kita bersama, kami panitia agar segera melunasi pemesanan baju/totebag/tumbler. Mohon konfirmasi jika sudah pembayaran baju, Kak.” Tabe, ini noreknya, Kak.*  
*“Peace be upon you. I am sorry, Older Sister, [I] disturbed [you]. To run the activity together, we from the committee [asked you] to immediately pay the order of clothes, bags, tumblers. Please confirm if [you] have already paid, Older Sister. Excuse me, this is the account name”*

*MR: [mentioning the name and the account]*

*MS: Terima Kasih, Kak (smiley emoticon)*

*“Thank You, Older Sister (smiley emoticon)*

In the extract above, MS wanted to ask MR to pay for the stuff had been taken by MR. This request was very threatening since MR owed to MS. However, in the chat, MS applied some strategies to be polite. First she greeted and apologized. Also she used intimate address term “*Kak*” (Older Sister), showing her respect to the interlocutor. She also used the word “*Mohon*” (please) to minimize the request. At the end, before giving the account number to be paid, she used the apologetic term of “*Taba*” (Excuse me) which is derived from Bugis-Makassar language. After getting the response from MR, she ended by saying “*Terima Kasih, Kak*” (Thank you, Older Sister), followed by smiley emoticon. It can be seen here that the utterances of MS show a positive face from the speaker/sender of the message (young member) to the hearer/receiver (older member) with the use of

polite expressions. The threat due to the request could be minimized by those kinds of polite expressions.

*Extract 8*

MS: *moka lg mintol. Bisako edit fotokah kasi latar merah i*

*“I want to ask for help. Can you edit the photos by giving red background?”*

MR: *hehe (laughing)*

MS: *tpi buka dlu app email mu yg tdi.. ksh masuk it tdi email sma pasword.a supya lngsung konek i. Merepotkan mika ini*

*But open first your email. Use that email and the password so that it can connect.*

*I made you busy then*

In this conversation, MS requested MR to do something. Actually it was a hard job since it needed email application. In order to soften his request, he said, “moka lg mintol” which means “*minta tolong*” (I want to ask for help). Then he said, “bisako edit fotokh kasi latar merah i” (Can you edit the photos by giving red background?). This is a kind of direct request of MS to MR responded by MR by laughing. This extract shows the use of direct request in the chat. In order to be polite, at the end, he said “merepotkan mika ini” (I made you busy then). This last expression actually showed his reluctance to ask for help, which actually minimize the potential threat of the request. However, the chats in WA made them free to do the request, accompanied by the use of “*minta tolong*” (I want to ask for help) and the last expression of “*merepotkan mika ini*” (I made you busy then), which was actually a small talk of MS in order to soften his difficult request.

*Extract 9*

MS: *Belum selesai tugasmu kh?*

*“have you finished your assignment?”*

MR: *Belum..hahah*

*“Not yet, hahah (laughing)”*

MS: *Sudahko?Belum..kerja mi cepat kirimkanka hee*

*“have you? Not Yet. Do it quickly and send it to me hehe”*

MR: *edd*

*“Ouch”*

In this extract, both speakers are the same age. Because of that, MS asked directly to MR to finish the assignment and send it to MS as soon as possible. Here it can be seen that due to the same age of speakers, direct requests were acceptable in the chat. MS said, *“kerja mi cepat kirimkanka”* (Do it quickly and send it to me). However, to soften that direct request, MS said by laughing *“hehe”*. MR responded by saying *“Edd”* (Ouch). It was a kind of informal expression in Bugis-Makassar context, showing the familiarity of the speakers. Compare with the following extract when the speaker did urgent request to all of the members of the WA group.

*Extract 10*

MS: *piuuu (sending a file of Microsoft office to be translated).*

*bntuin translate ganteng*

*Ical...*

*“Can you help translate, handsome man”*

*Ical...(repeating the message)*

MR: *bru kuliat bh.. msih butuh ki kh?*

*“I have just seen it. Do you still want it?”*

MS: *iyeee cal masih. klo nda sibuk ki*

*“Yes, Ical, [I] still need it. If you are not busy”*

In the above extract, MS applied request in rather polite way by saying *“bntuin translate ganteng”* (Can you help translate, handsome man). The word *“bantuin”* (please help) means asking for help which is a more polite request. In addition, he used a term *“ganteng”* (handsome man) as a way to address Ical, MS’s friend who was asked to translate the Microsoft word file to be translated. MR tried to respond friendly by saying *“bru kuliat bh.. msih butuh ki kh? (I have just seen it. Do you still want it?)”*. MS confirmed the request and softened his request by saying *“iyeee cal masih. klo nda sibuk ki”* (Yes,

Ical, [I} still need it. If you are not busy). When MS said, “*klo nda sibuk ki*” (if you are not busy), MS shows that MS was still trying to negotiate the situation for his request. He showed that although his request was urgent indeed, he still tried to use a small talk which invited humor to minimize the potential threat of his direct and urgent request to MR.

## Refusals

### *Extract 11*

MS: *dimana?*

*“Where are you?”*

MR: *di rumahnya temanku*

*“In my frind’s home”*

MS: *antar ke kampus dulue..*

*“take me to the campus first”*

MR: *aihh, napake temanku motorku belah*

*“Aish, my motorcycle was used by other friend of mine”*

MS: *ok lah*

*“okey then”*

In the extract above, MS applied direct strategy in the request. He first asked directly “*dimana?*” (Where are you?). Later he said, “*antar ke kampus dulue..*” (take me to the campus first), which is a kind of direct request to MR. The same age of MS and age made this request acceptable. Conversely, MR in responding to the request tried to minimize his impoliteness in refusing the request of MS by saying the reasons clearly. He said, “*aihh, napake temanku motorku belah*” (Aish, my motorcycle was used by other friend of mine). In this way, he was trying to be polite in refusing the requests.

### *Extract 12*

MS: *dimanako?*

*“Where are you?”*

MR: *d samata ja..*

- “I am just in Samata”*
- MS: *kesniko dulu d hertasning ee*  
*“come here first to Hertasning”*
- MR: *meletus ban motorku belah..*  
*“I have a flat tyre”*
- MS: *awee, buangmi motormu baru naik ojekmo.. haha. lokkano ha mai gatti*  
*“Oh my God. Just throw your motorcycle away, just use Ojek (rented motorcycle).*  
*Hahaha come here quickly”*
- MR: *hahah tajenna..*  
*“hahah just wait”*

In the above extract, MS asked directly to MR by using a very direct question: “dimanako?” (where are you?). he also asked MR to come quickly by saying “*kesniko dulu d hertasning ee*” (come here first to Hertasning). When MR refused the request by saying the reasons, MS said, “*awee, buangmi motormu baru naik ojekmo.. haha. lokkano ha mai gatti*” (Oh my God. Just throw your motorcycle away, just use Ojek (rented motorcycle). Hahaha come here quickly). This is a kind of joke in responding to the refused requests from MR. later, MR said, “*hahah tajenna..*” (hahah just wait) showing his agreement to come quickly by using a rented motorcycle. In this extract, it can be seen that agreement and negotiation of the requests could be done directly and used a joke as a small talk to minimize the face threatening act between the speakers.

### *Extract 13*

- MS: *Assalamualaikum warahmatullah*  
*“Peace be upon you”*
- MR: *Waalaiikumussalam Maaf. Kayaknya belum bisaka ke kampus ini hari karena, ada rapatku*  
*“peace be upon to you too. I am sorry. I could not go to campus today, because I have a meeting”*
- MS: *Iya pade. Nanti kutanya Kak Ical*  
*“Okay then, I will tell to Older Brother Ical later”*

MR: *Iyee minta maaf sekaligus ini.*  
*“Yes, I am really sorry”*

In the conversation above, MR had a chat to MS. He was actually confirming whether MR wanted to come to the meeting or not. When MS chatted MR by saying “*Assalamualaikum warahmatullah*” (Peace be upon you), MR already knew that MS asked for that confirmation. MR directly clarified that he could not make the meeting by saying, “*Walaikumussalam Maaf. Kayaknya belum bisaka ke kampus ini hari karena, ada rapatku*” (peace be upon to you too. I am sorry. I could not go to campus today, because I have a meeting). In this way, MR tried to be polite in his refusal to the request. He responded the greeting and apologized. MS then responded by saying “*Iya pade. Nanti kutanya Kak Ical*” (Okay then, I will tell to Older Brother Ical later). This response was also used to minimize the impolite expression which might be caused by the refusal of the request. At the end, MR responded by saying “*Iyee minta maaf sekaligus ini*” (Yes, I am really sorry). This last expression showed being very regret which could soften the bad effect of his refusal to the request. Therefore, it can be seen that the speaker in this chat both speakers tried to apply polite expressions in their chat.

#### *Extract 14*

MS: *Assalamualaikum, Miss, Maaf belum bisa bergabung*

*“Peace be upon you, Miss. I am sorry I cannot join you [all]”*

MR: *Wass...ok sir*

*“Peace be upon you too, Okay Sir”*

MS: *Karena masih ikut rapat. Kebetulan aku di minta mewakili my father untuk mengikuti rapat*

*“Because [I] still have a meeting. I was asked to represent my father to join [another] meeting”*

MR: *Siap, goodluck!*

*“Okey, Good luck”*

MS: *okey sip.*

*“Okay, allright”*

In the above extract, MS messaged MR to confirm again that he could not come to join them together. He said, “*Assalamualaikum, Miss, Maaf belum bisa bergabung*” (Peace be upon you, Miss. I am sorry I cannot join you [all]). In this situation, MS could be very impolite since he did not fulfill their agreement for the meeting that had been finalized before. In order to minimize his impoliteness, he applied greeting and apologized. After getting the response from MR by saying “*Wass...ok sir*” (Peace be upon you too, Okay Sir), MS still tried to negotiate the agreement by explaining the reason he could not come by saying, “*Karena masih ikut rapat. Kebetulan aku di minta mewakili my father untuk mengikuti rapat*” (Because [I] still have a meeting. I was asked to represent my father to join [another] meeting). In this case, it can be seen that MS tried to seek for agreement in his chat. Conversely, MR tried to receive the reason stated by MS. It can be seen that in this chat, seeking agreement is normally used in the chat in order to minimize the threat due to the potentially impolite action such as in disobeying the agreed promise.

*Extract 15*

MS: *Maaf ka' nah sist, tdk bisa ka' temani dirimu*  
“*I am sorry, Sister, I could not accompany you*”

MR: *Oke beb nda apa apa*  
“*Okey, Beb, no worries*”

This conversation above is a kind of give (or ask for) reason strategy of positive politeness. MS said, “*Maaf ka nah sist tdk bisa ka temani dirimu*” (“I am sorry, Sister, I could not accompany you). MS could not accompany MR because there was something he wanted to do although she did not explain in detail in the chat. In the conversation there was a word “*Maaf*” (I am sorry) expressed by MS and MR responded calmly by saying “*Oke beb nda apa apa*” (Okey, Baby, no worries). The use of “*Okey*” and “*Beb*” (Baby) minimized the situation. The expression “*no worries*” at the end also ended the conversation with polite and intimate situation. Here it can be seen that both speakers were trying to be polite in their chat.

## **Discussion**

All of the fifteen extracts above demonstrate the application of politeness strategies in the ways the students communicate in the WhatsApp chats. Some of those strategies were used in asking questions, requesting, and refusing.

Strategies of politeness can be seen in the ways the students asked questions (extract 1-5). Questioning is one of the speech acts that potentially cause face threatening acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Therefore, questioners need to consider the effects of questions on the addressee; otherwise, they may lead to face threatening acts. For that reason, asking and answering questions should be performed indirectly. In extract 1-5, the students performed some strategies to be polite in asking questions by accompanying the questions with greeting, apologizing, thanking, address terms, and some terms from their own regional language. Those strategies were used each other to support their politeness expressions in order to create good conversations.

The same case can be seen in requesting, in which the students applied some strategies to be polite (extract 6-10). In making a request, the requestee/ addressee face is threatened as Brown and Levinson (1987) claims that by making a request, the speaker may threaten the hearer' negative face by intending to impede the hearers' freedom of action. This definition clearly shows that request is a directive utterance in which expressed by the speaker in order to the hearer fulfill the speaker' desire or goals and also the speaker want to change the behavior of the hearer during the interaction. In the extracts of their WhatsApp chats (extract 6-10), the students applied some strategies to be polite in their requests by greeting, apologizing, thanking, applying address terms, and using some terms from their own regional language. In addition, they applied small talk and humor in order to minimize the potential threats of the requests.

The same strategies for politeness can also be seen in the ways the students applied refusals. Seen in extract 11-15 above, the students applied some strategies to refuse such as greeting, apologizing, thanking, applying address terms, and using some terms from their own regional language. To some extent, applying small talk and humor are effective in reducing the threat caused by refusals. Previous studies in terms of refusal strategies had also been conducted by some scholars and found the significant functions of the acts of refusings in communication. Al-Eryani (2007, p. 21) had confirmed that the speech act

of refusal is a face-threatening act to the listener/ requester/ inviter, because it contradicts his or her expectations, and is often realized through indirect strategies. Thus, it requires a high level of pragmatic competence to avoid offending one's interlocutors. In the same opinion, Know (2004) states that refusals can be tricky speech acts to perform linguistically and psychologically since the possibility of offending the interlocutor is inherent in the act itself. The recent study of refusal strategies by Al-Ghamdi and Alrefaee (2020) among Yemenis and Americans found the differences in terms of the ways Yemenis and Americans applied refusal strategies. The social status of persons has greatly influenced the use and selection of refusal strategies among Yemenis and Americans. In addition, there is also an influence of cross cultural differences. All of these studies show that the act of refusal in communication is important as the strategies to create good flow of communication. Otherwise, it may cause face threatening acts and therefore may cause impoliteness in the interactions.

From all of the above extracts, it can be seen that students managed their respects in their WhatsApp chats through some polite expressions. The study shows that in those activities, students applied greetings, thanks, apologies, some identity markers such as the use of address terms and some terms from their own regional language, humors, and small talk as their polite rituals of interaction. Those strategies were used each other to support their politeness expressions in order to create good conversations such as in asking questions, requesting, and refusing.

Several studies had also confirmed the crucial functions of greetings as forms of speech acts in communication, especially in creating politeness. This is because a greeting is considered to be one of the positive politeness devices which express solidarity, intimacy, and friendliness (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Bonvillain (1993, p. 104) also states that "greetings function to begin communicative interactions or to acknowledge the presence of others". Recent studies also supported the ideas of greeting as politeness strategies. Tan, Teoh, & Tan, (2016), for example, found the important functions of greetings, such as to acknowledge the interlocutors. In addition, studies proved that greetings are a feature of good social manner (Soo, David, Kia, & Pei, 2011; Hei, David, & Kia, 2013).

In terms of thanking expressions, this study shows the important function of thanking expression as polite strategies in the WhatsApp chats. Leech (1983, p. 106) views thanks as “a convivial function rather than competitive, being performed in the interests of someone other than the speaker and therefore intrinsically polite”. Expressing thanks/gratitude is thus considered a polite or courteous device which avoids face threatening acts. In relation to Brown and Levinson theory (1987), expressing thanks can be categorized as an effort to intensify interest to hearers and therefore created positive politeness. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) idea also states that expressing thanks/gratitude is considered a polite or courteous device which avoids face threatening acts and therefore it can also be used to express solidarity above the power. Studies recently had proved the function of thanking expression as a polite expression to start and begin the chats (Özdemir & Rezvani, 2010; Yusefi, Gowhary, Azizifar, & Esmaeili, 2015; Tan, Teoh, & Tan, 2016).

This study also found that apologizing becomes one strategy to soften the conversation in the students’ WhatsApp. According to Bonvillain, an apology’s purpose is “to maintain or re-establish rapport between interlocutors” (1993, p. 107). According to Leech (1983, pp. 104-105), apologizing is “a convivial speech act” because to apologize will “coincide with the social goal of maintaining harmony between speaker and hearer”. With reference to Brown and Levinson’s idea (1987), apologies are face-threatening acts because performing an apology requires the speaker to admit to having done wrong, thus undermining his/her face. However, in this study, apologizing become a polite ritual among the students to minimize the acts of asking questions, requesting, and refusing. Studies by Al-Sobh (2013), Banikalef, Maros, Aladdin, & Al-Natour (2015), and Jazeri, Sukarsono, and Susanto (2020) also supported this idea of using apologies as politeness strategies. Jazeri, Sukarsono, and Susanto (2020), the recent study, for example, found that among Thai learners, apology functions as the way to (1) heal humiliations, (2) free the mind from deep-seated guilt, (3) remove the desire for vengeance, and (4) restore broken relationships. This shows that apology can minimize the conflict, and therefore can maintain the good relation among the learners, which creates polite interactions among the learners.

Another important finding in this study is the use of some identity markers such as the use of identity markers and some terms from the students' regional language. The use of address terms as a softening mechanism such as the use of "*kak*" (older brother/sister) by the students show their politeness to the different interlocutors during the presentation. In addition, the use of some terms from the students' regional language to communicate, such as *tabe'*, *di'*, *mi*. is also a good strategy for students to communicate in the WhatsApp chats. The terms from the students' regional language show the functions of identity markers as a way to show the students' politeness in the WhatsApp chats. With reference to Brown and Levinson (1987), these address terms were known as "in-group identity markers" which aim to minimize the distance between speaker and hearer and to reduce the hearer's disappointment by expressing friendliness. In his study in Javanese society, Susanto (2104) also found that address term is used "to designate the person they are talking to or to show the possession of formal and informal manners" (p. 140).

The extracts above also show the use of humor as polite strategies to minimize the potential face threatening acts, especially when they need to refuse the requests. Brown and Levinson (1987) had noticed the function of humor as the positive politeness which creates polite interaction. A study by Omar and Jan (2013) proved that humor primarily acts as a channel of solidarity when it functions through friendly teasing and boundary marking, highlighting similarities or shared knowledge and disclosing of personal stories to the team members. A study by Holmes (2007) in Maori leadership proved that humor provides leaders with a valuable communicative resource for reconciling the competing transactional and relational demands which face them and also provides a flexible indirect strategy for constructing leadership in ways that avoid conflict.

Small talk is also a positive politeness strategy which shows the speaker's interest or friendship toward the hearer by talking about unrelated topics for some time (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 122). Tannen (1991) also asserted that small talk is crucial in maintaining social relationships. A study by Pullin (2010) supported the idea of using small talk as politeness strategies since small talk can be used to develop solidarity, despite linguistic and cultural differences, and thus increase the likelihood of avoiding or successfully overcoming communication problems.

## **Conclusion**

This study concludes that English students had some strategies to manage their respect in their conversation in social media, especially in their WhatsApp chats. This can be seen in the use of some strategies to be polite in the way they were asking questions, requesting, and refusing. The forms of greetings, thanks, apologies, some identity markers (e.g. the use of address terms and some terms from the students' regional language), humor and small talk were applied as strategies to manage the respect among them in their conversations. This study also proved that the idea of "face-saving view" of Brown and Levinson (1987) was relevant to be practiced in the context of communication in social media, especially in WhatsApp chats among the English students. Several strategies of politeness of Brown and Levinson (1987) were applied by the English students in their WhatsApp chats both positive politeness and negative politeness.

Findings from this study have some pedagogical implications. This study has provided significant ideas of how to manage the conversation among the students in their daily life, especially in social media as online communication. The online communication which is now flourishing should give benefits to those people who are using it, especially the students who need to maintain good communication among themselves. Therefore, findings from this study had contributed significantly to the literature of communication strategies which is important to be possessed by students in today's society. This study shows that although English students were subject to high technology of online communication, some strategies to show respect are still applied for the sake of good interaction and mutual understanding. Teachers can also make use of the findings of this study as input to manage the use of technology in the process of learning and teaching in the class, especially in the way they use social media in communication both in the class and outside the class. In addition, the findings of this study are expected to contribute to the literature of politeness research in social media communication in particular and in Asian context, in general. Since this study was conducted in a certain and restricted context of communicative situation (by exploring WhatsApp chats), further studies need to be conducted in wider contexts of communication. Researchers need to make use of these findings as reference for more exploration in politeness studies in different

communicative situations, especially in terms of the use of other forms of social media as online communication.

## References

- Al-Eryani, A. A. (2007). Refusal strategies by Yemeni EFL learners. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 9(2), 19-34.
- Al-Ghamdi, N. & Alrefaee, Y. (2020). The role of social status in the realization of refusal speech act: A cross-cultural study. *Asian ESP Journal*, 16(1.2.), 207-221.
- Al-Sobh, M. A. (2013). An analysis of apology as a politeness strategy expressed by Jordanian university students. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3(2), 150-154.
- Banikalef, A. A., Maros, M, Aladdin, A & Al-Natour, M. (2015). Apology strategies in Jordanian Arabic. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 15(2), 83-99.
- Bonvillain, N. (1993). *Language, Culture, and Communication: The Meaning of Messages*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language use*. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Fenclova, M. & Horova, M. (2017). The expression of politeness and modesty in the texts of the social sciences. *Xlinguae*, 10(1), 42-48. DOI:10.18355/XL.2017.10.01.05
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. Columbus, OH: Pearson Education
- Hei, K. C., David, M. K., & Kia, L. S. (2013). Politeness of front counter staff of Malaysian private hospitals. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 13(1), 5-23.
- Holmes, J. (1995). *Women, men, and politeness*. London and New York: Longman.
- Holmes, J. (2007). Humour and the construction of Maori leadership at work. *Leadership*, 3(1), 5-27.
- Idris, H., & Ghani, R. A. (2012). Construction of knowledge on Facebook. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®*, 18(3). 61-72.
- Izadi, A. (2013). Politeness in spoken review genre: Viva voce context. *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. & Hum.*, 21(4), 1411–1429.

- Jazeri, M., Sukarsono, & Susanto. (2020). Interlanguage pragmatics: Politeness strategy of apology by Thai learners in Indonesian learning program for foreign speakers. *Asian ESP Journal*, 16(1.2.), 234-249.
- Know, J. (2004). Expressing refusals in Korean and in American English. *Multilingua*, 23, 339-364.
- Lakoff, R. T. (1976). Language and woman's place. *Language in Society*, 2(1), 45-80.
- Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London, New York: Longman
- Locher, M. A. (2010). Introduction: Politeness and impoliteness in computer-mediated communication. *Journal of politeness research. Language, behaviour, culture*, 6(1), 1-5.
- Maros, M. & Rosli, L. (2017). Politeness strategies in twitter updates of female English Language Studies Malaysian Undergraduates. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 23(1), 132-149.
- Nor, N. F. M. & Aziz, J. (2010). Discourse analysis of decision making episodes in meetings: Politeness theory and critical discourse analysis. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 16(2), 66-92.
- Omar, N. A. M., & Jan, J. M. (2013). Building academic relations and solidarity through humour at work. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®*, 19(3).
- Özdemir, Ç., & Rezvani, S. A. (2010). Interlanguage pragmatics in action: Use of expressions of gratitude. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 3, 194-202. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.032
- Pullin, P. (2010). Small talk, rapport, and international communicative competence: Lessons to learn from BELF. *The Journal of Business Communication* (1973), 47(4), 455-476.
- Sifianou, M. (1992). *Politeness phenomena in England and Greece*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Senowarsito. (2013). Politeness strategies in teacher-student interaction in an EFL classroom contents. *TEFLIN Journal*, 24(1), 82-96.
- Sukarno, S. (2018). Politeness strategies, linguistic markers and social contexts in delivering requests in Javanese. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(3), 659-667.

- Susanto, D. (2014). The pragmatic meanings of address terms *Sampeyan* and *Anda*. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 140-155.
- Soo, K. C. H., David, M. K., Kia, L. S., & Pei, A. (2011). Openings and closings in front counter transactions of Malaysian government hospitals. *SEARCH-The Journal of the South East Asia Research Centre for Communication and Humanities*, 3(1), 13-30.
- Stapa, S. H., & Shaari, A. H. (2012). Understanding online communicative language features in social networking environment. *GEMA Online® Journal of Language Studies*, 12(3), 817-830.
- Tan H. K., Teoh M. L., Tan S. K. (2016). Beyond 'greeting' and 'thanking': Politeness in job interviews. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 22(3), 171-184.
- Tannen, D. (1991). *You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Wood, L. A., & Kroger, R. O. (2000). *Doing discourse analysis: Methods for studying action in talk and text*. Sage.
- Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Universities of Edinburgh, Hawai, Louisiana State and Minnesota.
- Yusefi, K., Gowhary, H., Azizifar, A., & Esmaeili, Z. (2015). A pragmatic analysis of thanking strategies among Kurdish speakers of *Ilam* based on gender and age. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199, 211-217.
- Zander, R. (2013). Ethnography of polite and impolite student classroom behaviour in the intensive English center. *Linguistic Portfolios*, 2(11), 116-130.
- Zena, M. N., Maros, M., Nor, N. F. M. (2012). Politeness in e-mails of Arab students in Malaysia. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, 12(1), 125-145.



## **A Vision of the Second Language Teaching and Neurolinguistics**

**Dr. Abbas H. Al-Shammari**

*Faculty of Graduate Studies – Kuwait University – State of Kuwait*

[dr\\_abbas\\_7@hotmail.com](mailto:dr_abbas_7@hotmail.com)

Mobile: 00965 99812255

### **Bio-profile:**

**Dr. Abbas Habor Al-Shammari** is an assistant professor of English language, Faculty of Graduate Studies, Kuwait University, State of Kuwait. His PhD dissertation is centered on EFL/ESL. Dr. Abbas has worked in Kuwait University for about 35 years. He headed the English Language Unit in the Faculty of Social Sciences and Law for two decades. He is also the supervisor of the English Language Programme in the Deanship of Community Service and Continuing Education, Kuwait University. He has published many research papers in EFL/ESL, sociolinguistics, and education.

### **Abstract**

This paper investigates the relationship between research on L2 teaching and that on the neurocognition of the teaching/acquisition interface. Neurocognition examines both the potential and the process of how various features of L2 instruction might alter the brain of adults from two perspectives in a relatively short time; namely, physically and functionally. The former relates to anatomy; while the latter refers to the functioning of the learner's brain. The researcher investigates the efforts of neurolinguists in three characteristics of L2 teaching. The first aspect relates to L2 learners' proficiency; the second feature is an experimental design of learners' groups; while the third aspect focuses on the implicit and explicit teaching dichotomy. The researcher believes that studies can be replicated by adopting non-operational definitions. Moreover, the

researcher thinks that the non-operational definitions should be based upon other criteria discoursed in L2 teaching, evaluation, and the literature of L2 acquisition.

**Keywords:** *neurolinguistics, L2 acquisition, L2 teaching*

### **Domains and Motivation**

The current paper focuses on two major domains. The first one relates to the potential link between research on language teaching/acquisition and neurocognition. The second major domain is linked with second language teaching. This paper tries to answer “How may various features of L2 instructions temporarily do impact both the anatomy and function of an adult’s brain?”. The increasing interest in neurolinguistics in L2 instruction motivated the researcher to write this paper. To clarify the outcomes of behavioral classroom-based experiments, more SLA experts and teachers engage in different modes of L2 neurocognition. This paper consists of five parts. The second part explains the theoretical background needed to understand the neurolinguistics research studies under analysis. The third part focuses on how neurolinguists utilize proficiency as a variable. The fourth part discusses the between-groups experimental design; while the fifth part focuses on the ‘implicit vs. explicit teaching’ variable as a dichotomous variable. The researcher recommends enhancing repeated neurolinguistics studies that interpret the features and variables linked to teaching.

### **Background**

Pioneer scholars who tackled neurocognition of the teaching–acquisition interface include Michael Ullman, 2004 and 2005. Other scholars include Lee Osterhout and his colleagues (McLaughlin et al, 2004; Osterhout et al 2004, 2006, 2008).

In regards to brain anatomy, the former studies examined second language classes to correlate with the electrophysiological reactions. The studies examined the density of the white matter in the brains of L2 learners. The researchers based their work on such patterns and changes in the brain white matter to build-up their findings on the environmental adaptation subsequent to L2 classes. Disregarding the age of the learners,

some other succeeding studies on advanced L2 levels showed other changes related to electrophysiological and relative to brain-oxygenation changes that are very close to those of native speakers (Nickels and Steinhauer, 2008; Nickels et al., 2013; Steinhauer, 2014; White et al., 2012). According to Friederici et al., 2002, this pattern is also found with artificial language learners. It leads to the conclusion that the level of language proficiency is more significant than the age of acquisition. These findings refute the claims of the Critical Period Hypothesis.

The Declarative Procedural (DP) is the theoretical basis of the neurolinguistics and L2 teaching research in the 1990s. Some systematic usage of the eminent functional-anatomical distinction between procedural and declarative memory routes to signify the various rates at which L2 is learnable and developable over time (Paradis, 2004, 2009; Ullman, 2004, 2005). Some neurolinguists increased their interests in the process an L2 is taught in the classroom. According to Ullman and Lovelett (2018), many changes related to teaching are operationalized in some aspects of both neuro-functional and neuro-anatomical research, i.e. feedback and non-feedback, explicit and implicit instructions, and so on. DP suggests that many aspects of L1 and L2 are attached in the memory paths. Some aspects include learning and presentation. Declarative and procedural memory systems are two contrasting systems. The former is related to the facts and events. It is linked with the memory system related to the temporal lobe regions of the brain such as the parahippocampal cortex and entorhinal and parahrinal cortices. The latter controls the acquired behavior, including habits that are based on stimulation. It also endorses the control of cognitive and motor skills related to some aspects of mental grammar such as English verb forms.

DP models of Paradis and Ullman ignited predictions on language acquisition. Besides, many assumptions relied upon the DP model tackled the efficiency of second language teaching (Morgan-Short and Ullman, 2011). The claim suggests that language learners can partly either memorize a first and second language fully or compute them by mixed rules. In other words, the mental lexicon is memorized; while mental grammar is computed. However, in the DP model scaffold, studies on Even-Related Potential (ERP) included classroom activities and instruction. After conducting ERP, it was found that learners' brains experienced some systematic alterations. In a range of proficiencies,

electrophysiological responses to stimuli are confirmed in L2 classes. Such responses are called ‘biphasic pattern’ characterized by changes ranging from N400 and P600 ERP components (Nickels and Steinhauer, 2018; Roberts et al., 2016; and Steinhauer, 2014). By analyzing the ERP pattern results, it is found that in the low levels acquisition of grammatical violations resulted in N400-like brainwaves linked with declarative memory circuits. For verb morphology acquisition, however, second-language learners are more likely to be sensitive to statistical rules which do not affect the sequence of the word. In some stages, learners may exceed the statistical patterns in the response and might utilize various productive and mixed rules to handle the same phenomena. In this stage, grammatical violations involve P600-like brainwaves associated with procedural memory circuits (McLaughlin et al., 2010: 138-142; Osterhout et al., 2004 & 2006). In their efforts to provide an example of N400-P600 alteration, Osterhout et al., (2008) found a similar wrong sequence in French after four weeks of instruction. The effect elicited was an N400-like effect in learners of French as an L2 and some learners of English as an L1. After sixteen weeks of instruction, involving some 80 hours of teaching, it was noticed that the P600-like effect replaced the N400-like effort, making the results comparable to native controls. According to Osterhout et al. (2008), the biphasic pattern of the N400-P600 is an indicator of an abrupt alteration in the neural source of SLA of morphosyntax. Moreover, scholars like McLaughlin et al., (2010), P142 found that in the first year of language instruction, “qualitative changes” related to the “neurocognitive mechanism” underlie language processing. According to Osterhout et al., 2004, the “learners initially learned about words, but not rules” is the first stage in achieving qualitative and physiological alteration (Roberts et al., 2016).

The focus of the N400-P600 biphasic pattern presence focuses on the following language learning domains: adjective declension, gender and number agreement in the NP, verb inflection, word order, verb-subject agreement in the VP, and verb order in complement-clause constructions. According to Ullman, (2005: 160), earlier studies rely on direct classroom instruction since the declarative knowledge of grammatical structures can be potentially endorsed by procedural knowledge of similar forms via classroom practice. Such results do not mean that declarative knowledge is transformable to become procedural. However, it means that it is possible to provide an appropriate and

related database by the lexical forms and constructions kept in the declarative memory. Grammatical rules stored in the database “can gradually and implicitly be abstracted by the procedural memory system” (Rastelli, 2014; Ullman, 2004: 247; Ullman and Lovelett, 2018). Procedural memory performance can be indirectly enhanced in the classroom. In this regard, Ullman, 2004: 247) believes that ‘in some cases explicit knowledge of the rules themselves may help guide processing, perhaps enhancing the procedural rule acquisition’. Moreover, other studies tackled the relation between L2 acquisition and the N400-P600 biphasic pattern. For example, Tokowicz and MacWhinney (2005), found that the effects of P600 are noticeable in observing L2 classrooms. What has been noticed is violations in syntactic rules, which are prevalent in low-level classes of both L1 and L2 learners.

## **Second Language Proficiency Variable**

### **Identifying the Problem**

Learners’ proficiency is inevitably essential for the study of neurocognition of the teaching-acquisition. Besides, to perform neurolinguistics studies, it is important to consider proficiency as a variable to interpret the alterations in the brain after teaching. Proficiency is generally identified as an indicator of L2 efficacy. When identifying proficiency indicators, profound variations emerge simultaneously with the shift from genetic definition to operational proficiency. By investigating the contemporary standards of language teaching and assessment, one can notice that the performance of communicative skills and proficiency are strongly linked to everyday situations.

According to many studies, it has been noticed that skill-based proficiency scales, including those adopted by CEFR, are not sustained by proper language theory. For example, it is noticeable that skill-based proficiency scales made no distinction between function and meaning. In addition, such scales do not suggest a means to assess language formal-functional factors which are irrelevant to meaning without influencing communicative performance (Hulstijn, 2009). According to Jong et al., (2012), these scales do not consider the distinction between the components of neither language knowledge nor language processing.

## Analysis

Steinhauer et al. (2009) analyzed 19 different ERP studies. The researchers divided the participating learners into several categories based upon their language proficiency: beginners, very low, low to intermediate, intermediate, intermediate to high/near-native like and very high/native-like proficiency. Researchers analyzed the different levels depending upon neurolinguistic indicators. For each proficiency level, the researchers prepared detailed interpretations of learners' neurolinguistic profiles. However, some neurolinguistics studies assess proficiency by mixing several tests with self-reported evaluations and questionnaires. Researchers, such as Weber-Fox and Neville (1996), investigated learners' proficiency through standardized English grammar, self-reports, and precision of adequacy. Others, like Steinhauer et al., (2006), studied two different levels of French and Chinese. After grouping the learners into high vs. low levels, the researchers tested the learners via a close test of sentence competition. To be classified as high-level learners, test takers had to meet the minimum 90% of accuracy, and self-reported assessment.

Moreover, other researchers conducted many studies on learners' proficiency among whom are Yusa et al., (2011). Adopting fMRI, Yusa et al., (2011) tested a couple of groups, one control and one instructed. The students were Japanese adults learning English. After being evaluated by the (TOEIC) or English for International Communication, both groups were close in their language proficiency. After eight classes in one month of instructions and eight classes of practice and homework, the researchers noticed that the instructed group displayed a near-native command of the inversion of the subject-verb agreement following negative adverbial forms. The instruction included frequent exercises on simplex negative inversion sentences (He will never come here again Never will he come here again). The researchers concluded that instruction causes changes in brain signatures after ruling out baseline before training second language proficiency. The TOEIC consists of the two language skills of listening comprehension and reading comprehension. In the listening component, learners are given a photograph and then listen to four short declarative sentences and choose the best sentence that describes the photograph. Learners also listen to a question and three possible answers. TOEIC neither involves any form of interaction nor evaluates any form

of interaction. The TOEIC test mainly focuses on sentence-picture matching tasks normally created in psycholinguistic labs.

Some neurolinguists adopt psycholinguistic approach. Consonni et al. (2012) studied two different groups of advanced Italian-Friulian bilingual students who are different in their acquisition age. The researchers' objective was to display that verb and noun utterances involve a similar neural network provided that proficiency and exposure are invariable. In their efforts to evaluate proficiency, the researchers adopted BAT or (Bilingual Aphasia Test) in the target languages. Bilingual Aphasia Test evaluates language comprehension, and consists of different components: naming, metalinguistic capabilities by different assessment forms, such as pointing, simple and complex commands, listening comprehension, reading comprehension related to vocabulary and sentences, grammar judgments, verbal auditory discrimination, and semantic adequacy tasks. BAT also involves offline translations. Test takers have to translate transfer sentences from one language to another and vice versa. The test supports J.C. Ingram's beliefs that "the human brain recognizes larger semantic units from basic phonological segments." (J.C. Ingram (2007), reviewed by Francis A. Andrew and published in *The Asian EFL Journal* (2012).

In summary, the majority of neurolinguistics research adopts proficiency as a variable. However, some studies raised the issue of whether proficiency, regardless of the age of acquisition, impacts second language learners' native-like accomplishment.

### **Recommended Resolution: Tackling 'Proficiency' as a Relational Concept**

Rather than general proficiency, "structure-specific proficiency" is considered by some scholars a more convenient indicator of the neurocognitive instrument inspiring grammar proficiency by second language learners (Steinhauer et al., (2009) and White et al., (2012)). These scholars believe that proficiency in neurolinguistic research should be analyzed merely in relation to the examined morphosyntactic structure. The researcher doubts that the sole implementation of such limited procedures of proficiency is likely to increase the gap between neurolinguistics and second language teaching research. According to Steinhauer et al., (2009), second language proficiency can be regarded as a rational notion in future neurolinguistics research, provided that

‘relational’ means that the variable proficiency scores rely upon both investigated syntactic structure and learners’ communicative performance. Neurolinguists should directly refer to some factors of language usage if adopting the heterogeneous relational procedures are pointed to evaluate second language proficiency.

Based upon communicative skills, language-teaching proficiency research and assessment may present functional relational proficiency metrics. For example, the assessment of the speaking skill proposes three major domains of assessment. The first domain is competence – whether linguistic, sociolinguistic, or pragmatic; the second domain is skills – such as the ability to speak rather than writing; and the last domain is ‘can do’ statements – such as the ability to perform language functions ranging from opinion, agreement, disagreement, and so on.

Three reasons are behind the increasing interest in the enterprise of neurolinguistics of second language learning. In addition to the structure-specific metrics, the adoption of a variable baseline assessment of second language learners’ proficiency in neurolinguistics research enhances the three factors related to L2 learning. The first aspect is drawing a comparison between the different forms of second language proficiency represented in morphosyntactic and interaction-based. Such a comparison may help clarify the image of learners’ competence. In addition, L2 language communicative skills are subject to assessment for both learners’ ability of reasoning about the target language and neural correlates. The second factor relates to identifying a skill-based grid to assess second language proficiency. Such evaluation would be positive and necessitate a closer relationship between different personnel involved in L2 teaching/learning, such as SLA experts, teachers, and neurolinguists. The last reason is to implement common criteria that neurolinguistics in-class research would be more acceptable than the current criteria. If a shared baseline for assessing learners’ language proficiency in neurolinguistics second, it is possible for teachers to evaluate whether neurological markers of second language acquisition – the N400-P600 biphasic pattern for example – are potentially probable to precede or follow pragmatic sociocultural or communicative makers of second language acquisition in the developmental path process. For instance, a learner’s capability of involving in real, authentic, and spontaneous or unplanned

interactions with native speakers or their ability to comprehend monodirectional, uninterrupted spoken language are two separate markers of pragmatic proficiency. It is hypothesized that the various neural correlates are existent for every pragmatic marker of acquisition. Regarding lexicon, a learner's capability of utilizing multi-vocabulary expressions of their capability of understanding and using single vocabularies are two distinct markers of lexical competence. It is also hypothesized that various neural correlates or neural markers are existent for every one of these capacities. Currently, the literature on second language neurocognition is missing in indications of such a cross-disciplinary nature.

## **The Between-Groups Experimental Pattern**

### **Identifying the Problem**

The classical research on SLA relies on studies on students' groups in the classroom, where different variables are the focus of the differentiating aspects of the experimental and control group. Dörnyei (2007: 98) denotes the 'convenience or opportunity sampling' to refer to a specific subclass of improbability sampling method, which is applicable in several research studies. The common sample students are those who are available in the researcher's language center or institution. Based upon the objective of the instigation, it is familiar in SLA research to include learners from outside the class in which sample students belong to. The extra variables included in the original convenience sample include the variables of age, gender, attitudes, exposure.

Sampling and experimental design are crucial in second language neurocognitive research utilizing ERP and indulging people learning language informally or in informal settings (Luck and Kappenman, 2013). This is because the fundamental ERP components are possible merely from the comparison of large numbers of learners. According to Luck and Kappenman (2013), it is common in ERP research to refer to the individual differences between language learners that are concealed by the grand-averaging procedure. Luck and Kappenman (2013) believe that such a procedure is essential to enhance the signal-to-noise ratio that permits to expose meaningful patterns in microvolt possibilities Luck and Kappenman (2013).

On the other hand, the technical limitation may risk concealing individual differences that are closely related to the research of both SAL and second language teaching (Faretta-Stutenberg and Morgan-Short, 2018). To detect the neurocognitive impacts of training or of other variables, neurolinguists have to choose groups of learners who have different doses of exposure or those exposed to diverse forms of training. However, in the case of adopting the between-group model, between-participant variability will be difficult to observe with the passage of time. In other words, the individual ERP differences in every group are less than all statistical models. One more impediment is that the essential variables – such as proficiency scores – are usually put together. In other words, students are classified according to their test scores as either good or bad learners, so that they may be sorted into various subgroups. Consequently, the aspect ‘groups’ is likely to be more unreliable. This means that it is harder to identify the major factors from other moderating, occurring, or confounding variables.

### **Analysis**

According to Osterhout et al. (2006), when collective or group comparisons emerge from an appropriate sample – such as real language classrooms – a longitudinal paradigm can be necessary to pass the ordeal of controlling individual differences in between-group designs. In the procedure followed in this paradigm, the researchers frequently recorded the neurocognitive measure of second language proficiency. The target language learners are usually overseas students. Based upon, Davidson’s (2010) ideas about ‘learning-based experiment approach’ – which is a sub-case of longitudinal research – the purpose of the within-learner designs longitudinal research is to reduce the variability between participants since participants in these groups are their own controls (Osterhout et al., 2006: 200-210). In fact, for the purpose of observing whether the variables over time are the core of the experimental conditions under inspection, it is not impossible to conjoin both the longitudinal design and the between-group design. However, to make the variables unequivocally associated with one aspect rather than another, researchers should observe and control all the conditions. In other words, the between-groups and within-learner as well as between-learner

aspects must be under control. Such a drawback is essential and intrinsic in neurolinguistic research. In order to utilize ERP, groups are required. But to see whether teaching as the only factor that influences ERPs, different methods of individual profiles within every group should be clustered.

### **Recommended Resolution: Experimental Pattern And The Three-Layered Analysis**

Morgan-Short and Ullman (2011:292) noticed that after long observation, they noticed that it is sufficient to adopt the longitudinal design to deactivate the effect of between-learner variability. The final variability of between-learner is also needed to be controlled. This is important because it may distinguish learners in the same group, i.e. this includes all forms of moderating variables, such as exposure, motivation, aptitudes among others. Such variables formulate in various ways the groups that may interrelate with the variables as they are under the observation process (Dörnyei, (2007)). Between-learners (in plural) variability is different from the between-learner (in singular) variability. The differences lie in the fact that former is not vulnerable to deactivation or neutralization under the effect of longitudinal design since by the passage of time one learner may act differently to different variables (Faretta-Stutenberg and Morgan-Short, 2018).

For the purpose of overcoming any extra complications, however, the researcher suggests that the application of a three-layered analysis is systematically needed. In longitudinal research, the result of various statistical analyses that analyze the effect of various variables in the same group should be subject to evaluation in a regression model. For example, in a longitudinal design, if a couple of groups of learners undertake two different modes of learning like explicit and implicit modes, similar measures may be adopted at different times. If this mode is applied, the between learner analysis incorporates the between-group analysis. Such incorporation may be additionally developed by including a between-learners analysis. The final '-s' means that various grouping aspects are analyzed inside every group. It is necessary to surpass the grouping aspect 'mode of teaching if one wants to verify the extent learners' individual differences that impact the results. This may be accomplished by analyzing the between-learners and between learner variability with linear mixed-effects modeling to validate if other

aspects apart from teaching clarity of the essential degree of the variance in the data in the same learner (Baayen et al., 2008).

The three-layer design has not been implemented yet in second language neurocognitive research. This is because this design is unrealistically intricate to apply due to the need for high financial costs incurred in longitudinal study. Researchers, such as Tanner et al., (2014), tackled differences in ERP profiles of second language students via statistics based on regression. The purpose of this is to grasp the nonstop nature of individual variation (Tanner and van Hell, 2014; Tanner et al., 2014). It is founded that gender was effective in ERP responses. According to the findings, females scored higher than males as being 'P600 dominant'. However, the design of this research is cross-sectional. Some researchers, such as White et al., (2012), adopt a two-month longitudinal design along with between-learner comparisons in addition to post hoc analysis of between-learner. Such analysis is implemented to decide whether the individual's capability to identify the accurate grammatical forms from the wrong ones echoed by the ERP procedures. Indeed, a relationship is detected between d-prime scores inappropriate conclusions along with the P600 amplitude determined by the end of the study.

## **'Implicit Vs. Explicit' Teaching Variable**

### **Identifying The Problem**

This part of the paper tackles the implementation of 'explicit vs. implicit' variables in neurolinguistics research studies. The first variable indicates the fact that teachers draw learner's attention to grammar as they explain the grammar of L2. The latter variable refers to two different aspects. According to Ellis 2005 and Rebuschat 2013, the implicit acquisition is both unconscious and incidental, which are independent and distinct features. Teaching can be an implicit process since information is not received based on rules that identify the input (Hulstijn, 2005: 130). Teachers can potentially and implicitly concentrate on language even if learners do not explicitly learn grammar. Therefore, teaching is not incidental, but unconscious. However, 'incidental' denotes the shift of learners' focus from language to communicative task achievement.

The concepts of ‘implicit’ and ‘explicit’ have been the subject of SLA research for many decades. Some researchers are in favor of the implicit teaching model. They concentrate on ensuring whether learners taught explicitly can perceive patterns of co-variations between aspects in the stimulus governed by rules which they previously were acquainted with. Such researchers also focus on identifying whether language learners can utilize the outcome of such inductive process productivity for new sentences rather than the already known or trained ones.

Based on Reber’s (1993) proposition of ‘epistemic awareness’ and ‘functional awareness’, supporters of second language implicit teaching depend upon the fact that learners’ ability to use a rule productivity does not necessarily mean their ability to recognize the existence or functioning of such rules. On the other hand, second language explicit teaching supporters emphasize on the significance of noticing and other cognitive processes based on attention. Ellis (1994), for example, believes that learners taught in the explicit model are more likely to use conscious operations of creating and assessing hypotheses in a search for structure. Explicit teaching supporters, moreover, may depend on the positive outcomes of systematic meta-analyses done in the last two decades. Goo et al. (2015) conclude that over a long time such analyses are more likely to prove that implicit instruction is less advantageous than second language instruction.

### **Analysis**

Among the pioneer neurolinguists who comprehensively and clearly studied SLA and L2 neurolinguistics are Morgan-Short et al., (2010, 2012). The artificial language learning paradigm is adopted to trace the influence of explicit and implicit training conditions of behavioral and ERP (electrophysiological) measures of both syntactic management of word order errors and functional morphology. Regarding the former form or errors, the results display that learners implicitly taught implicitly demonstrate a native-like pattern entailing anterior negativity, which involves a P600 associated with delayed anterior negativity. The results are not informative and the variations between groups are more divergent. For the lower proficiency levels, however, no P600 can be noticed. The sole variance between groups is that learners taught explicitly demonstrated an N400 only in noun-adjective patterns. The implicitly taught learners, on

the hand, displayed an N400 in both agreement patterns. Besides, the N400 constituent in explicitly taught learners is postponed. It is noticed that by the end of the language course responses of both implicitly and explicitly taught learners are similar. Both implicitly and explicitly taught learners demonstrate an N400 and a P600 for noun-adjective agreement and non-article agreement, respectively. According to Morgan-Short et al., (2012), implicit and explicit teaching is different. The former is the form of training that approximates the immersion settings; while the latter displays approximate ‘traditional grammar-focused classroom setting’.

The differences between implicit and explicit teaching are worth investigating. During the training process, examples of artificial language are given to learners taught implicitly and explicitly. Sentences are associated with the corresponding game moves and arrangements. The two groups listen to sentences; while the implicit learners listen to 127 sentences, the explicit learners listen to 33 sentences followed by extra explicit metalinguistic information about how agreement rules function.

After implicitly and explicitly taught, learners complete their training course, they practice comprehension and production skills via playing the game on the computer. To exercise comprehension, learners listen to the description of a certain move and make their move accordingly. Regarding practicing production, learners are supposed to watch a movie show on the computer. Then, they are required to describe it with one sentence. In this stage of the practice, all learners should have experienced about 900 language items, which is a very big number. These items are given over the three sessions of the course – training and practice. In the first two sessions, ERP and behavioral measures are recorded.

As the items are orally and clearly patterned, the researcher’s objective might be making learners identify input regularities as well as abstracting the gender agreement or objective rule. This is what general concept lying behind both the known ‘variation sets’ and statistical learning in general (Onnis et al., (2008a, 2008b)). Besides, variation groups align partially with sentence segments. i.e. such variations are replicas of similar structure in a short collection of texts. As a result, sentence presentation aims at eliciting implicit knowledge. However, the outcome may attract the learners’ attention to the grammatical structures behind the meaning of sentences or the game moves. The

language input method utilized in this research is different from the input used in SLA research studies on implicit teaching. However, grammar rule is not supported by the structure of the input. SLA implicit teaching focuses on meaning rather than rules. To overcome the problem associated with form meaning emerging from meaningful interactions, language learners should focus on incidental language form.

Here is an analysis of the computer game function on which both groups are exposed to. According to Long (2005), several SLA researchers and teachers are more likely to agree that it is possible to style an authentic ‘language task’ that is likely to accurately match a Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) pedagogy. TBLT pedagogy has long been the focus of the contraction of ‘implicit teaching’. It is likely that the game concluded implicit knowledge since the form of any message the learners received – in both comprehension and production – was meaningful, represented in the game move, and associated with language performance – represented in implementing the instructions. Both learners’ groups were extensively subject to this form of implicit teaching. However, the mixed results in the research of Morgan-Short et al., (2010) are interpreted by the possibility of the impacts of explicit instructions that are usually balanced.

### **Recommended Resolution: ‘Implicit Teaching’ And ‘Teaching Grammar’**

The major obstacle that researchers encounter is finding the activities and tasks that appropriately can reflect implicit teaching. As mentioned earlier in this paper, implicit teaching is considered so if it is unconscious and incidental. However, learners dedicated their efforts on detecting what changed and what stayed identical in the sentences. Because the focus of the learners was not directed to a communicative task, incidental teaching cannot be claimed in this paper. Therefore, teaching implicit teaching cannot be clearly identified. It is essential to repeat studies like those of Morgan-Short et al., (2012), bearing in mind both the ‘implicit = incidental’ principle and adopting the natural language as an input. Abandoning the experimental merits of artificial language can be replaced by increased control over the delivery of the fundamental variable based on SLA explanation. However, it is almost impossible to generalize results from artificial language research to real-life second language settings (Robinson

(2005)). On the other hand, tackling natural languages makes it almost impossible to control due to several moderating aspects (Ettlinger et al., 2015). In the case of language learners are involved in meaningful tasks, teaching would be ‘implicit’ provided that the tasks learners do divert their attention from language rules, thus enabling incidental learning.

### **Limitations and Conclusions**

The researcher has reviewed some previous studies based on disciplinary research, and styled the neurocognition of the teaching/acquisition boundary. The researcher analyzed the three features related to teaching: learners’ proficiency; the between-groups experimental design, and explicit vs. implicit teaching. Finally, the researcher proposed how such features and variables should be tackled to augment the degree of possibility of repeating these research studies. The drawbacks of this analysis include finding teaching-related variables. This is difficult because such variables have an elusive nature that cannot be implemented in experimental studies. The second limitation of the present analysis relates to the casual relationship and correlation between environmental aspects, such as teaching and patterns of brain adaptation after adolescence. A third drawback relates to the quoted studies. All the studies the researcher used in this paper focus on the teaching/acquisition of second language morphosyntax. The teaching/acquisition of a second language lexicon is totally ignored. The final limitation is related to evidence. The research relied on ERP research studies. According to Luck and Kappenman (2013) ERP studies incur both great benefits and obvious shortcomings.

The researcher discarded other essential variables, such as kind of feedback – whether it is reactive or explicit. Another neglected variable is the type of exposure – whether it is immersion or college-based instruction. A final abandoned variable is the type of presentation – whether it is spaced or massed.

### **References**

A. D. Friederici and S. M. E. Gierhan, “The language network,” *Current Opinion in Neurobiology*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 250–254, 2013.

- A. G. Hervais-Adelman, B. Moser-Mercer, and N. Golestani, "Executive control of language in the bilingual brain: integrating the evidence from neuroimaging to neuropsychology," *Frontiers in Psychology*, vol. 2, article 234, 2011.
- Baayen, RH Davidson, DJ, Bated, DM (2008). Mixed-effects modeling with crossed random effects from subjects and items. *Journal of Memory and Language* 59:390-412. doi:10.1016/j.jml.2007.12.005. Google Scholar / Crossref
- Benati, AG (2015). *Key methodological frameworks in second language research*. London: Equinox.
- Brown, HW, Steinhauer, K, Sanz, C, Ullman, MT (2013). Native-like processing of syntax can be attained by university foreign language learners. *Neuropsychologia* 51: 2492-2511.
- Consonni, M, Cafiero, R, Martin, D. (2012). Neural convergence for language comprehension and grammatical class production in highly proficient bilinguals is independent of age of acquisition. *Cortex* 49: 1252-85.
- Davidson, D (2012). Short-term grammatical plasticity in adult language learners. *Language Learning* 60: 109-22.
- De Jong, NH, Steinel, MP, Florijin, AF, Schoonen, R, Hulstijn, JH (2012). Facets of Speaking Proficiency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 34: 5-34.
- Dörnyei, Z (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, NC (1994). (ed.) *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. San Diego, CA; Academic Press.
- Ellis, NC (2005). At the interface: Dynamic interactions of explicit and implicit language knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27: 305-52.
- Erdocia, K, Zawiszewski, I, Laka, I (2014). Word order processing in a second language: Form VO to OV. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* 43: 815-37.
- Ettlinger, M, Morgan-Short, K, Faretta-Stutenberg, M, Wong, PCM (2015). The relationship between artificial and second language learning. *Cognitive Science* 40: 822-47.

- Faretta-Stutenberg, M, Morgan-Short, K (2018). The interplay of individual differences and context of learning in behavioral and neurocognitive second language development. *Second Language Research* 34 (1): 67-101. This article appears in the current special issue of *Second Language Research*.
- Friederici, AD, Steinhauer, K, Pfeifer, E (2002).. Brain signature of artificial language processing: Evidence challenging the critical period hypothesis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 99: 529-34.
- Giraud, A.-L. and D. Poeppel. (2012). “Cortical oscillations and speech processing: Emerging computational principles and operations.” *Nature Neuroscience* 15: 511–517.
- Goo, J, Grañena, G, Yilmaz, Y, Novella, M (2015). Implicit and explicit instruction in L2 learning: Norris and Ortega (2002) revisited and updated. In: Rebuschat, P (ed.) *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 443-83.
- Hulstijn, JH (2005). Theoretical and empirical issues in the study of implicit and explicit second-language learning. Introduction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27: 129-40.
- Hulstijn, JH (2009). The shaky ground beneath the CEFR: Quantitative and qualitative dimensions of language proficiency. *The modern Language Journal* 91: 663-677.
- Hulstijn, JH (2012). The construct of language proficiency in the study of bilingualism from a cognitive perspective. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 15: 422-33.
- H. Zhang, Y.-J. Zhang, C.-M. Lu, S.-Y. Ma, Y.-F. Zang, and C.- Z. Zhu, “Functional connectivity as revealed by independent component analysis of resting-state fNIRS measurements,” *NeuroImage*, vol. 51, no. 3, pp. 1150–1161, 2010.
- J. Abutalebi, P. A. Della Rosa, D. W. Green et al., “Bilingualism tunes the anterior cingulate cortex for conflict monitoring,” *Cerebral Cortex*, vol. 22, no. 9, pp. 2076–2086, 2012.
- J. C. Ingram (2007). *Neurolinguistics. An Introduction to Spoken Language Proceeding and its Disorders*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press. Reviewed by Francis A. Andrew (2012). Published in *The Asian EFL Journal*. Volume 14. Issue 1.

- J. Leon-Carrión and U. León-Domínguez, “Functional nearinfrared spectroscopy (fNIRS): principles and neuroscientific applications,” in *Neuroimaging—Methods*, P. Bright, Ed., chapter 3, pp. 47–74, InTech, Rijeka, Croatia, 2012
- J. L. Whitwell, “Voxel-based morphometry: an automated technique for assessing structural changes in the brain,” *The Journal of Neuroscience*, vol. 29, no. 31, pp. 9661–9664, 2009.
- K. L. Mills and C. K. Tamnes, “Methods and considerations for longitudinal structural brain imaging analysis across development,” *Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience*, vol. 9, pp. 172–190, 2014.
- Kotik-Friedgut, B. (2001). A systemic-dynamic Lurian approach to aphasia in bilingual speakers, *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, 22: 100-109.
- Long, MH (2015). *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Luck, S, Kappenman, ES (eds) (2013). *The oxford handbook of event-related potential components*. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.
- M. Catani, D. K. Jones, and D. H. Ffytche, “Perisylvian language networks of the human brain,” *Annals of Neurology*, vol. 57, no. 1, pp. 8–16, 2005.
- McLaughlin, J, Osterhout, L, Kim, A (2004). Neural correlates of second-language word learning: Minimal instruction produces rapid change. *Natural Neuroscience* 7: 703-04
- McLaughlin, J, Tanner, D, Pitkänen, I. (2010). Brain potentials reveal discrete stages of L2 grammatical learning. *language Learning* 60: 123-50.
- Meulman, N, Stowe, LA, Sprenger, S A, Bresser, M, Schmid, MS (2014). An ERP study on L2 syntax processing: When do learners fail? *Frontiers in Psychology* 5: 1072.
- M. K. Leonard, T. T. Brown, K. E. Travis et al., “Spatiotemporal dynamics of bilingual word processing,” *NeuroImage*, vol. 49, no. 4, pp. 3286–3294, 2010.
- Moretti, R., Torre, P., Antonello, R.M., Capus, L., Marsala, SZ., Cattaruzza, T., Cazzato, G., & Bava, A. (2003). Neuropsychological changes after subthalamic nucleus stimulation: A 12 month follow-up in nine patients with Parkinson’s disease. *Parkinsonism and Related Disorders*, 10: 73-79.

- Morgan-Short, K, Ullman, MT (2012). The neurocognition of second language. In: Mackey, A, Gass, S (eds) *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition*. London: Routledge, pp. 282-99.
- Morgan-Short, K, Sanz, C, Steinhauer, K, Ullman, MT (2012). Second language acquisition of gender agreement in explicit and implicit training conditions: An event-related potential study: *Language Learning* 60: 154-93.
- Morgan-Short, K, Sanz, C, Steinhauer, K, Ullman, MT (2012). Explicit and implicit second language training differently affect the achievement of native-like brain activation patterns. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* 24: 933-47.
- Mueller, J, Girgsdies, S, Friederici, AD (2008). The impact of semantic-free second-language training on ERPs during case processing. *Neuroscience Letters* 443: 77-81.
- National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (1999). *Standards for foreign language learning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. Lawrence, KS: Allen Press.
- N. Golestani, "Brain structural correlates of individual differences at low-to high-levels of the language processing hierarchy: a review of new approaches to imaging research," *The International Journal of Bilingualism*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 6–34, 2014.
- Nickels, S, Steinhauer, K (2018). Prosody-syntax integration in a second language: Contrasting even-related potentials from German and Chinese learners of English using linear mixed effects model. *Second Language Research* 34 (1): 9-37.
- Nickels, S, Opitz, B, Steinhauer, K (2013). ERPs show that classroom-instructed late second language learners rely on the same prosodic cues in syntactic parsing as native speakers. *Neuroscience Letters* 557: 107-11.
- Omnis, L, Waterfall, HR, Edelman, S (2008a). Learn locally, act globally: Learning language from variation set cues. *Cognition* 109: 423:30.
- Osterhout, L, McLaughlin, J, Kim, A, Greenwald, R, Inoue, K (2004). Sentences in the brain: Event-related potentials as real-time reflections of sentence comprehension and language learning. In: Carreiras, M, Clifton, Jr C (eds) *The*

- n-line study of sentence comprehension. New York: Psychology Press, pp. 271-308.
- Osterhout, L, McLaughlin, J, Pitkänen, I, Frenck-Mestre, C, Molinaro, N (2006). Novice learners, longitudinal designs and even-related potentials: A means for exploring the neurocognition of second language processing. In: Indefrey, P, Gullberg, M (eds) *The cognitive neuroscience of second language acquisition*. Malden, MA and Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 199-230.
- Osterhout, L, Poliakov, A, Inoue, K. (2008). Second-language learning and changes in the brain. *Journal of Neurolinguistics* 21: 509-21.
- Pakulak, E, Neville, HJ (2011). Maturation constraints on the recruitment of early processes for syntactic processing. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* 23: 2752-65.
- Paradis, M. (1995a). Another sighting of differential language laterality in multilinguals, this time in Loch Tok Pisin: Comments on Wullemmin, Richardson & Lynch (194). *Brain and Language*, 49: 173-186.
- Paradis, M. (1995b). The need for distinctions. In M. Paradis (ed.), *Aspects of bilingual aphasia* (pp.1-9). Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Parade, M. (2001c) The need for awareness of aphasia symptoms in different language. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 14: 85-91.
- Paradis, M (2004) *A neurolinguistic theory of bilingualism*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.
- Paradis, M (2009) *Declarative and procedural determinants of second languages*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.
- Paradis, M (2009) Late-L2 increased reliance on L1 neurocognitive substrates: A common on Babcock, Stowe, Maloof, Brovotto and Ullman (2012). *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition* 16: 704-07.
- Rastelli, S (2014) *Discontinuity in second language acquisition: The switch between statistical and grammatical learning*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Reber, AS (1993) *Implicit learning and tacit knowledge: An essay on the cognitive unconscious*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Rebuschat, P (2013) Measuring implicit and explicit knowledge in second language research. *Language Learning* 63: 595-626.
- Roberts, L, Alonso, JG, Pliatsikas, C, Rothman, J (2016) Evidence from neurolinguistic methodologies: Can it actually inform linguistic/language acquisition theories and translate to evidence-based applications? *Second Language Research*. 34(1): 125-143.
- Robinson, P (2005) Cognitive abilities, chunk-strength and frequency effects in implicit artificial grammar and incidental L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27: 235-68
- Sabourin, L, Haverkort, M (2003) Neural substrates of representation and processing of a second language. In: van Hout, R, Hulk, A, Kuiken, F, Towell, R (eds) *The lexicon-syntax interface in second language acquisition*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins, pp. 175-95.
- Sabourin, L, Stowe, LA (2008) Second language processing: When are first and second languages processed similarly? *Second Language Research* 24: 397-430.
- Schumacher, P.B. 2011. "The hepatitis called ...: Electrophysiological evidence for enriched composition." In *Experimental Pragmatics/Semantics*, ed. by J. Meibauer and M. Steinbach, 199–219. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Schumacher, P.B. 2012. "Context in neurolinguistics: Time-course data from electrophysiology." In *What is a Context? Linguistic Approaches and Challenges*, ed. by R. Finkbeiner, J. Meibauer and P. B. Schumacher, 33–53. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Scott, S.K. 2012. "The neurobiology of speech perception and production—Can functional imaging tell us anything we did not already know?" *Journal of Communication Disorders*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jcomdis.2012.06.007>
- S. Dehaene, "Reading in the brain revised and extended: response to comments," *Mind & Language*, vol. 29, no. 3, pp. 320–335, 2014.

- S. L. Bressler and V. Menon, "Large-scale brain networks in cognition: emerging methods and principles," *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, vol. 14, no. 6, pp. 277–290, 2010.
- S. Mori and J. Zhang, "Principles of diffusion tensor imaging and its applications to basic neuroscience research," *Neuron*, vol. 51, no. 5, pp. 527–539, 2006
- Speer, N.K., Reynolds, J.R., Swallow, K.M., & Zacks, J.M. (2009). Reading stories activities neural representations of visual and motor experiences. *Psychological Sciences*, 20, 898-999.
- Steinhauer, K, & Friederici, A.D. (2001). Prosodic boundaries, comma rules, and brain responses: The closure positive shift in ERP's as a universal marker for prosodic phrasing in listeners and readers. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 30, 267-295.
- Steinhauer, K (2014) Event-related potentials (ERPs) in second language research: A brief introduction to the technique, a selected review, and an invitation to reconsider critical periods in L2. *Applied Linguistics* 35: 393-417.
- Steinhauer, K, Connolly, JF (2008) Event-related potentials in the study of language. In: Stemmer, B, Whitaker, HA (eds) *Handbook of the neuroscience of language*. New York: Elsevier, pp. 91-104.
- Steinhauer, K White, EJ, Cornell, S, Genesee, F, White, L (2006) The neural dynamics of second language acquisition: Evidence from event-related potentials. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience (supplement)* 99.
- Steinhauer, K, White, EJ, Drury, JE (2009) Temporal dynamics of late second language acquisition: Evidence from event-related brain potentials. *Second Language Research* 24: 13-41.
- Tanner, D (2013) Individual differences and streams of processing. *Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism* 3: 350-56.
- Tanner, D, McLaughlin, J, Herschensohn, J, Osterhout, L (2013) Individual differences reveal stages of L2 grammatical acquisition: ERP evidence. *Bilingual Language and Cognition* 16: 367-82.
- Tanner, D, van Hell, JG (2014) reveal individual differences in morphosyntactic processing. *Neuropsychologia* 56: 289-301.

- Tanner, D, Inoue, K, Osterhout, L (2014) Brain-based individual differences in online L2 grammatical comprehension. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognitive* 17: 277-93.
- Tettamanti, M. and A. Moro, A. 2012. "Can syntax appear in a mirror (system)?" *Cortex* 48: 923–935.
- Tettamanti, M. and D. Perani. 2012. "The neurobiology of structure-dependency in natural language grammar." In *The Handbook of the Neuropsychology of Language*, ed. by M. Faust, 229–251, Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Tokowicz, N, MacWhinney, B (2005) Implicit and explicit measures of sensitivity to violations in second language grammar: An event-related potentials investigation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 27: 173-204.
- Ullman, MT (2004) Contributions of memory circuits to language: The declarative/procedural model. *Cognition* 92: 231-70.
- Ullman, MT (2005) A cognitive neuroscience perspective on second language acquisition: The declarative/procedural model. In: Sanz, C (ed.) *Mind and context in second language acquisition*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, pp. 141-78.
- Ullman, MT (2005b) More is sometimes more: redundant mechanisms in the mind and brain. *APS Observer*, 18: 7-46.
- Ullman, MT, Lovelett, J (2018) Implications of the declarative/procedural model for improving second language learning: The role of memory enhancements techniques. *Second Language Research*. 34(1): 39-65.
- VanPatten, B, Benati, AG (2015) *Second language acquisition: Key terms*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. London: Continuum.
- Vigliocco, G., D.P. Vinson, J. Druks, H. Barber and S.F. Cappa. 2011. "Nouns and verbs in the brain: A review of behavioural, electrophysiological, neuropsychological and imaging studies." *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews* 35: 407–426.
- Weber-Fox, CM, Neville, HJ (1996) Maturation constraints on functional specializations for language processing: ERP and behavioral evidence in bilingual speakers. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience* 8: 231-56.

- White, EJ, Genesee, F, Steinhauer, K (2012) Brain responses before and after intensive second language learning: Proficiency based changes and first language background effects in adult learners. PLoS ONE 7(12): e52318.
- Yusa, N, Koizumi, M, Kim, J. (2011) Second language instinct and instruction effects: Nature and nurture in second-language acquisition. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience 23: 2716-30.
- Zareva, A, (2007) Structure of the L2 mental lexicon: How does it compare to native speakers' lexical organization? *Second Language Research?* 23, 123-153.



## **False Friends in Egyptian and Saudi Dialects: A Socio-Semantic Study**

**Adel Refaat Mahfouz, PhD**

*Minia University, Egypt*

[adelrefaat56@mu.edu.eg](mailto:adelrefaat56@mu.edu.eg)

### **Bio-profile:**

**Adel Refaat Mahfouz** is a lecturer in English linguistics at Faculty of Al-Alsun (languages), Minia University, Egypt. He has been teaching linguistics since 2008. His research interests include discourse analysis, pragmatics, semantics, and sociolinguistics.

### **Abstract**

This study attempts to shed light on false friends in the Egyptian and Saudi dialects from a socio-semantic perspective. It also aims to prove that semantic ambiguity, which arises from false friends in the two dialects, is remarkably sharp.

The corpus of this study is based primarily on direct observation and field notes taken from the speech of Egyptian expatriates in Saudi Arabia and Saudis. In this study, the false-friends phenomenon has been redefined according to various semantic theories to prove that some of these theories can interpret false friends and their consequences in a given speech community. The researcher has compared and analyzed each false friend via explaining its social and semantic meaning in the two dialects.

The data analysis has shown that meaning is both contextually and collocationally bound and the meaning of a lexeme in a given dialect is activated in specific contexts according to the linguistic background of the speaker of the other dialect. The results have also revealed that the meanings of homonyms in the two dialects differ greatly and are considered a main source of false friends. The findings of this study have led to the conclusion that false friends are responsible for temporary semantic ambiguity and

reflected in the social behavior of the new Egyptian expatriates and Saudis at the beginning of mixing together.

The study stresses the need for compiling a dictionary or a manual for false friends in different Arabic dialects in order that speakers of one dialect can be well acquainted with the linguistic system of other dialects, particularly their lexicon. Finally, one hopes that this study may contribute to the field and opens a new horizon for further studies that may explore more intralingual false friends and investigate the semantic variation of some of the Arabic loanwords in Urdu, Turkish, Persian and Hebrew that rendered them interlingual false friends.

**Keywords:** *Egyptian and Saudi dialects, false friends, meaning theories, socio-semantics.*

## **Introduction**

A dialect, as defined by Meetham (1969: 248), is “a form of speech peculiar to a certain region.” This form is different from other forms of a language as it, according to Macedo (2001:2), “covers a broader range of difference, including pronunciation, vocabulary and sentence structure as well.” This difference is a product of linguistic change that takes place all the time as long as people use it. As a result, it makes understanding other dialects quite difficult and miscommunication is highly expected because, as Wakelin (1977) explains, it occurs when listeners assume to hear a variety similar to theirs in the other region, or in best cases, they expect to hear a different accent that refers only to pronunciation.

At the lexical level, the classical ambiguity arises when two labels refer to one object or activity, but when one of them stands for two different objects or activities, one is facing a linguistic phenomenon called “false cognates” or “false friends”.

A false friend or a false cognate, according to Roca Varela (2010: 2), “could be defined as a word in language one that is formally similar to a word in language two in spelling and/or pronunciation but whose meanings are totally or partially different in both languages.” The term per se, according to Vinay and Darbelent (1995), is the calque of the French term “faux amis”; in 1928, the French linguists “Koessler” and

“Derocquigny” authored a book titled “*Les Faux Amis, ou les Trahisons du Vocabulaire Anglais*”, “False Friends or the Treacherous Pitfalls of the English Vocabulary”, in which they introduced the term for the first time. Why are they “false” and “friends”? Ioana (2017) explains:

The concept was born bearing precisely this idea that the English word seems to be “friendly” to the learner. That is to say that being very similar to some notion already known by the speaker from his/her language, the English word helps him/her to produce communication in English too, relatively easier than when using totally new and unknown words. So, these words are seen as helping “friends”. Still, they turn out to have very different meanings from those believed on the basis of the similarity with the mother tongue, being deceptive and tricky. Thus, they finally prove to be “false”, pretended, and very much less friendly than expected. (p.971)

According to Chamizo Dominoguez and Nerlich (2002), false friends can be semantically divided into two categories: “Chance False Friends” (CFFs) and “Semantic False Friends” (SFFs); the CFFs are homophonic/homonymous words that have different meanings in two varieties, whereas the SFFs are words that have a shared meaning, but this meaning is semantically overlapped.

As for use, one can claim that false friends can be used intentionally or unintentionally; speakers use false friends- intentionally- to create funny situations and make jokes depending on the homophonic nature of the false friend and the awareness of the listeners. For instance, the homonymous false friend “kabsa”, which is “a traditional dish composed of rice and meat” in the Saudi dialect and “a police raid” in the Egyptian dialect is humorously exploited by Egyptians to make jokes. One famous joke is: When an Egyptian saw some policemen approaching, he shouted, “kabsa”. “Where? I’m so hungry!” His Saudi friend seriously responded. Another intentional use of false friends is intended by speakers who want to satisfy a malicious desire depending on the homophonic nature of the false friend and the unawareness of the listeners. An example of this vicious use dates back to Prophet Moḥammad’s era in Medina; according to Al-Hilali and Khan (1995:20), “Râ’ina in Arabic means be careful; listen to us, and we listen

to you, whereas in Hebrew it means an insult, and the Jews used to say it to Prophet Mohammad with bad intentions". For this derisive connotation which this form of the verb had in Hebrew, God in the Qur'ân, the Holy Book of Muslims, commands believers not to say it to Prophet Moḥammad;

“yâ'ayyuha allathîna 'âmanû lâ taqûlû râ'inâ waqûlû unthurnâ” (Sûrat Al-Baqara, Âya 104)

"O you who believe! Say not (to the Messenger) *Râ'inâ* but say *Unzurna*" (Chapter of the Heifer, Verse 104)

The unintentional use, which this study concerns itself with, is intended by speakers of dialect A to fill a lexical gap when they communicate with speakers of dialect B.

A question here may arise: Which meaning theory can account for false friends? In fact, traditional meaning theories did not handle this linguistic feature, but one can explain and redefine false friends in the light of some semantic theories. For example, the referential theory introduces meaning as an outcome of the link between the referent and the referring expression in Language. This theory paves the way for the reader to perceive how language is used in a mono-dialectal situation. According to Lyons (1981), the referential theory considers the meaning of an expression as the meaning that refers to an object. The concepts of truthfulness and logic, which this theory focuses on, are opposite to the phenomenon of “false friends”; speakers usually match words to certain values, so when they choose a word, they do this according to the truth-value that the word determines, the truthfulness it refers to, and the logic it adds to the utterance in which it is used. Namely, if Y refers to X, then X is the truth that is related to Y in the mind of the speaker. This means that referential meanings are culturally bound and that a referential expression should be understood in relation to the culture of its users because it may stand for a different object in a different speech community. If one borrows Swiss linguist Saussure's (1983) terms about words and their meanings, one can redefine false friends as words that are identical in the signifier (orthography) but they vary in the signified (concept) and the referent (physical object). So, when a speaker utters or hears Y in a different environment, Y loses its logic and will be considered false. In American English, for instance, “to table a project” means to delay discussion on that project,

whereas it means the exact opposite in British English. Moreover, English word “chickpeas” and its Arabic loanword “hummus” are anisomorphic because the necessary condition and the sufficient set of conditions of the two words vary.

According to Hurford, Heasley and Smith (2007:99), “the necessary condition of a predicate is a condition (or criterion) which a thing must meet in order to qualify as being correctly described by that predicate [ and that] a sufficient set of conditions on the sense of a predicate [are] a set of conditions (or criteria) which, if they are met by a thing, are enough in themselves to guarantee that the predicate correctly describes that thing.” It is clear now why “chickpeas” refers to the seeds, whereas “hummus” means a dipping dish made from crushed chickpeas. In the semantic feature of Locke’s (1996) ideational theory, an interlocution is considered felicitous if lexemes, which are the signs of concepts, echo the same concepts retained in the interlocutors’ minds. The false friends phenomenon is the exact opposite of the ideational theory as the word in the speaker’s mind does not meet the idea in the hearer’s. Ludwig Wittgenstein (2009), in his posthumously published book *Philosophical Investigations*, introduces a holistic perspective on meaning. His contribution hinges on the “use” of lexemes, i.e. the sense of a word is governed by the way it is used. According to Wittgenstein, one should not look for the meaning of a word in one domain or seek for a specific type of form which represents sense because it relies on the context of use, the entire “form of life” that the converses have. This holistic usage, as described by Holm & Karlgren (1995:50), is as follows: “In order to understand an expression, you need to master a set of practical activities in which this expression is used.” One may claim that Wittgenstein’s theory of meaning stipulates that perceiving the various meanings of a word stems from how the word is used, not from the relationship between the word and its referent or the mental representations one could associate with it. This theory, one could argue, justifies the existence of false friends and considers them different words with various meanings as the essence of this theory is “meaning is use” but, as Wittgenstein (2009:48) states, “what confuses us is the uniform appearance of words when we hear them in speech, or see them written or in print. For their use is not that obvious”. This means that when *A is called P in D* and *B is called P in C*, *P in D* and *P in C* are two different words with two different meanings despite their etymological origin or homophonic nature. As for the confusion

that false friends cause, it is ascribed to the users who are not skeptical enough about the meanings of similar words in the two dialects and interpret them according to their dialect in lieu.

One might claim that the “intentionality theory”, “linguistic relativity theory” and “speech act theory” can best describe why false friends are illusive and how miscommunication occurs.

According to Husserl’s theory of intentionality (1973), the effect of false friends can be described as a result of the difference between the words that decode the mental states and the intensional definition which determines the properties that objects require to include in order to be counted as referents of these words. In other words, when *A* & *B* hear *X*, *p* & *q* are perceived respectively. That is to say, the representational gap between what McIntyre and Smith (1989:148) call “the intentionality of mental states and experiences as their feature of each being directed toward something.” is caused by false friends. Jacob (2019) supports this claim when he wonders, “How should one understand the relation between the content of an individual’s mental state and the meanings of external symbols used by the individual to express her internal mental states? ”

Although the linguistic relativity hypothesis (1929) (also known as the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis) does not tackle false cognates directly, it gives a plausible explanation for them and interprets why they exist. The core of the hypothesis is that people of different languages see the world differently according to their use of language. That is, language is not a mere medium of communication, but it influences our thought and shapes our perception of the world as well. In a way, linguistic relativity, as Lucy (2015: 85) argues, “stands in close relation to semiotic-level concerns with the general relation of language and thought, and to discourse-level concerns with how patterns of language use in cultural context can affect thought.” Color perception, which is a pivotal topic in the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis, best explicates how language shapes our worldview. Winawer et al. (2007), Tan et al. (2008), Zhou et al. (2010) introduces blue color perception experiment in English and Russian; Russian imposes a compulsory division between two shades of blue “goluboy, lit. light” and “siniy, lit. dark”, whereas this kind of division is not found in English. English and Russian speakers have been subjected to a test in order to measure the time each speakers take to differentiate between the grades

of blue and Russian speakers have taken less time to recognize the two blues simply because they have a word and a concept for each shade. Although the experiment is interlingual and irrelevant to false friends, it applies to intralingual false friends because the outcome is the same; when speakers of dialect *A* make a mandatory distinction between two referents by using two different labels that are synonyms in dialect *B*, speakers of dialect *A* are faster to discriminate the two objects, whereas speakers of dialect *B* consider them one object because the two words that refer to the two objects in dialect *A* are of one meaning in dialect *B* (*cf.* data analysis section below).

In a nutshell, linguistic relativity can be interlingual or intralingual and false friends are part of it, because they make two speech communities perceive things in the world differently via similar words.

False friends complications, particularly verbs, can be elucidated in terms of the speech-act theory introduced by Austin (1975). Communication failure takes place because directives, which have a world-to-word direction of fit, have (two) worlds-to-(one) word direction of fit in a given false-friends situation; despite the mutual perception of the illocutionary force of the utterance (attempting to get the addressee to do something), the perlocutionary act (the effect achieved in the addressee) is completely different. This failure, one claims, is ascribed to the illusive locutionary act uttered by the speaker. Moreover, applying the different maxims of Grice's (1975) cooperative principle (i.e., maxims of quantity, quality, relation, and manner) to any false-friends situation will yield wrong results, although they seem *prima facie* valid. The new expatriate will unintentionally violate the maxims and sub-maxims of the principle, namely, his contribution will be less informative (maxim of), false, lack adequate evidence.

One can conclude that any stretch of talk produced by a new Egyptian expatriate in Saudi Arabia cannot be pragmatically interpreted due to the absence of the epistemic context, therefore, all pragmatic theories, hypotheses, and models ought to be suspended.

### **Review of the literature**

Chamizo Dominoguez and Nerlich (2002) investigated the different types and sources of false friends in some Germanic and Romance languages. They differentiated between homonymous, polysemous and figurative false friends. As for the other studies

that tackled the false-friends phenomenon, most of them focused on its negative effect on learners of the other language or its implications for translation. For instance, Roca-Verla (2006) tackled false friends in American and British English from a lexical perspective; the study listed some false friends in the two dialects and explained the differences. It stated some reasons that might have given way to this linguistic feature. Roca-Verla (2006:8) concluded that this phenomenon “has implications in language teaching and learning.”

Sabaté-Carrové and Iván Chesñevar (2010) conducted a study to illustrate to what extent false friends exist in English and Spanish to the two languages and the reasons that led to their occurrence in English-Spanish translations. Another study was carried out by Topalova (2010). The study focused on the mistakes committed by Bulgarian undergraduates when using false friends in translation. A common feature amongst these studies is the lack of methodology and in-depth coverage of the phenomenon.

### **Objectives of the study**

In order to augment their income, many Egyptians have begun to expatriate to oil-rich Saudi Arabia for work since the 1950s. On the other hand, Saudis have been travelling to Egypt for tourism, education, and medical treatment since the 1950s as well. Nevertheless, this long-time contact between the two peoples could not eradicate the phenomenon of false friends in the two dialects. One might argue that the reason beyond the continuity of this linguistic phenomenon is that it is an individual experience that every new expatriate will encounter due to the lack of (i) studies done on it, (ii) manuals that draw the new expatriate’s attention to it and (iii) long-stayed – newcomers’ experience exchange. Since the words under investigation have not been tackled at any length, this study comes to bridge a research gap, document the phenomenon academically, and give an insightful scientific description of the misunderstanding that many new Egyptian expatriates have experienced due to meaning differences of some words in the Egyptian versus Saudi dialects.

The primary questions that the study attempts to address are:

1. To what extent do the two dialects share polysemies and homonyms?

2. To what extent should dictionary meaning help recognize the possible uses of the same lexeme in the two dialects?
3. Do polysemy and homonymy have the same effect on the semantic ambiguity in the topic under investigation?
4. Do false friends form a serious communicative problem?
5. What are the causes that led to false friends in the two dialects?

### **Methodology**

Since the topic under investigation is sociolinguistically related to two geographical varieties and discusses the semantic variation of the same word in the two dialects, the false friends are socio-semantically analyzed, because their semantic meaning differs according to use, context and environment. This method is recommended by Robinson (2012b: 226) as he states that “the wealth of observations made about semantic variation and change suggest that taking a sociolinguistic perspective in studies of meaning is a viable and beneficial methodological choice.” The theories discussed in the introduction section are part and parcel of the methodology adopted in this study.

Due to the lack of authenticated statistics and previous studies, this study cannot tackle false friends diachronically; one cannot confirm when the phenomenon started nor what the number of the evolutionary phases that marked the meaning shift of the false friends is. Furthermore, one cannot determine whether or not the false friends phenomenon is a continuous process. To clarify the terminology, dialect, diction, Arabic, and variety are used interchangeably in this study.

### **Data collection**

The researcher has collected forty-eight false friends via scrutiny, note-taking, and direct contact with Saudis and Egyptians living in Medina, Saudi Arabia. One cannot determine that the words analyzed below are all the false friends in the two dialects, so they are considered a mere sample for the study. The sample has been classified into nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. As for nouns, they have been subclassified into sections, each is concerned with a specific activity.

## Data analysis

At the beginning, one ought to differentiate between ambiguity that arises within a language and ambiguity that takes place between two languages or two dialects as a result of false friends. Word meanings are programmed in the mind of the speakers of language *X* according to their linguistic repertoire; an expression *A* is semantically ambiguous in context *D* if different senses *B* & *C* arise in the mind of the hearer in context *D*, i.e. *A means B or C in D*.

In the case of dialects, however, misunderstanding occurs when speakers of dialect *A* use one sense *P* in context *D* which is not known by the speakers of dialect *B* who use different sense *P* in context *D*. This can be formulated as follows:

*P* of dialect *A* in context *A* means *E* ≠ *P* of dialect *B* in context *B* means *E*

So, one may argue that false friends are so tricky to use as they may cause hilarious and embarrassing situations as well as a communication failure.

However, the linguistic trap that the new Egyptian expatriates in Saudi Arabia may fall into is found between many languages. According to Lingoda Team (2017), English learners of Spanish, for example, may use “embarazada” as it sounds like English “embarrassed” but it actually means “pregnant”. English interlocutors involved in a French dialogue may use “Préservatif” which means “condom” in French. English conversers in Berlin may use “gift” which means “poison” in German.

## Nouns

### Places

Some false friends lead to funny situations. For example, the polysemous false friend “maḥall”, which means (house) in the Saudi dialect and (shop) in the Egyptian diction, put the researcher himself in a funny situation, when a Saudi citizen invited him to his “maḥall” house. The conversation went as follows:

The Saudi citizen: “If you're not busy, you're welcome to my "maḥall" (house).

The researcher: “What kind of goods do you sell in your “maḥall” )shop(?”

The Saudi citizen: “I don't sell anything. I just live there.”

The researcher: "How can you live in a “maḥall” (shop?)”

The Saudi citizen realized the misunderstanding, so he added that “maḥall” means (house) in the Saudi dialect.

Another false friend resulted from the semantic broadening is “qasr”. Although it means (palace) in the two dialects, its meaning has been broadened to include “wedding hall” in the Saudi diction. Confusion occurs because Egyptians are unaware of the broadened meaning of the word along with the illusive context of polysemous words. So, an utterance like: “I’ll hold my wedding reception in a (palace) in Riyadh” is puzzling.

the Saudi diction, “il barr” is restricted to mean (outdoors) where one can camp, climb, hunt and barbecue, while Egyptians specialized its meaning to mean “land” as multiple incompatible with “sea” and “air or space”. Thus, an utterance like: “Next Thursday, we’re going “il barr” (outdoors), sounds odd when heard by a new Egyptian expatriate.

## **Food**

Some problems may arise and laughter may be evoked due to the different universe of discourse in the two dialects. For instance, the polysemous word “laban” in the Saudi dialect has been specialized to mean (butter milk), whereas it means (milk) in the Egyptian dialect. If a new Egyptian expatriate wants to buy a bottle of milk, he or she may get a bottle of butter milk in lieu. Semantically speaking, confusion arises because “laban” and “ḥalīb” are isomorphic synonyms in the Egyptian dialect.

One of the confusing words is the Turkish loanword “kabâb”; when new Egyptian expatriates order a “kabâb” (grilled pieces of mutton) meal, he or she will get a different kind of food (grilled finger-like minced meat). “kabâb” became a false friend because of the semantic variation of the loanword in the two dialects.

Another chance false friend that gives rise to confusion is the word “bûry” meaning “horn” or “bory fish”; confusion here is conditioned by neutral context. For instance, the false friend “bûry” in an utterance like “my car’s “bûry” horn is out of order” makes the expatriate wonder about the relationship between the car and the “bûry” fish and conclude that the intended meaning is different from what he or she retains in his or her mind, but an utterance like (yesterday, I bought “bûry”) is confusing because the context is neutral.

Another misunderstanding may take place when an Egyptian expatriate asks about a florist's where he or she can buy a bunch of flowers "zahr", he or she might find himself or herself at a greengrocer's buying a head of cauliflower "zahr" instead!

If a new Egyptian expatriate wants to buy some sweet potatoes (in Egyptian Arabic "baṭāṭa", the greengrocer could weigh some potatoes for him or her because potatoes are called "baṭāṭa" as well.

Although "shaḥm" means "animal fat" in Saudi and Classical Arabic, Egyptians specialized its meaning to mean "lubricant". This difference in meaning made it a false friend and tricky.

There are two polysemous false friends related to dates; the first one is "'ajwa", which refers to minced or pressed dates in the Egyptian diction. Miscommunication occurs because "'ajwa" in the Saudi diction refers to specific kind of dates originally cultivated in Medina and characterized by their high quality and expensive price.

The other false friend is "balaḥ". Egyptians call fresh dates "balaḥ", whereas Saudis use it to refer to green unripe dates. Each dialect uses the word "balaḥ" to describe a different stage of the dates growth cycle, so it is bewildering when new Egyptian expatriates ask for "balaḥ" to eat or buy.

The nonce borrowing "bacon" and the established loanword "beer" sound odd in a conservative Islamic country like Saudi Arabia; a new Egyptian expatriate cannot perceive an utterance like "I usually have a bacon sandwich and a bottle of beer for breakfast", simply because swine meat and fermented beverages are prohibited in Islam. Misunderstanding occurs because these two words are false friends that have been "halalified" to mean (bovine meat) and (non-alcoholic malt drink) respectively or the "ḥalâl" products have been deliberately mislabeled by the multinational franchises for socio-economic reasons. That is to say, fast-food chains attempt to afford a replicate western atmosphere to the upper-class youth who are fascinated by the western culture.

## **Clothes**

Some words of clothes in the two dialects are false friends and can lead to funny situations as one who wants to buy a man's garment may get a woman's and vice versa. For example, polysemous words such as "jalabiyya" and "bilûza, blouse" are problematic

as the former is specialized to refer to women's home wear in the Saudi dialect, while Egyptians use it to refer to rural men's wear and the latter is broadened by Saudis to refer to blouses and shirts alike, whereas Egyptians use the original meaning of the loanword "blouse, i.e. woman's upper garment". Moreover, if an Egyptian wants to buy a towel "fûta", he or she can get a skirt-like garment "lungi" instead. Also, if the new Egyptian expatriate does not know that the cloak that Saudis wear in winter is called "farwa", he or she may imagine that they wear goat skin, which is called "farwa" in the Egyptian diction.

The Persian loanword "tannûra" is puzzling, when it is used in a Saudi context because Egyptians restricted its meaning to modify a folk dance called "raqaset ittannûra", whereas Saudis kept its original meaning (skirt).

Egyptians lexically differentiate between "trousers" and "underpants" by using the French loanword "pantalon" for the former and the Arabicized Persian word "sirwâl" for the latter. As for Saudis, they adopt the long-established loanword "sirwâl" for the two garments. The word "sirwâl", therefore, is anisomorphic in the two dialects.

## **Other**

New Egyptian expatriates in Saudi Arabia may not comprehend that some words of their lexical repertoire are considered vulgar in the Saudi diction. An Egyptian may utter homonymous words like "makwa lit. iron", "boya, lit. paint", "zagg, lit. pushing forward" in their normal contexts according to the Egyptian diction, but they are considered obscene in the Saudi diction; their meanings are buttocks, tomboy, and shit respectively. Pragmatically speaking, any serious conversation that may contain these words is considered relevant, therefore, felicitous because the context does not suggest that the Egyptian interlocutor intends obscenity. However, embarrassment occurs when the Saudis hear these words because they unconsciously recall the vulgar meanings of these words in their diction. The situation could be more complicated if the words are used in neutral contexts. For instance, utterances like: "Your "makwa" is nice, my "makwa" is big and heavy duty, my daughter likes smelling "boya", come and "zugg" with me" are considered very offensive and could lead to trenchant criticism. Semantically speaking,

the denotations of these words in the Saudi dialect have changed into connotations of the Egyptian ones.

On the other hand, the Saudi use of some false friends can hurt feelings when Egyptians are addressed with. For instance, one of the strange false friends is the proper noun “Moḥammad” which changed into a derogatory form of address for random foreign workers. This false friend may lead to confusion when an Egyptian whose name is not “Moḥammad” is addressed as “Moḥammad” because he will not respond or respond aggressively if he is a long-stayer. Another false friend is the use of the attention-getting interjection “yâ walad, lit. Hey, boy!”. Although Saudis do not mean this offensively, Egyptians consider it an insult to be addressed with. Semantically speaking, the semantic content of these two words has been broadened to mean “words used to get the attention of random men”. Moreover, they have been packed with negative social meanings as they are usually used with expatriates, particularly manual workers, sanitation workers and shop assistants. In the Egyptian diction, “il’iyâl” means children or a derogatory expression that describes a group of people. The meaning of the same expression in the Saudi diction is drastically different; it is a laudatory term that describes a group of friends whatever their ages are. This wide variation results in confusing Egyptians because they use it as a pejorative term, whereas Saudis count it a token of intimacy. Another false friend, which Egyptians consider offensive, is the derogatory term “ḥurma”, which is as offensive as the North American term “broad”, whereas it is a neutral term in the Saudi dialect used to describe wives or random women. A way from the embarrassing state that the above false friends denote, the following words are perplexing as they have different referents in the two dialects. Most of these words refer to two different kinds of food, places, and clothes.

The polysemous word “‘arabiyya” is confusing in the two dialects because the use, context and other words related to it are partially common. Egyptians use it for “car”, while Saudis use it for “trolley”! Ambiguity risk, therefore, is increased and funny situations may arise.

Moreover, when a Saudi complains that his or her calf muscle “batta” hurts him or her, his or her Egyptian interlocutor will understand that the Saudi’s duck “batta” hurts him or her!

## Verbs

Since verbs represent actions or states, so one may claim that they are more serious than nouns; the one who will perform the action responds differently according to the given false friend, particularly when it is polysemous and the verb is an action verb. A command like “fokk il bâb” means (open the door) in the Saudi dialect, while it means (remove the door) in the Egyptian dialect. Another command related to door is the idiomatic expression “imsik il bâb” which means “get out”, whereas it literally means “touch/hold the door” in the Egyptian dialect. A verb like “yikhally” (to leave or put) means the contrary in the Egyptian dialect, i.e. (to keep or hold). So, when a Saudi says, “khalley ilgalam” he or she means (put the pen aside), but the Egyptians will respond by keeping the pen!

The preposition “‘ala” which collocates with the expressive verb “yiz‘al” in the Saudi dialect changed it into a polysemous false friend to mean (be not happy with someone), while in the Egyptian dialect it means (to pity someone). The difference between (I’m not happy with you) and (I pity you) is great, hence, it leads to confusion.

According to the felicity conditions categorized by Searle (1969), the above-mentioned directives and expressives are infelicitous because they do not meet the requirement of the propositional content condition which requires participants to understand language. In other words, the perlocutionary act of the hearer is different from the illocutionary force of the speaker due to the difference between the utterance act of the speaker and the propositional act of the hearer.

One might argue that metaphorically-used verbs are less problematic because the hearer might predict the intended meaning of the speaker by recognizing the similarities between the figurative and literal uses of the verb. Verb “yighalleg lit. to close” in utterance like “ghallagt il mohadara” (I finished the lecture) can be understood because its synonym “yi’afill” is used metaphorically in the Egyptian dialect as well. Prediction of the intended meaning is still potential even if the verb is used figuratively in one dialect and literally in the other. For example, verb “yihishsh” is figuratively used in the Saudi dialect to mean (to gossip or backbite). This meaning can be perceived by the Egyptians from the literal meaning of verb “yihishsh” (to cut grass with sickle) in their dialect as both uses have the basic meaning of “causing damage”. Verb “yurujj” is figuratively used

in the Saudi dialect meaning “to disturb”, whereas Egyptians use it literally to mean “shake”, so Egyptians can infer the intended meaning by linking between “disturb” and “shake”. The similar figurative and literal representation of the verb, the facial expression, the tone of voice and the context in which it is used may make the hearer deduce the intended meaning as well.

Other verbs are counted false friends because of the orthographical and phonological variation. In Classical Arabic, for example, “yihhammis” with /s/ and “yihhammis” with emphatic /s/ are two variants of the same meaning, (to roast or grill). Saudis adopt the former, whereas Egyptians use the latter, but confusion rises because “yihhammis” with /s/ is restricted to mean “excite” in Egyptian Arabic. The same process applies to “yihhssim” with /s/ and “yikhhssim” with emphatic /s/. Saudis use “yihhssim” to mean (to discount or cut off). In contrast, Egyptians restrict this variant to mean (to decide or settle down) and use the other variant, namely “yikhhssim” to mean (to discount or cut off) instead.

Semantic narrowing of the meaning of some verbs may result in confusion. Verb “yisawwi” has been narrowed to mean “to cook” in the Egyptian dialect and restricted in the Saudi dialect to mean (do or handle). The homonymous verb “yit’ati’a” may lead to misunderstanding; it means (to mock) in the Saudi dialect, while it means (to rattle) in the Egyptian dialect. The homonymous verb “yisallik” is illusive as it means (to clean\clear) in the Egyptian dialect, but Saudis use it when they describe someone who pretends to care to what a converser is saying. So, an utterance like (don't believe him. He is pretending to care to what you're saying.) is nonsensical as the Egyptian hearer interprets it as (don't believe him. He is cleaning\clearing for you!). Furthermore, polysemous verb “yi’allim” might be embarrassing when a Saudi student uses it with his or her Egyptian teacher as in (I'll let you know) because the latter understands it as (I'll teach you!)

### **Adverbs**

The only adverb detected as a false friend is “marra”. Although it is an adverb in the two dialects, its meaning is different; it is used as an adjective intensifier (very) in the Saudi dialect, whereas it functions as an adverb of time meaning (once) in the Egyptian dialect. One could argue that the confusion that may arise from this false friend can be

cleared up easily because of the different usage and the slot it occupies in the two dialects. For instance, the slot and use in (this ring is “marra” expensive.) and (I’ve only met Fahd “marra”) make the hearer rethink of the new meaning of “marra” .

### **Adjectives**

Adjectives are as rare as adverbs. The adjectives that the researcher could collect are the homonymous “misakkar” which means (closed) in the Saudi dialect and (sugary) in the Egyptian diction and “minawim” which means (admitted patient) in the Saudi dialect and (sleeping pills) in Egyptian Arabic. One could claim that the easiest part of speech to disambiguate is adjectives because the nouns they modify make the hearer disregard the meaning he or she previously knows and ask for more information or guess the meaning from the context. For example “bâb misakkar” (closed door) can never be understood as a (sugary door). In such a case, one can argue that the grammatical functions of adjectives and nouns are reciprocal– that is, they modify each other. Although “minawim” is a homonymous adjective, misunderstanding is potential, because the nouns it modifies, patient and pills respectively, are omitted in the two dialects. Moreover, the words that usually used with this adjective in the two contexts, e.g. *hospital, illness, doctors* are the same.

The lexical ambiguity that arises from false friends can be categorized as either polysemous or homonymous; they have been shown to have different effects on the behavior of Egyptians living in Saudi Arabia, particularly in the Hijaz region.

On the face of it, interrelated semantic aspects of lexemes (polysemies) ought to facilitate meaning recognition and unrelated meanings (homonyms) slow down processing time that the speaker of the other dialect may take to fathom it out. However, true is the opposite with the topic under discussion, the analysis above has revealed that polysemous words prolong the time of misunderstanding due to the overlapping meaning in the two dialects. In other words, the shared-meaning words are more problematic than the homonymous ones; the speaker and the hearer of the other dialect find no immediate confusion when they commit some action. The wrong response will be discovered after the action is completely performed. The classical example of the word “laban”, which most Egyptians experience, supports this hypothesis, i.e. misunderstanding occurs from

the time he or she picks up the bottle of “laban\milk” to the time he or she uncaps the bottle and starts drinking. On the other hand, homonymous false friends could be momentary because the context in which these words are used is usually different! However, the risk is still possible if the context is neutral. For example, the false friend “sawâlif” which means (tales) in the Saudi diction and (sideburns) in the Egyptian diction can cause misunderstanding if it is said in a neutral context like (your “sawâlif” are long) or (your “sawâlif” are nice). Furthermore, the situation is worsened if verb “yisabsib” is used with “sawâlif” because “yisabsab (fi) swalifuh” is a collocation that means (to comb one’s sideburns) in the Egyptian dialect, whereas the same collocation means (to insult during telling tales). Moreover, false friends- polysemous or homonymous- that have abstract meanings in one dialect and concrete ones in the other - or vice versa- can be easily recognized. A false friend like “ḥalâl” (“livestock” in the Saudi dialect and “permitted by Shari’a” in the Egyptian diction) will be immediately recognized by Egyptians if it is used in utterances like: “my ḥalâl died”, “he has a large number of ḥalâl” or “they sold their ḥalâl”. The wrong morphological formation of butcher’s in the Saudi diction “malḥama” can never be thought of as (an epic) or (fierce war), when a Saudi says, “Yesterday, I went to “il-malḥama” to buy meat.” The difference between the abstract noun “‘azîma” (strong will) in the Egyptian diction and its concrete homonymous variant “‘azîma” (banquet) in the Saudi diction can be easily recognized as the context of each use is different.

### **Causes of false friends**

From the analysis above, one could claim that the causes which might have led to false friends in the two dialects may be crystallized into the following:

#### **a) Broadening**

Some words have been broadened in the Saudi diction. As a result, the broadened meaning is regarded as a false friend in the Egyptian diction in which this semantic process did not take place. The new meaning which is added to the proper noun “Moḥammad”, namely (a form of addressing random men), (wedding hall) included in the word (palace) and (place of residence) that the word “maḥall” contains count as perplexing words for new Egyptian expatriates.

## **b) Narrowing**

The meaning of some words has been narrowed to one shade in one dialect and restricted to another in the other dialect. For instance, “laban” and “balah” are narrowed in the two dialects.

## **c) Orthographical, phonological and morphological variation**

Orthographical variation can be a source of false friends (*cf.* yih<sub>h</sub>ammis with /s/ and yih<sub>h</sub>ammis with emphatic /s̄/, yikh<sub>h</sub>ssim with emphatic /s̄/ and yih<sub>h</sub>ssim with /s/. The morphological variation results from the wrong derivation of some nouns like “malhama” and “‘azîma” that creates homonymous false friends.

## **e) Borrowing**

A potential cause of false friends is borrowing some words from other languages, but their meanings have changed differently over time. The Turkish loanword “kabâb”, the English loanword “bilûza” (blouse) and the Persian loanwords “tannûra” and “sirwâl” are good examples for the meaning shift that took place in the two dialects.

## **Conclusion**

In fact, the phenomenon of false friends plays a role in deepening the lexical gap between the two dialects, inhibiting felicitous communication, and aggravating misunderstanding. Nevertheless, the study has revealed that the linguistic gap and communication inhibition vary in degree.

Although polysemous words are trap-like, i.e. the users of polysemous words discover that they are in the wrong direction after full misunderstanding occurs due to the common shade of meaning in the two dialects, they prevent the risk of using words of obscene meanings and consequently putting in embarrassing situations is very low due to the several meanings linked by the contiguity of meaning within the same semantic domain retained in the speaker of the other dialect. On the other hand, homonymous words are easy to discover because of the evident irrelevance between the word and the context in which it is used, yet the risk of putting in embarrassing situations is high and that is why all the obscene words discussed above are homonyms.

Although misunderstanding resulting from false cognates is temporary and speakers who commit mistakes or misbehave as a result of using false friends are not formally

blamed, assuming that the newcomer has acted bona fide, they may leave undesirable memories and make a bad impression on the new expatriate.

The study has also revealed that our perception of word uses is incomplete, unless other uses of the same word are checked in the other dialect and the dictionary meaning is misleading when communicating with people of the other dialect, because false friends alter the semantic properties of words.

Can “false friends” become “true friends” one day? Theoretically speaking, one claims that it is possible if the different meanings of one word in the two varieties are merged and used massively in the other dialect, but, on the ground, no false friends become “true friends” after over half a century of intensive communication.

### **Recommendations**

Miscommunication is still potential for new Egyptian expatriates in Saudi Arabia unless they acquire the “new” semantic content of the false friends. Currently, the acquisition of false friends is coincidentally got via experience (.i.e. after the occurrence of misunderstanding) or through long-stayed expatriates (i.e. before the occurrence of misunderstanding). This means that the false-friends acquisition process is coincidental and arbitrary.

To avoid the negative consequences of false friends among speakers of the Arabic dialects ab initio, linguists of Arabic should recognize this de facto linguistic feature and lexicographers should compose a glossary of false friends that includes all the treacherous entries in every two or more Arabic dialects. This suggestion has been taken from Robert Hill (1982) who considers false cognates deceiving. As a teacher of English as a foreign language, he noticed that many students misunderstood the meaning of some English words. So, he compiled “*A Dictionary of False Friends*”.

Pedagogically speaking, one recommends that illiterate Egyptian workers who travel to Saudi Arabia for the first time ought to be provided by a filmed material that shows the meaning differences of false friends in the two dialects. False-friends verbs that constitute the different speech acts could be easily disambiguated by videos; according to Bagherkazemi (2020: 43) “authentic speech act video input can expose learners to a

variety of contexts and picture all the contextual features implicating in speech act performance.”

## References

- Al-Hilâlî, M. & Khân, M. (1995). Translation of the Meaning of the Noble Qur'ân. Medina: King Fahd Complex.
- Austian, John L. (1975). How to do Things with Words, (ed.) J.O. Urmson and Marina Sbisa. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Bagherkazemi, M. (2020). Individual/Collaborative Output vs. Input Enhancement and Metapragmatic Awareness Raising: Impacts on Immediate and Delayed Speech Act Production. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 24(3), 27-49. Retrieved from: <https://www.elejournals.com/asian-efl-journal/volume-24-issue-3-may-2020/>
- Chamizo- Dominguez, P.J & Nerlich, B. (2002). False friends: Their origin and semantics in some selected languages. *Journal of Pragmatics* 34 (02), 1833–1849. Retrieved from <http://www.biblioteca.uma.es/bbl/doc/articulos/16637732.pdf>
- Grice, H.P. (1975). Logic and conversation. in Cole, P. & Morgan, J. (1980), *Syntax and semantics*, Volume 3, New York: Academic Press.
- Hill, R. J. (1982). A Dictionary of False Friends. London: Macmillan
- Holm. P & Karlgren. K (1995). Theories of meaning and different perspectives on information systems. Retrieved from [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/221112789\\_Theories\\_of\\_meaning\\_and\\_different\\_perspectives\\_on\\_information\\_systems](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/221112789_Theories_of_meaning_and_different_perspectives_on_information_systems)
- Hurford, J.R, Heasley, B., & Smith, M.B. (2007). Semantics: A course book (ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Husserel, E. (1973). Experience and Judgment: Investigation in a Genealogy of Logic (J. Churchill & K. Ameriks, Trans.). Evanston: Northwestern University Press.
- Ioana, H. (2017). The threat of "false friends" in learning English. Retrieved from <http://www.intranslations.com/admin/files/falsefriends.pdf>
- Jacob, P. (2019). Intentionality. In *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Edward

- N. Zalta (ed.). Retrieved from  
<https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/win2019/entries/intentionality>
- Lingoda Team. (2017). False Friends: Do Not Trust These Words! Retrieved from <https://blog.lingoda.com/en/false-friends>
- Locke, J. (1996). *An essay concerning human understanding*. Oxford: Oxford U P.
- Lucy, J. A. (2015). Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. In *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Science* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Retrieved from:  
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/psychology/sapir-whorf-hypothesis>
- Lyons J (1981). *Language, Meaning & Context*. Fontana Paperbacks
- Macedo, A. R. (2001). Sociolinguistics. Retrieved from <https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/college-artslaw/cels/essays/sociolinguistics/macedo6.pdf>
- McIntyre, R. & Woodruff Smith, D. (1989). Theory of Intentionality. In J. N. Mohanty & William R. McKenna (eds.), *Husserl's Phenomenology: A Textbook* (pp. 147-79). Washington, D. C.: Center for Advanced Research in Phenomenology and University Press of America.
- Meetham, A.R. (1969), *Encyclopedia of Linguistics. Information and Control*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Robinson, J. (2012b.) A sociolinguistic perspective on semantic change, in Kathryn Allan, and Justyna A. Robinson (eds.), *Current Methods in Historical Semantics* pp. 199–230 Berlin; Boston: de Gruyter Mouton
- Roca-Verla. M.L. (2006) *Intralingual False Friends: British English and American English as a case in point* Retrieved from:  
<http://www.spertus.es/Publications/Luisa/Intralingual%20False%20Friends.pdf>
- Roca-Verla. M.L. (2010). The problem of false friends in learner language.  
[http://www.spertus.es/Publications/Luisa/The%20problem%20of%20false%20friends%20in%20learner%20language\\_Evidence%20from%20two%20learner%20corpora.%20pdf.pdf](http://www.spertus.es/Publications/Luisa/The%20problem%20of%20false%20friends%20in%20learner%20language_Evidence%20from%20two%20learner%20corpora.%20pdf.pdf)
- Sabaté-Carrové, M., & Iván Chesñevar, C. (2010). False friends in English-Spanish

- translations in computer science literature. *Perspectives: Studies in Translation Theory and Practice* 6(1), 47-59.  
doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.1998.9961322
- Sapir, E. (1929). The Status of Linguistics as a Science. In E. Sapir (1958): *Culture, Language and Personality* (ed. D. G. Mandelbaum). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press
- Saussure, F. de (1983). *Course in General Linguistics* (Bally, C., & Sechehaye, Eds) (R. Harris, trans.). London: Duckworth
- Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Tan, H., Chan, A., Kay, P., Khong, P., Yip, L., & Luke, K. (2008). Language affects patterns of brain activation associated with perceptual decision. Retrieved from: <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0800055105>
- Topalova, M. (2010). 'False friends' in translation work: An empirical study *Perspectives: Studies in Translation Theory and Practice* 4(2), 215-222. doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.1996.9961288
- Vinay, J.P., & Darbelnet, j. (1995). *Comparative Stylistics of French and English: A methodology for Translation* (trans. & ed. by Sager, J. C. & Hamel, M. J.). Philadelphia: J. Benjamins Pub. Co.
- Wakelin, M.F. (1977). *English Dialects: An Introduction*. London: Athlone Press.
- Winawer, J., Witthoft n., Frank, M. C., Wu, L., Wade, A. R., and Boroditsky, L. (2007). Russian blues reveal effects of language on color discrimination. *PNAS*, 104 (19) 7780-7785. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0701644104>
- Wittgenstein, L. (2009). *Philosophical Investigations* (Anscombe, G. Hacker, P. and Schulte, J., trans.) (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Retrieved from: [https://edisciplinas.usp.br/pluginfile.php/4294631/mod\\_resource/content/0/Ludwig%20Wittgenstein%2C%20P.%20M.%20S.%20Hacker%2C%20Joachim%20Schulte.%20Philosophical%20Investigations.%20Wiley.pdf](https://edisciplinas.usp.br/pluginfile.php/4294631/mod_resource/content/0/Ludwig%20Wittgenstein%2C%20P.%20M.%20S.%20Hacker%2C%20Joachim%20Schulte.%20Philosophical%20Investigations.%20Wiley.pdf)
- Zhou, K., Mo, L., Kay, P., Kwok, V., Ip, T., & Tan, L. (2010). Newly trained lexical categories produce lateralized categorical perception of color. Retrieved from: <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1005669107>



## **The Perceptions of EFL Teachers and Students on the use of Short Stories to Enhance Reading Comprehension**

**Sami Hussein Hakeem Barzani**

*English Language Teaching Department, Faculty of Education,*

*Tishk International University, Kurdistan Region-Iraq*

[Sami.hussein@tiu.edu.iq](mailto:Sami.hussein@tiu.edu.iq)

### **Bio-profile:**

**Sami Hussein Hakeem Barzani (Ph.D. Candidate)** is an Asst. lecturer in the department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education, Tishk International University. His fields of interest are pragmatics, second language acquisition, error analysis, and teaching English through literature.

### **Abstract**

Numerous studies have shown that short stories have a profound effect on the language competence of the learners, as well as being an innovative literary source to motivate them in creating a positive attitude towards the target language. Undeniably, Literature is culture specific, so that exposure to literary texts assists learners to know more about the unfamiliar and hidden aspects of the TL. Such features, to a great extent, might seem difficult to be attained without the inclusion of literary texts. Furthermore, introducing literary texts in the reading lessons allows learners to experience authentic material and thus become familiar with the TL culture, which is essential when learning another language as it allows students to learn the language in its natural contexts. Considering the various benefits of the of short story utilization in the EFL classroom, the present paper investigated the perceptions of university teachers and students towards the use of short stories for developing the reading comprehension skill. To do so, a

qualitative research design was used in which data were collected using semi-structured interviews. In this regard, 20 participants (10 teachers & 10 students) were interviewed. The findings indicated that both participant groups consider short stories as an effective and essential tool for developing reading comprehension as well as other language mastery skills. Further, analysis revealed that there exist no significant differences between them regarding the above mentioned point.

**Keywords:** *Short story, literary texts, Reading Comprehension, perceptions.*

## **Introduction**

In the last few decades particularly after advances in information and communications technology, there has been a growing interest in English. The importance of English cannot be denied as a global means of communication which have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020; OUSSOU, 2020; El Motabit, 2020). Nowadays, the integration of communicative approaches in the process of teaching a second language is gaining more popularity by EFL teachers. Undoubtedly, this new viewpoint leads to a more independent and conscious learning on the part of the learners, in addition to enabling them to think critically and logically. In this line, lately, the inclusion of short stories in the process of language teaching, in general, and in developing reading comprehension, in specific, has been accredited by many ELT experts (Littlewood, 2000, as cited in Handayani, 2013). So it is generally seen that learners lack motivation when introduced to the TL mainly because of the traditional material(s) and methods used by the teachers (sivasurbramaniam, 2007 & Pathan, 2012). More importantly, in addition to the previous points, in my experience of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for a long time led me to come across some obstacles that were not related to the teaching of certain language aspects but were more complex in nature. The students did not seem to grasp the whole meaning of the information given which created the presence of a large vacuum between the students and myself, caused mostly by the lack of knowledge and the perception of the essence of the TL culture. For every cultural aspect that was

dominant in the texts a broad explanation followed in order for them to create a vivid picture of the information conveyed by the texts.

The above misconceptions would not pose much of a problem if literature of the TL language was introduced regularly at an early age and level. For most learners this would be a great and unforgettable experience, as it would be the closest for them to come into contact with the genuineness of the TL without actually setting foot in its territory, having in mind that language and culture are inseparable. Datta (2004) claims that “Language is not just a naming system. The significance of people’s way of life is interpreted culturally and the named things in any language are products of its culture”(p. 17). Therefore culture constitutes a large part in the process of successful language learning by allowing the learners to associate language with meaning or vice versa.

Literary texts in all languages contain culture specific meanings, which sustain the fluidity of the various languages, making them unique in nature. The works remain as a record of the period it was written in and can be interpreted in many ways. For instance, Collie & Slater (2005) explain that even though works of literature do not remain the same like Shakespeare’s plays which were modified to suit the tastes of the readers of modern times, they travel through time and access different cultures to send their messages to different readers in different countries. Literary works can be described as being authentic material as they are presented in ‘real’ context. Reading literary texts regularly also allows learners to expand their lexicon because literature provides a rich context in which vocabulary and grammatical items are made more memorable.

Recycling, as it has been proven in literature is a very important consideration. It is not sufficient to present and practice a language item once and considered done. Interestingly, literary texts, especially stories allow learners to get acquainted with new syntactical aspects, certain vocabularies and other language skills and extensively review them. Additionally, this assists the learners to develop cognitive and academic skills, enrich their lexicon, rules of conversation, linguistic knowledge and finally they would be able to use and apply this knowledge in appropriate and correct sentences. Similarly, as Erakya (2003) points out the use of short stories would benefit learners in a number of ways, namely motivational, literary, cultural and higher-order thinking benefits.

We all have learnt our native languages with no direct instruction in the natural order of listening, speaking, reading and writing, though most people speak their language fluently without having to learn to read or write (Krashen, 2005). The normal order of learning any language informs us that the language skills support each other and thus are explicitly inseparable. When learning another language it is also favorable for the learner to learn the language in the respective order. However, this is rather hard to achieve because the learners will be exposed to the FL through print/texts from the initial stages of learning as this is the only readily available source of the FL (Datta, 2004). “Reading” involves interpreting text into sounds or spoken words; ‘comprehension’ involves decoding meaning from those words. Consequently, these two skills (reading & comprehension) should not be taught separately. Hence, the learner’s comprehension skills should be developed through stories (as well as other genres of literature) and through speaking and listening activities at the same time as they are being taught decoding skills. Once a child has fluency in the reading, comprehension becomes the greater focus (Pokharel, 2018).

In this regard, Pokharel (2018) claims that reading plays an effective role in a L2 teaching; this skill with a good teachers’ company and support consents the learners to enter the world of literacy and hence education, as it is the source for knowledge achievement. Furthermore, it supports the other skills because by reading a person’s lexicon expands and therefore makes him a better speaker and writer. Also through extensive reading a person can become a better listener because he/she will be more able to understand and follow instructions given by other people.

Likewise structuring a literacy talk throughout the reading session enables learners to engage themselves emotionally, intellectually, and imaginatively to the stories, and should be encouraged to add their personal touches or opinions. Introducing this strategy in every reading session allows learners to overcome misunderstanding or misinterpreting the reading text. Datta (2004) asserts that reading experiences when used creatively can be an unforgettable experience for language learners to learn about how language is portrayed in text and further shows them the inherent relationship between reading and the other language skills.

This study, having the opinions of the advantages of literature and its enclosure in the EFL context in mind, endeavors to uncover the perceptions of EFL university teachers and students towards the use of short stories in the EFL classroom. This is not to forget; in following this method of teaching the priority for teachers is to assist learners building a durable and firm literary footing in the achievement of a near native-like competence. Not only provide them with basic skills but also with copious opportunities to think critically and creatively.

### **Review of Related Literature**

The English language as we all know is the Lingua Franca of the world and because of its widely spoken status the world seems to have become a small village. For this reason, language teachers worldwide are constantly changing, modifying or replacing existing models for new ways to suit the demanding and varying needs of their students. This shift has mainly aroused from teachers looking for more natural ways for their students to be able to achieve near-native language competence or acquisition on all the levels. The use of literature in the EFL classroom has gained popularity again (Collie & Slater, 2005). For nearly a decade or so literature in its various forms has been integrated into the classroom after receiving marginal attention because of its claimed ‘structural complexity’. This old notion is long gone and it has been proved that literature enhances teachers and learners alike in achieving their goals. For teachers can deal with material which is an actual portrayal of the TL, thus creating new innovative ways for motivating their students to actually learn and accomplish tremendous results.

Mourão (2009) itemized 30 outstanding reasons for using short stories in ELT classrooms under the labels of socio-affective, cognitive, aesthetic, cultural and linguistic. The beginning of the third millennium, the 2000s, has shown a turning point in including literary texts in the teaching of the English language with focus on all four language skills equally not just for reading as all the skills complement each other. As the mastering of one is dependent on the other just like in the case of speakers when learning their mother tongue who master the four skills in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Krashen, 2005).

Many researchers carried out studies involving short stories to motivate or develop learner's (from different age groups) reading comprehension achievement. For instance, Kharaghani's (2013) way for showing the effect of short stories on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners was quite similar to the other studies as the 100 Pre University students at Azad University of Mashhad were also separated into two different groups. The control group was taught by the traditional methods whereas the experimental group was introduced to short stories. The data was analyzed statistically from data collected from a test and a questionnaire which showed that using short stories will develop and increase students' reading comprehension.

Taghizadeh (2016) examined the influence of incorporating simplified stories in EFL contexts on reading comprehension aptitude of Iranian English language learners. This study comprised of 36 (male and female) EFL learners that were randomly selected and their ages ranged between 18 and 22. These students were also divided into two groups; while, the control group was taught using a textbook called "A basic course in English for university students", the experimental group was typically taught using short stories. Data was collected using a questionnaire and a pre-post- test. The results which were analyzed statistically showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the reading test.

Abu Zahra and Farrah (2016) used a questionnaire to study students' attitudes towards the use of short stories. The sample of this study included second and fourth year students majoring in English at Hebron University, Palestine. Data were collected using a questionnaire, 80% of the participants were female while the rest were male. The results exposed that there exist a statistically significant difference in the attitudes of the students regarding the utilization of short stories due to Grade Point Average. Conversely, no statistically significant difference was revealed due to gender, seniority, and major. In a nutshell, the findings attested that the students held positive attitudes towards the use of short stories in the EFL classroom.

Looking at the promising findings shows that what is presented in the language classroom affects the quality of the language learnt. Therefore, it is as O'Connell (2009) proposes when introducing literary texts in the FL classroom, "the role of the language teacher as a carrier of cultural messages is central to certain understandings of language

teaching. Implicit in the concept is that the culture and values that underpin a language cannot be divorced from the language itself, and that an appreciation of certain key cultural concepts are required for a true understanding of the language being learnt”(p.555). Seeing this as language teachers, it is ones duty to create models for teaching language in the most natural contexts for the benefits of the learners to achieve near native competence of the TL without travelling to where it is spoken. This, is believed by many researchers to be achieved by introducing culturally rich materials in the classroom as in this case short stories (Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman 2011; Rabba 2012; Handayani 2013; Sari 2013; Zeraatkar & Hadipanah 2013).

### **Methodology**

For investigating EFL university teachers’ and students’ perceptions towards the use of short stories for developing the reading comprehension skill, a qualitative research method was carried out. To do so, a semi-structured interview was used which generally asked about the traditional way for teaching English as a foreign language and their different insights about the use of short stories in teaching and learning reading comprehension and a language in general.

### **Participants**

As the study aimed to elicit perceptions of EFL teachers and students regarding the effects of short stories on reading comprehension development, therefore, the participants comprised of two groups. The first group consisted of then undergraduate EFL students (4 male & 6 female). These learners all had some background of the English language prior to attending the respective departments. The second group included 10 EFL teachers (5 male & 5 female). All teachers had different years of experience in teaching the English language. Also, they all had claimed that they introduced different methods and materials in their lessons and all had taught literary texts at some point in their teaching experiences.

## **Research Questions**

1-What are the perceptions of teachers and students on the use of short stories to enhance reading comprehension?

2- How do these perceptions and viewpoints of the students and teachers compare?

## **Data Collection and Analysis**

To collect data, as mentioned previously, a semi-structured interview comprised of two sets (for teachers and students) each of seven open-ended questions was used. The analysis of qualitative data is not a straightforward task. Due to its nature, the analysis of such data should be carried out with at most attention because of subjectivity and bias issues. Therefore, the researcher gives ultimate efforts and pursued consultation of another expert in the field for the analysis of the collected data. To do so, the data were transcribed first and each participants' transcript was labeled with T1, T2, T3, etc. for teachers and S1, S2, S3, etc. for students. Then after reading the transcripts in detail they were coded and summarized under five different themes, namely 1) *Interest in Reading*, 2) *Change in Teaching Methods and Material*, 3) *Increasing Motivation and Performance*, 4) *Short Stories to Enhance the Language Skills, especially Reading Comprehension*, and 5) *Portrayal of TL Culture*. Through this way a clearer picture of the participants' responses were attained.

## **Results/ Key Formulated Themes**

### **1. Interest in Reading**

The researcher's intention for asking the question, *how often do you read and what do you like reading?* was purely to see whether the participants were interested in reading or not, this in turn would reflect on their teaching or learning later on. Looking at the answers of all the participants, 18 out of 20 liked to read often and interestingly 16 of which claimed they like reading 'short stories' or 'fiction' as some referred to it. One teacher even mentioned the reasons for choosing to read novels and short stories:

Participant 7, T3, ... *"Well, it depends, you know I am kind of busy now, but generally speaking, I can say that I read a lot, despite being very busy, I always try to find time for reading. Generally, I like all literary works, but I am much in love with novels and short*

*stories. You know, these two kinds of literary works encourage you to follow the events eagerly, and even are easier to maintain the ideas”.*

Participant 8, S5, ....*“I read moderately, I mean I read whenever I have time because due to having lots of assignments sometimes it is very difficult to find a free time for reading. Well, I like short stories more, because they are not very long, so you can find a free time to get finish it soon and at the same time learn something good from them as well.”*

Participant 14, S7,....*“I used to read a lot before 2 years ago. Currently, I read once in a while. I like to read mystery, horror, and fiction. Sometimes I read other types, depends on the content and how it attracts me.”*

So it can be said, as one scholar clarifies, that reading experiences can be an asset when used creatively by language teachers or learners to see how language is portrayed in written text, especially narratives (in this case), as well as for them to explore the inherent relationship between reading and the other language skills (Datta, 2004) Also not forgetting that, reading experiences enables the readers to inhabit the text and become a part of it, therefore reflecting and touching their lives in so many ways (Graham & Kelly, 2000; Center, 2005).

## **2. Change in Teaching Methods and Material**

Most teachers and students aided the idea of changing existing material(s) and methods in the EFL class to more current practices to ensure that the teaching and learning styles are in accordance with more modern perspectives. The answers of the participants in general showed that 17 out of 20 agree to the change of traditional materials and methods in the class. Also, most of the recipients highlight the point that learners nowadays want to be more involved in their learning process rather than to be passive, which they claim to be the label always attached to the traditional ways of teaching and learning. This is mainly due to the ‘course book culture’ as many advocates refer to it , in which learners are made to learn a set of rules in a parrot fashion way solely for the

purpose to pass tests or exams and neglecting the communicative role of language (Sivasurbramaniam, 2007 & Pathan, 2012).

Participant 13, T7, ....*“I think it is an old way of teaching there are many problems facing students because they are sitting listening passively not concentrating or participating.... However, when the teachers use the new methods such as cooperative and TPR, the situation is different....they learn in an interesting way and they became a part of learning process.. this helps them... increase their critical thinking and they learn faster because they are a part of the learning process.”*

One learner, however, as seen in her speech below stated that more modern works from the same genre should be introduced.

Participant 14, S7, ....*“in high school, most of the works presented are for Shakespeare, we got benefits from it, but it would be better to change it, because it has many old English terms and nowadays we don't use them, maybe it would be better to read for some modern.”*

### **3. Increasing Motivation and Performance**

All the participants, 20 out of 20, agreed that the use of Literature or short stories motivated the learners, as well as increasing their performance later on in the learning process. Considering the fact that the teachers' and students' questions were quite different sets, there were questions that asked about the general theme even though not directly mentioning, for example 'motivation' or 'performance' in this case. The questions that were addressed to the students were *What do you think of the idea of using Short Stories to learn English?* and *How do you think Literature, in this case short stories would help in learning the TL?* Whereas, the questions for the teachers, the words 'motivation' and 'performance' were explicitly mentioned.

An example of a teacher's and a student's answer shows how short stories can rapidly increase motivation and thus increase performance extensively, it is as Datta (2004) claims that “the class teachers love for language and literature in these literacy events is visible” to the learners and she further points out that “when language is expressive at both verbal and non-verbal levels, [learners] are moved by the new

language” (p. 62). The teacher then, is seen to provide the students with a sense of the TL, touching the learners on many levels intellectual, linguistic, personal and imaginative and going beyond just the use of instructional language (Datta, 2004):

Participant 5, T2,... *“Stories are naturally interesting to learners who are mostly curious how stories unfold or end. As such a good selection and appropriate support will motivate learners...*

*.....IT will change becomes whiles reading novels may take longer and become difficult to complete in a short time, stories are different. Short stories will give the needed grammatical structures, literary construction or devices, teach learners about paragraphing, cohesion, cohesion and all that they may need in their language development.”*

Participant 4, S 3,.. *“I think it is very useful I enjoy short stories very much and also practice some grammar too. Grammar by itself is boring I can say but short stories add interest,....*

*.....In my opinion it is very effective due to the fact that they are short the students won't get bored even if they don't like to read and maybe by this way they will start to like too. They practice the language in an effective way by using short stories”.*

#### **4. Short Stories to Enhance the Language Skills, especially Reading Comprehension**

The answers showed that 19 participants stated that short stories enhanced reading comprehension, whereas all the 19 participants claimed that also the other language skills could be developed when introducing short stories to EFL classes. For instance, a teacher emphasized that:

Participant 1, T1, .... *“I think we can use short stories to teach four language skills by preparing activities related to the context of the short stories. We can prepare discussion questions to enhance their speaking. We can help them to write a short play to enhance their writing skills. We can play the audio version of the short story to enhance the listening skills.”*

Also one student, (participant 4) claimed that: .... *“I think it is very useful and done effectively. We take turns and read we also practice pronunciation not only reading, we develop our understanding by Literature so I am glad we have Literature in our curriculum and we are taught by the teachers who know how to use it effectively.”* after being asked, what do you think about the way your teachers use literature to enhance your reading comprehension?

These two reports highlight Collie and Slater’s (1991) statement cited in Pathan (2013) that short stories develop or enhance the reading comprehension skill due to various practical reasons. Some of which are that short stories are short in length and can be completed in one or two sessions; in addition, students can work with them individually due to their uncomplicated nature.

#### **5. Portrayal of TL Culture**

This last but very important point was only commented on by the teachers as they were specifically asked the question, *How do you think Short Stories help in the understanding of the TL culture?* All the 10 teachers agreed that language and culture are inseparable and showed positive attitudes towards short stories as being a good source in understanding or portraying the TL culture for various reasons some of which are:

Participant 1, T1,... *“I think short stories reflect a target language’s culture, there are many samples and examples related to the culture of the target language. Thus, students by reading short stories can enrich their knowledge about TL culture.”*

Participant 5, T2, ...*“Language is culture and learning a language is learning the culture of the language. Through short stories, learners will identify the various cultural elements that are relevant to the target language and then identify or familiarize themselves with the pragmatic or socio linguistic aspect of the language.”*

Participant 6, T3,...*“This is a good question, language and culture are inseparable, therefore, while teaching a second and/or foreign language the teacher must also teach cultural issues that have a great impact in the process of communication, specifically in*

*comprehension. I believe that any piece of literature specifically short stories are the reflections of the context's culture. So that, teaching a short story that is rich in cultural issues of the TL would help students to become familiar with those issues."*

These answers all aid Littewood's view (2000) cited in Handayani (2013) that literature gives a better understanding of the TL culture by portraying it through real world experiences, relationships between society and people where the TL is spoken, even if they are works of fiction or narratives told in an imaginary world.

### **Results Regarding the two Research Questions**

To answer the research questions "*What are the perceptions of teachers and students on the use of short stories to enhance reading comprehension?*" and "*How do the perceptions of the students and teachers compare?*" After, analyzing the answers in general all the participants showed positive perceptions and attitudes towards the use of short stories to enhance reading comprehension in teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

Likewise, when generally, comparing the answers from the teachers and students it was figured out that there is not a significant difference between them in which they both regard short stories aid the process of teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

### **Conclusion and Discussion**

The traditional way for introducing the English language in the FL classroom has mostly been and still continues to be through course books. This "course book" culture as sivasurbramaniam (2007) refers to, leads ..... "language learners.....to believe that language is a set of transactions which they need to master in order to meet exam requirements/academic standards". Such a belief prevents "...students from looking at language learning as a life-long endeavor...." (p.254). A seemingly modern perspective to language teaching these days is for teachers to incorporate literature in the EFL class to gain more desirable results and for the learners to gain a near native competence which is the prime aim for almost all EFL teachers all over the world (Handayani, 2013).

Therefore, the findings of the current study revealed that the EFL teachers' and students' had mostly positive perceptions on the use of short stories to enhance reading comprehension, which greatly aids the contemporary views towards EFL teaching and learning. Observing, the general answers of all the 20 participants more closely, which were all optimistic, brings up the assumption that Literature in this case short stories should be included more in the EFL curricula as a new and innovative method for teachers to help their students in achieving more desirable results in all the language skills not only just reading comprehension.

In addition, looking at multiple studies, some of which were included in the literature review part, it is made more evident that the inclusion of literature of the TL in the FL classroom has become the norm nowadays. Not only does literature provide learners with language in its natural contexts, but also learners or people in general enjoy literary texts, especially stories as they present themes from real life situations such as happiness, jealousy, prosperity etc., which they understand and relate to, therefore a lot can be gained from this experience. In general exposure to such texts and language gives learners an opportunity to learn and then use the TL naturally and efficiently, allowing communication without any obstacles. Krashen (1976) asserts that as cited by Chen Yuh-Mei (2007), not like the formal learning of vocabulary and the syntactical items of the language in the classroom, literature provides a relaxed but supportive atmosphere for students to naturally develop their linguistic system. Krashen (2005) further emphasizes that acquisition involves meaningful interaction in the TL, in that, the learner needs to focus on understanding and conveying the message naturally but not with the form of their utterance thus natural communication can occur without hindrance.

Also specific emphasis is placed on the skill of reading for several reasons. Firstly, by reading extensively learners can gain knowledge on various topics. Secondly and most importantly in the EFL contexts the TL is introduced in printed form so the language will basically be learned through reading. Finally, the skill of reading also enhances the development of the other language skills respectively. Thus, reading outcomes provide learners with the appropriate skill to produce meanings orally and in writing as the more a person reads the more he/she will be able to use language effectively ( Kavlu, 2015 & Kaya, 2015).

## References

- Abu Zahra, N., & Farrah, M. (2016). Using Short Stories in the EFL Classroom. *Journal of Islamic University-Gaza* 24(1), 11-24.
- Aebersold, J., & Lee Field, M. (2002). *From Reader to Reading Teacher*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Al-Mansour, N., & Al-Shorman, R. (2011). The Effect of Teacher's Storytelling Aloud on the Reading Comprehension of Saudi Elementary Stage Students. *Journal of King Saud University–Languages and Translation*. 23(2), 69-76. Retrieved on April 14, 2020 from <http://ac.els-cdn.com/S2210831911>.
- Alzeebaree, Y., Hasan, I. A. (2020). What makes an effective EFL teacher: High School Students' Perceptions. *Asian ESP Journal*, 16 (2), 169-183.
- Beard, R. (2004). *Developing Reading 3-1 3(2nd ed.)*. Great Britain: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Carter, D. (2000). *Teaching Fiction in the Primary School*. Great Britain: David Fulton Publishers.
- Center, Y. (2005). *Beginning Reading: A balanced approach to literacy instruction in the first three years of school*. Australia, Crows Nest, NSW: A&U Academic.
- Chen, Y. (2006). Using Children's Literature for Reading and Writing Stories. *Asian EFL Journal*. 8 (4), 210-232.
- Collie, J. & Stephen S. (2005). *Literature in the Language Classroom*. U.K: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2004). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (2nd ed.). Great Britain: Cambridge University Press.
- Datta, M. (2004). *BILINGUALITY and LITERACY Principles and Practice*. Great Britain: Continuum.
- El Motabit, A. (2020). Evaluating the Lexical Load of the Reading Comprehension Texts in EFL Textbooks. *International Journal of Linguistics and Translation Studies*, 1(1), 42-53. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlts.v1i1.15>.
- Erkaya, O. (2003). The Benefits of using short stories in EFL contexts. *The Asian EFL Journal*. 8, 1-13.

- Gamble, N & Yates, S. (2005). *Exploring Children's Literature*. Great Britain: Cromwell Press Limited.
- Graham, J. & Kelly, A. (2000). *Reading Under Control (2nd ed.)* Great Britain: David Fulton Publishers.
- Handayani, M. (2013). Using Children Short Stories to Enhance Students' Reading Comprehension. *Journal of English and Education, 1(1), 133-141*.
- Intermediate EFL Learners' Reading comprehension achievement. *Scinzer Journal of Accounting and Management. 2(3), 54-58*.
- Kavlu, A. (2015). The Place of Reading in EFL context. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies. 2, 81-88*.
- Kaya, E. (2015). The Role of Reading Skills on Reading Comprehension Ability of Turkish EFL Students. *Üniversitepark Bülten, 4 (1-2), 37-51*.
- Khatib, M. & Askri, H. (2011). The Study of the Effects of Teaching Literature on Improving Students Second Language Attitudes. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature. 1 (4), 37-45*.
- Khatib, M., Rezaei, S. & Derakhshan, A. (2011). Literature in EFL/ESL classroom. *English Language Teaching Journal. 4 (1), 201-208*. DOI:[10.5539/elt.v4n1p201](https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n1p201)
- Lynch-Brown, C. & Tomlinson, C. M (1999). *The Essentials of Children's Literature*, Boston: Allyn Bacon. Language Acquisition.(2007) Retrieved from [http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/second\\_language\\_acquisition](http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/second_language_acquisition)
- Medwell, J., Moore, G., Wray, D. & Griffith, V.(2005). *Primary English Knowledge and understanding.(2nd ed.)* Glasgow: Bell & Bain Ltd.
- Mourão, S. (2009). Using stories in the primary classroom. In (Ed.) *BritLit:Using literature in ELT classrooms*. London: British Council. Retrieved from <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/resources/britlit>
- Nuttall, C. (1989). *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. Great Britain: Heinemann.
- O'Connell, F. A Brief History and Theory. In (Ed.) *BritLit:Using literature in ELT classrooms*. London: British Council. Retrieved on May 22, 2020 from <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/resources/britlit>

- OUSSOU, S. (2020). Promoting Learner Autonomy. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(2), 156-167. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i2.278>. Retrieved from <http://resportal.iugaza.edu.ps/articles/H12%20Vol.%2024,%20No.1.pdf>
- Schuz, R. (2005). Stephen Krashen's Theory of Second Language Acquisition. Retrieved on May 23, 2020 from <http://www.SK.com.br/sk-Krash.Html>
- Sivasubramaniam, S. (2007). Promoting the prevalence of Literature in the Practice of Foreign and Second Language Education: Issues and Insights. *Asian EFL Journal*. 8 (4), 254-273.
- Taghizadeh, S. (2016). The Effect of Motivating via Simplified Stories on Iranian
- Wyse, D. & Jones, R. (2005) *Teaching English, Language and Literacy*. USA and Canada: Rutledge Flamer.
- Zeraatkar, F., & Hadipanah, M. (2013). The Effects of Short Story on Junior High School EFL Learners' Reading Skill in Birjand. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching in the Islamic World*. 1(1), 1-9.



## **Enhancing the Speaking Proficiency of Undergraduate ESP Students through the Use of Blended Learning Approach**

**Malak Ibraheem Almansour**

*PhD in Applied Linguistics, Department of English and Translation, College of Science  
and Theoretical Studies, Saudi Electronic University, Saudi Arabia*

**m.almansour@seu.edu.sa**

**Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal**

*Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, Department of English and Translation,  
College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia*

**aa.alahdal@qu.edu.sa**

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Dr. Malak Ibraheem Almansour** has obtained a PhD in Applied Linguistics from Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University with flying colours. She is now a Faculty member at the Department of English and Translation, College of Science and Theoretical Studies, Saudi Electronic University, Saudi Arabia. Her interests include blended learning, ESP Course Design and second language acquisition.

**Dr. Arif Ahmed Al-Ahdal** is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Though his vocation is teaching, Dr. Al-Ahdal is an established poet and writer. He has to his credit two bilingual poetry collections, *To Yemen with Love and Joys and Sorrows*, published in Yemen in 2010 and a reference book "Preparing EFL Teachers for Tomorrow: Opening New Vistas in Teacher Development with INSET", published in Germany in 2015, apart from nearly 40 research papers published in Internationally Indexed Journals. He also gained cross-cultural teaching experience from three countries: Yemen, India and Saudi

Arabia. With such diverse exposure, he was offered prestigious editorial responsibilities as Monograph Editor, Sage Open Journals, America; Section Editor, International Journal of Language and Literary Studies, Italy; Board Member of ELT Journal, Canada; Arab World English Journal, Malaysia; International Journal of English and Literary Studies, Australia; Journal of ELT and Applied Linguistics, India, among others. He is also a freelance trainer and certified IELTS Examiner.

### **Abstract**

The current study is based on blended learning (BL) intervention in teaching and enhancing the speaking skills of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) undergraduate learners in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The approach has been made incumbent given the current Covid 19 pandemic that has necessitated switching to e-learning platforms all over the world, to which KSA is no exception. The current study was conducted a short while before worldwide lockdowns using simple and easily accessible free software blended with teacher moderated virtual learning with 30 participants, a parallel group of equal number being a control group. Post-intervention tests showed significant enhancement of the participants' Specific Purposes English skills. This study is useful to administrators, policy-makers, academic staff, and learners, as the field of English learning is the most in demand in KSA, and also one which figures prominently in national policy documents as evident particularly in Vision 2020 and 2030. Finally, the new academic dispensations created by the pandemic have established the fact that there is a need for rethinking educational targets and pedagogies. The results of this study showed that, online learning is both the need of the hour and one which ensures greater learning and autonomy for the Saudi ESP learners.

**Keywords:** *Blended learning, Language Learning, ESP Students.*

### **Introduction**

ESP is a subset of the larger ELT and EFL fields. However, the subject area of ESP, as the name suggests, is more focused, relevant to learner needs, and generally more motivating (being meant for some specific purposes) than General English. ESP may

further be bifurcated into English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). ESP learners in KSA can often be heard complaining of monotony with all language tasks being related strictly to the subject course, seeking for variety even though learning may still be language related. There is always the danger with low motivation that the teacher may be tempted to make the content less specific (as in ESP), defeating the very purpose of a specific and specialized course at the very outset. In the context of ESP, listening and speaking as skills have a complimentary place, and learners have dual roles- as speakers and listeners. The ability to speak hinges on the good listening skills as well as speaking skills. Consequently, all teaching strategies need to include listening in the speaking component for ESP in order to make the learning more comprehensive.

The value of communicative competence transcends speaking fluency and accuracy. Speaking accuracy means the extent to which a speaker produces language which conforms to the norms of the target language (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). It involves proper pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Speaking fluency, on the other hand, is the ability of the speaker to produce spoken language without undue pausing or hesitation (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Hence, too many hesitations and pauses hinder fluency of speaking. Helping learners to improve their speaking with fluency and accuracy is a core concern of the EFL contexts (Nakatami, 2010).

In the ESP classroom, active listening is as central as speaking, because it promotes greater and better flow of information. However, with the conventional pedagogy in the Saudi ESP classrooms, the majority of learners do not get the opportunity to listen or speak as desired. This is mainly because of the large number of learners in each group, frequent interruptions as learners seek teacher's attention for clarification of doubts and, sometimes, though not often, the few proficient learners take up all opportunity and time.

This anomaly, nevertheless, is corrected to some extent with the Blended Learning approach, one that is necessitated by the prevalent pandemic which has shifted the teaching base from university campuses to the learners' homes.

Blended learning is a phenomenon developed long before the beginning of the 21st century in terms of terminology. While Graham (2006) defined mixed learning systems

as connecting computer-mediated learning face-to-face training, Poon (2013) stated that the objective of both methods would be complementary. The term "*blended learning*" now covers the combination of the internet and digital media with established forms of teaching and student co-presence. A blended-learning paradigm, therefore, consists of a variety of "ingredients," including knowledge received by students, e-learning, webinars, conference calls, live and remote teaching meetings and media, and events; such as, LinkedIn, email, chat rooms, blogs, podcasting, Instagram, YouTube, Twitch, and Websites.

The language acquisition approach is extremely personal and complex (Launer, 2010). A teacher or team of teachers teach material during classes in Saudi when students hear, make notes, and participate in classes. By contrast, other Saudi EFL students are compliant and able to consider without doubt what the professor suggests (Al-Ahdal, 2020). In reality, students are distinguished by abstract ideas and understanding. Some students know and appreciate faster and better than others. Therefore, classroom teaching alone cannot be enough to fulfil the unique needs of each pupil, and add to the need for new technology. Optional lessons for the report, named "e-learning," were created on the web to answer this issue. This e-learning program's environments are structured to promote traditional learning methods. They included exercises and tasks which are not similar, but comparable to classroom courses — in some cases with the same terminology and arrangement as the students of classrooms. Students could use the extra lessons whenever they needed. E-learning required flexibility and autonomy in this study.

### **Problem Statement**

Speaking in English is considered a challenge not only in the Saudi educational system but around the world in non-native learning environments. Saudi EFL learners encounter frequent problems in speaking English fluently and accurately, and these are attributed to their linguistic, cognitive, and emotional factors (Al-Ahdal, 2020). This requires much ingenuity on the part of the language teachers who are constantly faced with the difficult choice between course completion and making their learners language proficient. In the background of massive manpower and infrastructural investments into the field of EFL, the onus to make it happen falls heavily on the shoulders of the teaching

community. In addition, it has to be stated that, while English has been being taught for several decades in the Arab region, the results are far from the expected ones: young adults are unable to use the language as fluently or efficiently as possible (Al-Ahdal, et al, 2014). It can be argued, therefore, that blended learning with limited and controlled technological intervention along with conventional classroom interaction can be an answer to large classes and time constraints that lead to poor learning outcomes in the field of ESP in Saudi Arabia.

### **Literature Review**

Several studies have examined the connection between the usage of online learning tools and enhanced language skills (Beach, 2017; Holland, 2019; Kormos&Nijakowska, 2017; Lin, et al, 2017 ; Tsai, et al, 2018; Zheng, et al, 2018; Alrefaee, et al, 2020). The research line established a high correlation between the language course use of this technology and greater language skills. Dawley (2007) noticed that e-learning enabled students to discover, analyze, and express their own information and eventually turn it. This result is reinforced by a study carried out by Tanveer (2011). In this research, he concluded that e-learning teachers and learners consider it as independent, giving more knowledge and individual accountability. E-learning also helps teachers to promote student-oriented learning (Poon 2013). Soliman (2014) carried out an e-learning study in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for the development of language skills and self-learning for EFL students, showing that e-learning is an efficient way to connect to classroom lessons in the EFL. It encourages students' language skills and supports independent study.

Student expectations for written training ESL have been examined by Larsen (2012) for use, effectiveness and effects on the blended education. By being responsible for their education, students proved to be more creative and focused. This finding also shows that independence in education can be improved by following a mixed curriculum, with a greater scope for the participation of students. Sometimes the words "self-reliance" and "autonomous education" are interchangeably used, but there are notable differences between them. Independence means the ability to manage learning "when autonomy is related to" learning, where students often control their own learning "(Holec, 1981). Poon

(2013) stated that one important aspect of the blended learning environment is to increase the motivation of students to learn at home. In the same vein, Masie (2002) said that blended learning offers students much more opportunity to understand content and succeed. If correctly applied, mixed learning will lead to improved student satisfaction and conservation performance. (Main University of Florida, 2015). A hybrid learning framework was developed for this research that took into consideration this proven achievement. In the Saudi context, Al-Ahdal (2020a) used computer software as aid in the language error analysis of EFL students, it was found out that it improved the language writing performance of the students. In like manner, it was also found out in a different study of Al-Ahdal (2020b) that the use of podcasting in Saudi EFL classroom improved the pronunciation skills of students.

### **Speaking Fluency**

Fluency Development has been supported by theories and researches in different contexts, which include planning, task repetition, and language teaching. De Jong & Perfetti (2011) studied the function of the repetition of speech in the oral growth of students at a university in the United States teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). It was found that, fluency improved. Hence, it may be said that linguistic knowledge proceduralization improved fluency. Besides, Lambert et al (2017) investigated the correlation between immediate gains in second language fluency and oral monologue tasks. Results showed that, aural-oral same tasks repetition is related to oral fluency gains regardless of the level of proficiency, or task designed to the students. In short, speaking fluency can be achieved by way of language practice and repetition.

### **Significance of the Study**

Blended learning is a strong principle that can be applied to achieve teaching objectives more effectively. It helps students to study English anytime and anywhere, provided they have internet connectivity. Adding e-learning to a language program provides students with individual learning opportunities and free sharing of information, particularly in the context of Saudi EFL learners. Therefore, this study will be the basis

for the university to initiate interventions for faculty development focusing on blended learning approach.

### **Research Objectives**

The current global crisis has exposed the fragility of conventional educational systems, where the physical presence of teachers and learners in close proximity was a precondition. With great immediacy, institutions have to think of means to augment and, perhaps, replace conventional systems, as nothing works with the current student generation as technology does. Given that, if engagement, motivation, and success are to be ensured for learners, learning has to be a needs-based process, and one that allows them the freedom of time, space, and participation. The aim of this paper, therefore, is to evaluate the efficacy of Blended Learning in improving the speaking skills of ESP learners. ESP, as we know, is a specialized area of language learning catering to a very specific learner population. Whereas, in this crisis, other fields of study can relax the pace, a vocation tied course like ESP needs to gear towards the changed demands of the times offering both synchronous and asynchronous dimensions of time for teacher learner interaction.

### **Research Questions**

This study examined how effective an e-learning form is in combination with conventional learning, to determine whether speaking abilities improved for ESP learners. The following research questions were sought to be answered:

1. How does ESP learners' speaking proficiency compare before and after the intervention?
2. How does a blended learning curriculum help build the speaking strength of Saudi EFL learners through the use of blended learning in lieu of classroom teaching?
3. What are the students' perceptions of the effectiveness of blended learning programs in enhancing their speaking skills?

## **Methodology**

The design of the study consisted of two groups of participants, with one being the control group (CG) and the other the experimental group (EG), and the study was conducted prior to university closure due to the Covid pandemic. The entire sample was a convenience sample, as the participants constituted the student base of the researcher. The aim was to assess the efficacy of the mixed learning environment, mixing e-learning with traditional teaching, in order to evaluate if student language skills and program expectations improved significantly. Each group had 30 second year Saudi undergraduate English majors standardized to ensure that there were three mandatory English classes for main English students at the same year stage. All the participants were Saudi males with the median age at 21.7 years. They had little familiarity of blended learning until the commencement of this project. The entire sample was assessed in advance to evaluate their English language skills homogeneity. These test scores were taken on speaking assessments designed on the pattern of IELTS. The scores were recorded as pre-test scores, and were reflected in table 1 which compares these with the post-test scores. Thereafter, using the Microsoft Teams function, the experimental group (EG) was familiarized with the Blended Learning approach. A brief orientation session was used to ensure the technical soundness of the plan. It was found that, all the participants had access to computers, or, good smartphones, and also had high speed internet connections to ensure quality participation. The control group (CG), however, were not given any special instructions, and they continued to cover the curriculum on speaking in the conventional fashion. Both groups of students were allocated 3 hours a week for the speaking component. In the EG, the mid-week session was devoted to in-class teaching and the extremity lectures were reserved for speaking lessons via the Teams function. For e-learning sessions, the participants had the freedom of place but not time as the tasks that were planned required them to have classmates for verbal interaction. The e-learning tasks typically worked around the ESP syllabus, in this case, the courseware was centred on Business English. In the intervention that lasted six weeks, tasks were designed to ensure maximum participation. Group discussion, mock job interviews, negotiation skills and sales talk were the areas broadly covered. In the median

session, the teacher gave feedback to the participants, referring to individualised notes to help everyone to improve.

### Data Analysis and Results

The global score in of the two groups in the pre- and post-tests was the first measure of the influence of Blended Learning on the speaking skills of the ESP learners. IELTS speaking component is a standardized tool, which tests speaking proficiency on the count of i fluency and coherence; ii. Lexical resource; iii. grammatical range and accuracy; and iv. pronunciation. Each of these components was marked from a maximum of 40 points with each element marked out of 10. On these parameters, the mean score of the two groups in the pre-test was as recorded in Table 1.

Table 1

	N	Maximum points	Pre test lowest score	Pre test highest score	Pre test mean
CG	30	40	11	21	15.37
EG	30	40	10	23	15.82

*t*-test of the pre-test scores of the two groups showed that there was no significant statistical difference between the scores with  $p > 0.01$ . Comparison of mean scores also bears out the fact that participants in the two groups were at par in speaking performance. At this stage, both the groups were exposed to the conventional methods of speaking training.

Table 2: shows the post test analysis of scores.

Table 2

	N	Maximum points	Post test	Post test	Post test mean
--	---	----------------	-----------	-----------	----------------

			lowest score	highest score	
CG	30	40	10	22	15.21
EG	30	40	18	31	24.68

Descriptive statistics was, again, employed to check if the difference in each post-test scores of the two groups was significant. The difference turned out to be significant with a low value of  $p < 0.01$

Thus, at the beginning of the experiment, the two groups which were at par in speaking performance and were both taught using conventional methods, the intervention proved useful in the EG which showed a jump in performance with 8.86 points. Whereas the pre-test average percentage for the EG stood at 39.55%, post-intervention, the average percentage was noted at 61.23%. In the CG, however, whereas the pre-test average percentage of the group was 38.42%, it remained almost same at 38.02% at the end of the experiment period.

### **Conclusion**

The EG clearly outperformed the CG, a factor which should be attributed to the Blended Learning approach, for all other factors remained constant during the experiment. The null hypothesis that, BL can be useful in enhancing the speaking skills of ESP learners in KSA is amply supported by the study. However, informal feedback from the participants revealed that ESP learners in KSA are not yet prepared for a full technology-based learning of English as the very idea is new to them. Yet, in a limited and controlled manner, e-learning can be a fantastic and truly engaging tool for the ESP learners who also need greater autonomy in their course as their aim for enrolling in a specialized course is vocational, or, educational preparedness and upgradation.

### **Implications for Teaching**

The effect of this research is that the usage of this online learning system shows greater language ability and better self-confidence in the growth of language skills among ESL students. Such consequences and recommendations for more study are also explored.

The findings have implications for both teachers and students. Education planners will effectively build interactive programs and customized English language courses focused on the individualized learning concept described in this article. Speaking abilities should be utilized to create skill groupings, exposure to relevant content and resources for interactive and student-centric experiences in order to suit the desires, perspectives and preferences of learners. An accent on ICT-integrated education can benefit learners of all levels, particularly in English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) contents. When two popular languages in the 21st century, English and CT should be promoted at the same time by meeting the demands of learners for natural language experiences, combining abilities and constructive, supportive input.

## References

- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., & Shariq, M. (2019). MALL: Resorting to Mobiles in the EFL Classroom. *The Journal of Social Sciences Research*, 90-96.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., (2020a). Using Computer Software as a tool of Error Analysis: Giving EFL Teachers and Learners a much-needed Impetus. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, 12(2). 418-437
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., (2020b). Overcoming Pronunciation Hurdles in EFL Settings: An Evaluation of Podcasts as a Learning Tool at Qassim University Saudi Arabia. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles*, 27.86-101.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., Alfallaj, F., Al-Awaied, S., & Al-Hattami, A. (2014). A comparative study of proficiency in speaking and writing among EFL learners in Saudi Arabia. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 4(2), 141-149.
- Alrefae, Y., Mudkanna, A., & Almansoob, N. T. (2020). Refusals of Suggestions and Offers: An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16-2-1, 176-195.
- Beach, P. (2017). Self-directed online learning: A theoretical model for understanding elementary teachers' online learning experiences. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 61, 60-72.

- Dawley, L. (2007) *The tools for successful online teaching*, London: Information Science Publishing.
- De Jong, N., & Perfetti, C. A. (2011). Fluency training in the ESL classroom: an experimental study of fluency development and proceduralization. *Language Learning*, 61, 533-568.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Graham, C. R. (2006) *Blended learning systems: definition, current trends, and future directions*, C. J. Bonk and C. R. Graham, *The handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives*, San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer Publishing.
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford/New York: Pergamon Press.
- Holland, A. A. (2019). Effective principles of informal online learning design: A theory-building metasynthesis of qualitative research. *Computers & Education*, 128, 214-226.
- Key, M. R. (1981) *The relationship of verbal and nonverbal communication*. DE GRUYTER MOUTON.
- Kormos, J., & Nijakowska, J. (2017). Inclusive practices in teaching students with dyslexia: Second language teachers' concerns, attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs on a massive open online learning course. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 68, 30-41.
- Kyriacou, C. & Zhu, D. (2008) 'Shanghai pupils' motivation towards learning English and the perceived influence of important others' *Educational Studies*, vol. 34, no. 2, pp. 97-104.
- Lambert, A. W., Pattabiraman, D. R., & Weinberg, R. A. (2017). Emerging Biological Principles of Metastasis. *Cell*, 168(4), 670–691.
- Larsen, L. J. (2012) *Teacher and student perspectives on a blended learning intensive English program writing course*, Graduate Thesis and Dissertation Ames: Iowa State University.

- Launer, R. (2010) 'Five assumptions on blended learning: What is important to make blended learning a successful concept?', Hybrid Learning Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 6248, pp. 9-15.
- Lin, C. H., Zhang, Y., & Zheng, B. (2017). The roles of learning strategies and motivation in online language learning: A structural equation modeling analysis. *Computers & Education, 113*, 75-85.
- Masie, E. (2002) Blended learning: the magic is in the mix, The ASTD e-learning handbook, New York: Mc Graw-Hill.
- Nakatani, Y. (2010). Identifying strategies that facilitate EFL learners' oral communication: A classroom study using multiple data collection procedures. *The Modern Language Journal, 94*(1), 346-8512
- Nassaji, H., & Fotos, S. (2011). Teaching grammar in second language classrooms: Integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context. New York: Routledge.
- Poon, J. (2013) 'Blended learning: An institutional approach for enhancing students' learning experiences', *Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, vol. 9, no. 2, [Online], Available, [http://jolt.merlot.org/vol9no2/poon\\_0613.htm](http://jolt.merlot.org/vol9no2/poon_0613.htm) [15 June 2013]
- Soliman, N. (2014) 'Using e-learning to develop EFL students' language skills and activate their independent learning', *Creative Education*, vol. 5, pp. 752-757.
- Tanveer, M. (2011) 'Integrating e-learning in classroom-based language teaching: Perceptions, challenges and strategies', *Conference Proceedings, 4th International Conference ICT for Language Learning, Florence, Italy.*
- The University of Central Florida. (2015) Benefits of blended learning, [Online], Available, <http://blended.online.ucf.edu/about/benefits-of-blended-learning/> [6 Oct 2014]
- Wan-er, Z. (2008) Motivation and language learning in the context of China. *Sino-US English Teaching*, vol. 5, no. 4.
- Tsai, Y. H., Lin, C. H., Hong, J. C., & Tai, K. H. (2018). The effects of metacognition on online learning interest and continuance to learn with MOOCs. *Computers & Education, 121*, 18-29.

Zheng, C., Liang, J. C., Li, M., & Tsai, C. C. (2018). The relationship between English language learners' motivation and online self-regulation: A structural equation modelling approach. *System*, 76, 144-157.



## **An Investigation of the Reliability Analysis of Speaking Test**

**Raja Muhammad Ishtiaq Khan<sup>1</sup>, Noor Raha Mohd Radzuan<sup>2</sup>, Muhammad Shahbaz<sup>3</sup> & Tribhuwan Kumar<sup>4</sup>**

<sup>1</sup> *English Language Lecturer, Majma'ah University, Zulfi, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*  
*<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0873-4124>, E-mail: [r.khan@mu.edu.sa](mailto:r.khan@mu.edu.sa)*

<sup>2</sup> *Center for Modern Languages, Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Kuantan, Pahang, Malaysia*  
*<http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7418-6360>, E-mail: [nraha@ump.edu.my](mailto:nraha@ump.edu.my)*

<sup>3</sup> *Department of English, GC Women University Sialkot, Sialkot, Pakistan,*  
*E-mail: [m.shahbaz@gcwus.edu.pk](mailto:m.shahbaz@gcwus.edu.pk)*

<sup>4</sup> *Assistant Professor of English, College of Science and Humanities at Sulail, Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, KSA, Email: [t.kumar@psau.edu.sa](mailto:t.kumar@psau.edu.sa)*

### **Bio-profiles:**

**Raja Muhammad Ishtiaq Khan** is an English language Lecturer at Al-Majma'ah University, Saudi Arabia. He has a Cambridge CELTA certificate in teaching and has 10 years of experience in ESL and EFL. He is a Ph.D. scholar and his research interests include Applied Linguistics, MALL, L2 Vocabulary learning and Teaching, Second Language Acquisition, and EFL teaching.

**Noor Raha Mohd Radzuan, Ph. D.**, is an Associate Professor and the Head of English Language Department at the Centre for Modern Languages and Human Sciences, University Malaysia Pahang. Her main interest is in Applied Linguistics research, specifically in second language oral communication, English for Specific Purposes, and English language teaching.

**Muhammad Shahbaz** is currently serving as an Assistant Professor at the Department of English, GC Women University Sialkot. He holds a Ph.D. Applied Linguistics and more than 10 years of working experience as an EFL educator. His research interests include SLA, L2 Motivation Research, Individual Differences in SLA, L2 Vocabulary development, Language Testing, and Evaluation.

**Tribhuwan Kumar, Ph. D.** is an Assistant Professor in the College of Science and Humanities, Sulail at Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia, where he has been a faculty member since 2015. Before joining this university, he has taught in many institutions in India since 2010 including SRM University, NCR Campus, Ghaziabad. His research areas are British Literature, Indian English Literature, Applied Linguistics, discourse analysis, and other interdisciplinary subjects in language and literature.

#### **Abstract**

Speaking skill is marked as one of the most significant for language learning. The assessment of the oral test remained difficult because of the involvement of humans. The speaking assessment is based on the reliability of the test and reliability relies on the raters' score. To this, the present study is an attempt to estimate the inter-rater reliability of the Speaking test used in the Common First Year program (CFY) of a public university in Saudi Arabia. The data were collected through a scoring sheet from 62 EFL learners. 6 raters were involved in the rating of 61 participants of the study. Quantitative data analysis was used to estimate the reliability of the speaking test. The correlation coefficient and Bland-Altman test were used to measure the agreement between the raters. SPSS was used for data analysis in the present study. The result of the study indicated that the speaking test used in the CFY program is in the accepted norm of the reliability values.

**Keywords:** *Speaking, Reliability, EFL, Oral Test, raters*

## Background

With the advancement of communicative instruction, the basic goal of speaking proficiency has gained more importance in language instruction and the ability to use the language appropriately in a social context has become the goal (BAUTISTA, Samonte, Improgo, Gutierrez, 2020; Alrefaee, Mudkanna & Almansoob, 2020). The value of communicative competence transcends speaking fluency and accuracy (Shariq, 2020; p. 236). As an outcome, testing speaking performance, particularly speaking capability has emerged as one of the key issues in the testing mechanism of language development. There are various restrictions because of the nature of the speaking skill. The fundamental issue in oral testing skills is the requirement to outline the tasks that structure an illustration of the sample of the population of the speaking tasks, explaining the outcome of that present the test takers' speaking capability. Likewise, many elements influence our notion of how better someone can express himself orally. As the nature of the oral skill itself is still infancy to define it precisely, there is an incongruity that allows assessing the various elements of the speaking skill.

In general, the speaking assessment is done based on pronunciation, vocabulary use, and grammatical accuracy. Similarly, the relevance and fluency are also common constituents of the speaking test. Due to the various components of the speaking test, its true assessment is not merely simple as compared to the other skills. Kemiläinen (2018) argue that in the process of the evaluation of oral skills there may be certain discrepancies as the test-taker has to use language in any way because of its collaborative nature. Besides, speaking evaluation mostly requires human evaluators. Hence the allotting scores of the speaking test are largely subjective biased. Silvia (2011) emphasizes this issue as the main problem in speaking evaluation, as the subjectiveness of the scoring process can direct the rater discrepancies or shifts creating an impact on test-takers' marks which can influence the rater reliability conversely. Thus, the scoring criterion is an essential element of the speaking test (Ling *et al.*, 2014; Tuan, 2012). Speaking evaluation has some practical limits too, which leads to inconsistent results. This involves the time, large numbers of the test-takers at the same time, administrative costs, rater's mood, training of the raters, testing length, use of rubrics, and the total time of the test. Despite these limitations, nowadays numerous schools, colleges, universities, and language

testing agencies are evaluating the test-takers' speaking proficiency. The speaking performance is being measured by using various types of tasks, including presentation, individual or group interviews, and role-plays which are anticipated to bring in the evidence on test-takers' speaking ability.

According to Vera & Vera (2018), oral communication has two skills or components. They are listening and speaking skills and performance in the speaking skills test is a major component-indicator of oral communication skills, the majority of them registered within the bracket of 'good' performance level. The evaluation process greatly depends on many aspects which can impede the learners' speaking performance. There is a need for well organized, researched, and documented account of the reliability and validity of the exam scores with observed logical evidence (Franklin *et al.*, 2001). The core point of the language testing should be focused on the precision of the analyses of learners' responses which can be justified on the constructs of the measures (Kernot *et al.*, 2015; Latief, 2016). The idea of language assessment is not simply on constructing the instruments for assigning certain levels or grades of the language proficiency but its to facilitate an outline of the categories of the testimony to be offered in case the accuracy of the interpretations of the proficiencies of the test marks are to be rationalized (Fulcher, 2013). Thus a speaking performance test should be supported by attaining the evidence to assist the aim that test is fulfilling the function that it is meant to be. This essentially includes offering data about distant validity measures together with authentic reliability. Nevertheless, the research indicates that there is a merely small part of the validity concern is met and there is no single measure that can fulfill the concern of the reliability of the language test particularly the speaking proficiency (Li, 2019).

### **Testing speaking**

Testing oral proficiency as a component of teaching English, is an extremely significant process, not only as it can be a useful foundation of the data about the efficiency of the teaching and learning (Rohan-Minjares *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, it can be used to foster and expedite the teaching, stimulate the learners' motivation to develop their language proficiency as well as the development of the evaluation process (Ockey, 2018). The evaluation of the speaking performance has emerged as one of the key issues

in the testing system of the language as the speaking skill has the key role in the language learning and development and has attained the central position in the teaching and learning language with the emergence and focus on communicative language teaching. Speaking skill is a part of the society and “situation-based activity” is a fundamental aspect of the daily lives situations (Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019). The evaluation of the foreign language or second language is often deemed to be a bit more challenging than the evaluation of the other skill, capabilities, or accuracy (Sari & Nike, 2017).

Testing speaking involves various aspects of language learning including vocabulary, the correct use of grammar, fluency, accuracy, interaction, the social aspect of speaking, and completion of the task (Bahrani & Soltani, 2011). Moreover, the evaluation of speaking is also difficult due to its dynamic nature, unpredictability, and comprehensibility (Bygate, 2009). To this end, the teachers, learners, and evaluators need to have a vivid understanding of the characteristics and nature of the oral language which distinguishes it for other forms of the language evaluation (Bygate, 2009; McCarthy & O’Keeffe, 2004).

Clark and Swinton (1979) mark a theoretical foundation to categorize three kinds of speaking evaluation, “direct, semi-direct and indirect tests”. The direct test and semi-direct tests require learners to appear in front of the examiners and they have to speak on the allocated topic, whereas the indirect tests are the part of the “procommunicative” time in the testing system where the learners are not needed to take part in a speaking activity. Oral proficiency interview (OPI) is one of the most commonly used test formats of testing speaking skill and it has exerted a convincing influence on language testing. It is administered with a one test-taker and one or two trained evaluators or rater to evaluate or record the speaking performance on the given scale. It primarily begins with the introduction of the candidate, warming up a discussion to maintain the interaction followed by preformed test tasks including describing an event, picture or illustration, role play, or reverse interview. Most of the language interviews are semi-structured interviews. Speaking part of the IELTS test is one of the key forms of this type of speaking evaluation, which is accepted over 100 countries around the globe. Interview mode of assessing helps the rater or evaluator to get the overall sense of the speaking competence of the learners and can surpass the shortcoming of the other aspects of the language

evaluation process. Moreover, it is comparatively easy to train the examiners and gain high inter-rater reliability (Fulcher & Reiter, 2003).

Another form of the speaking test is testing in pairs or groups. In this form of the assessment, one or more evaluators assess the test takers speaking proficiency either in pairs or small groups. The paired test is administered in testing large scale speaking proficiency. Interaction between the participants and test-takers is the major focus of both forms of speaking assessments. This offers a flexible mode of interaction between the test-takers and evaluators which further obtains a wider form of the discourse as compared to the conventional interview process (Dimitrova-Galaczi, 1969; May 2009, 2011). The raters in both formats are given the handouts of the speaking marking criteria. Speaking test is rated on the holistic or analytical rating scales depending on the nature of speaking proficiency.

### **Reliability**

Reliability is regarded as one of the most important elements of any test. The purpose of the reliability is to ensure the accuracy of the ratification of the test-takers' knowledge and proficiency. Reliability measures the degree to which a test tool yields consistent and stable results (Golafshani, 2003). The conception of reliability is illustrated as “the consistency of measurement” (Bachman and Palmer, 1996). Reliability, thus, is an assertion that the results of the tests are the true and best possible indication of a test taker's proficiency. This asserts that the marking should be consistent with the test reliability of rater reliability. The core of the reliability of a test is that it indicates the accuracy and consistency of an assessment. Generally, two aspects of the reliability are contemplated during the testing procedure; inter-rater and intra-rater. According to Bachman *et al.* (2002), inter-rater reliability is related to the consistency of scores given by a group of raters and inter-rater reliability denotes how constant is the rating of a rater on different times. This asserts that inter-rater reliability is attained by comparison of scores awarded by the different examiners, whereas the intra-reliability is formed by comparing the scores of the same examiners for the same tests-takers at different periods. This indicates that there is no perfect and easy way that determines the reliability of a test.

Rater reliability is also challenging as it involves human subjectivity nature which affects the scores to different learners (Gwet, 2014).

In testing productive skills of language learning, the role of raters is always significant in testing writing and speaking skills. The reliability of an oral assessment demanding and requires distant measures. The subjective nature of the speaking evaluation can lead some raters to be lenient and some too strict which affects the reliability (Stenson *et al.*, 2013). This is because of the cultural background or the rater's mood. The intimacy of the test-takers accent made rater in giving higher scores for the pronunciation section (Carey *et al.*, 2011). Likewise, (Winke *et al.*, 2013) have argued that if a rater has the exposure of L1 communication, they tend to be lenient in awarding higher scores to the participants. This shows that the scores of the speaking test are affected in many ways. Moreover, the contradiction in raters' judgment also greatly based on the rating scales, rubrics used, and grading criteria. These rating criteria can also affect the intra-rater reliability because of the understanding of the grading system. So, the rater's knowledge of the grading system and rubric understanding is also crucial in governing reliability.

Numerous investigations in the testing language have already been carried out with the purpose to explore the various aspects of speaking assessment. Fujinaga *et al.* (2007) assert that the results of such analysis offer an important role in explaining the construction of the speaking evaluation. Some researchers have carried out the reliability of the speaking test. To begin with, Ozer *et al.* (2014) conducted the reliability of an oral test. The results of the study asserted that the speaking test was highly reliable, however, the construct of the validity appeared to invalid. Restrepo and Villa (2003) study indicated inconsistencies in the scores awarded by the examiners. The further analysis determined that the inconsistencies in the raters' scores have mainly resulted as one of the raters has award hiker's scores in grammar and vocabulary use. This can be improved by giving training to the raters.

Iwashita *et al.* (2008) also explored the form of speaking proficiency tests in order to establish a rating scale for ESP. The findings implied that certain features of the test had a resilient influence on the total scores assigned by the evaluators which include fluency and vocabulary. The outcomes of the study presented are contemplated to have a

persuasive association in the development of scales. Similarly, Li (2011) found that the assessment of the reliability of speaking proficiency is not an easy task and it is affected by many aspects including the construct of the test, the task of the test, the knowledge of the learners' background. Several investigations were made to determine the reliability of the IELTS speaking test (Karim & Haq, 2014; Li, 2019; Quaid, 2018; Read & Nation, 2006). The studies indicated that most of the IELTS speaking test is primarily valid and reliable. IELTS speaking test is regarded as reliable in terms of the contents used in the testing, accessibility, and appearance. However, the researchers focused on the inclusion of the two raters in the IELTS speaking test. The present study is an attempt to determine the reliability of an oral test which includes the two raters testing a test-taker at the same time. The present study aims to answer the following research question.

1. How reliable is the speaking test used for the common first-year students?

## **Methodology**

The aim of the study is to determine the reliability of the speaking test. Therefore, the quantitative data collection method is employed to attend and analyse the data. A speaking test, developed by the administration of the CFY program was used to collect the data for reliability measure. The test contains 5 to 7 tasks with different questions on each task. The learners were allowed to choose topics for speaking randomly with knowing the contents of the tasks. They were given 2 minutes to read and understand the task, and they are allowed to change the task once. After warming-up questions learners were asked to speak about the given tasks and the whole process was made interactive. The tasks were designed from the course book on listening and speaking skills.

## **Participants**

### **a. Students**

The participants of the study were 62 CFY students who study English language skills for the first two semesters as a prerequisite for entering into their majors. The age of the participants was 17-19 years. All the participants were male learners. The test was taken after the completion of the first semester. All the students had the same level of English language proficiency as per their entrance test.

## **b. Raters**

Six raters were involved in the scoring procedure of the speaking test. All the raters are administering this kind of test since 2012. They also had the training sessions for the speaking test. They are regular staff members of CFY program and have a master's degree in English and CELTA teaching certificate. The age of the raters was between 32 to 50 years. The rating procedure was done in pairs, one student and two raters and average scores were awarded to the students.

## **Instruments**

A speaking test and students' scores were used to collect the data. The test was designed by the administration. The test contains different tasks developed from the coursebook. Each task needs 7 to 15 minutes for completion. The total score of the test was 15 for three components of the speaking test, 5 scores of each including task completion, fluency and accuracy, and vocabulary usage. Raters were provided with the speaking criteria, rubrics, and speaking evaluation sheet for each student.

## **Data analysis**

Kuder Richardson's correlation statistical measures are generally involved to estimate the reliability of the test. Test/retest, split-half method, and parallel form are administered for the reliability of the test. However, Underhill and Nic (1987) indicate that these traditional methods of reliability estimation have little association for the oral assessment as they are designed for the set numbers of pre-planned questions. The practical information for the speaking test could be reached by making a comparison of raters scores with others and with two different measures. Conferring to this inter-rater reliability was employed to estimate the reliability of the speaking test for the present test. Ranganathan *et al.* (2017) assert that rater reliability can be gained by utilizing correlation, regression, and the Bland Altman test. To the end, two tests; Bland Altman and Correlation were used to calculate the reliability. SPSS 22 was used to analyze the data for both the tests.

## Results

This section presents the results of the data analysis of the study. The results are present in two steps to estimate the reliability of the spoken performance test. Students were awarded on the basis of 15 scores on the speaking test from both the raters, who tested them at the same time. In the first stage, the inter-rater reliability of the test was examined. The use of two distant tests to gauge the reliability of the speaking test was because of the human involvement in the test procedure. As this is the examination of productive skill testing, the rater's decisions of allocating scores may affect the speaking performance test. At the outset, inter-rater reliability was calculated by using correlation coefficients in SPSS software on the scores of the participants of all the raters. The raters were divided into 3 pairs to calculate the correlation. The table below presents the inter-rater reliability.

**Table 1: Correlation of the raters' in pairs**

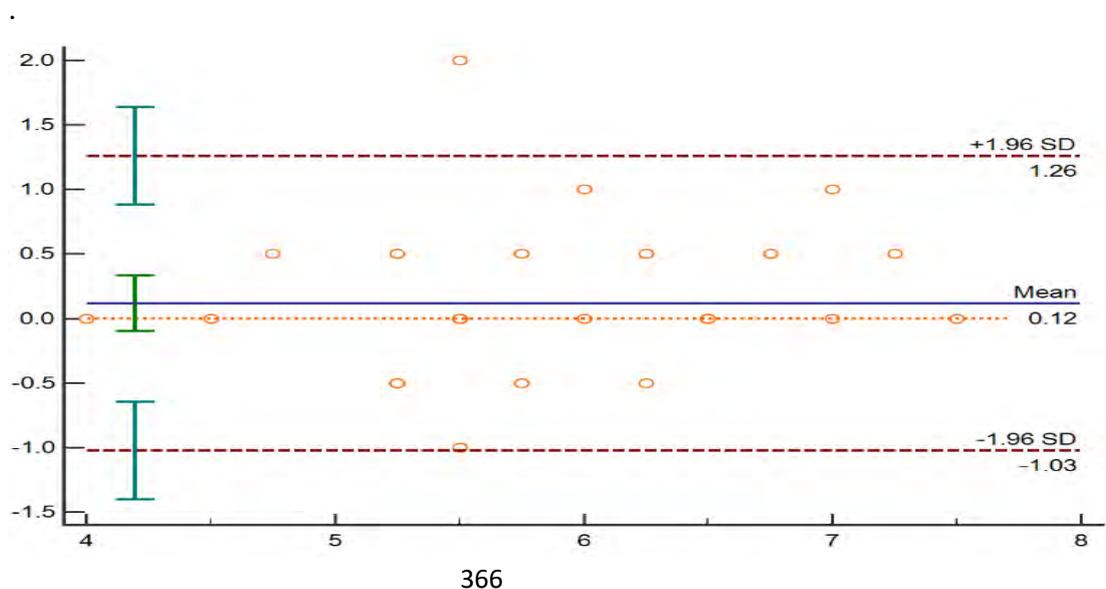
Pair 1		Rater A	Rater B
Rater A	Pearson correlation	1	.710(**)
	Sig. ( 2-tailed)		0.00
	N	62	62
Rater B	Pearson correlation	.710(**)	
	Sig. ( 2-tailed)	0.00	
	N	62	
Pair 2		Rater C	Rater D
Rater C	Pearson correlation	1	.690(**)
	Sig. ( 2-tailed)		0.00
	N	62	62
Rater D	Pearson correlation	.690(**)	
	Sig. ( 2-tailed)	0.00	
	N	62	
Pair 3		Rater E	Rater F

Rater E	Pearson correlation	1	.640(**)
	Sig.( 2-tailed)		0.00
Rater f	N	62	62
	Pearson correlation	.6400(**)	
	Sig.( 2-tailed)	0.00	
	N	62	

The inter-rater reliabilities of the 6 raters are presented in 3 pairs in the table above. The correlation coefficient was assumed for each of the three pairs. The data analysis was estimated by pairing 6 raters in 3 pairs. The correlation of the raters' scores was measured at 0.710, 0.690, and 0.640 respectively, for three pairs. The correlation of the first pair was 0.710, second was correlated .690, and 3<sup>rd</sup> pair was .640. The reliability of the first pair is acceptable, whereas the reliability of the second and third pair was fairly low. Despite the low reliability of the second and third pair, the p-value of all the pairs was less than measured (0.00) which is smaller than (0.05) which is quite significant.

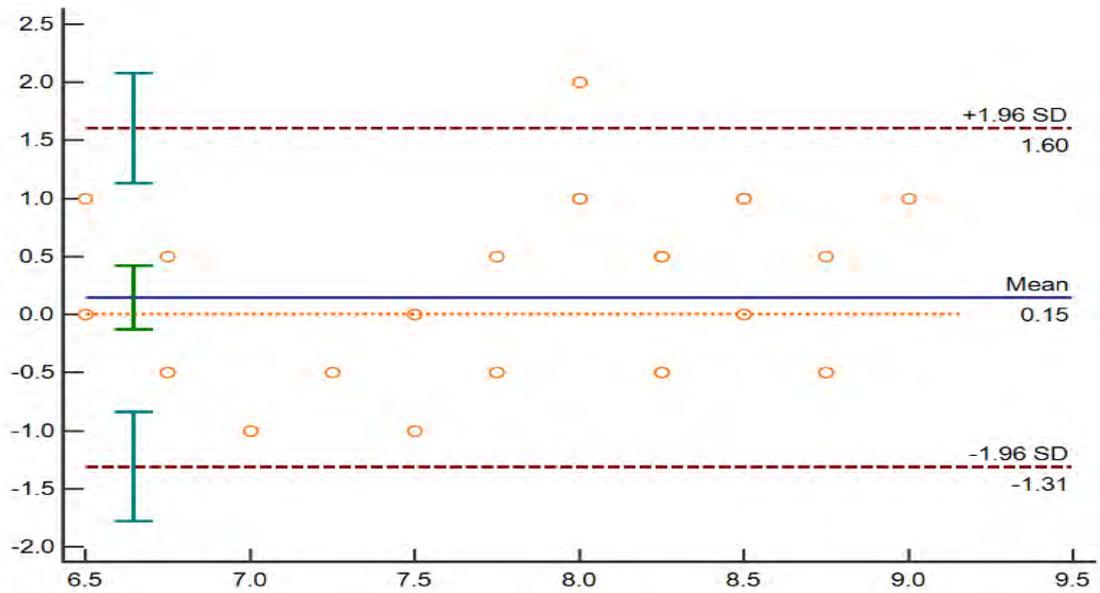
### Reliability on Bland-Altman Test

Bland-Altman test is used to see the agreement between the raters. The raters' scores were paired in three groups to estimate the agreement between raters to see the inter-rater reliability. The figure below illustrates the agreement between Pair A and B



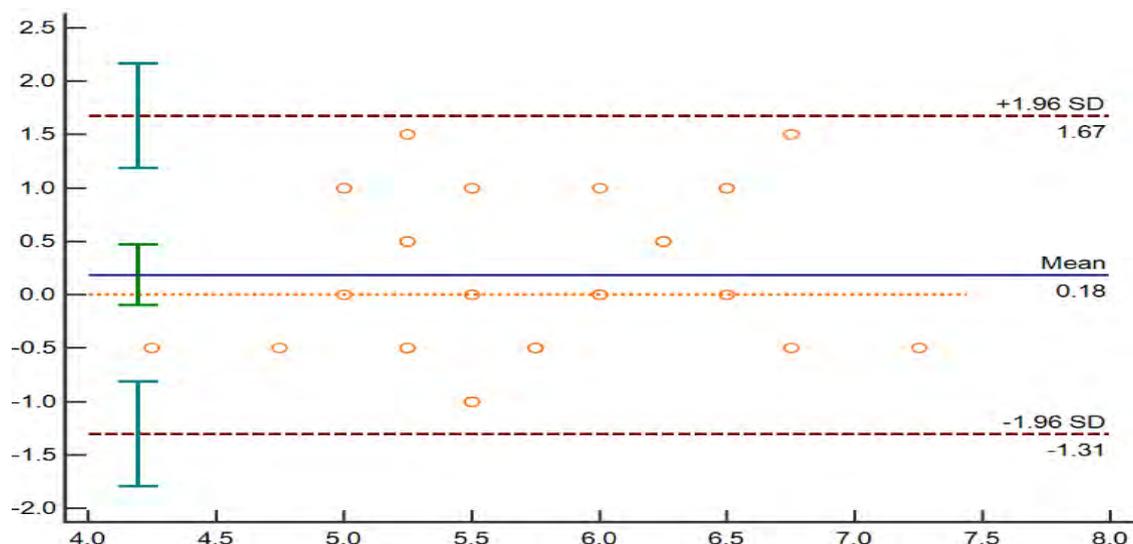
**Figure 1: Mean of Pair A & B**

The agreement between rater A and B is present in figure 1. It is obvious from figure 1 that most of the points lay near to the mean value and zero, which is an indication of the agreement between the raters. If more than 50% of the points lie near to zero, this shows the agreement between the raters. Moreover, the mean value of the Pair A and Pair B is also near to +1.96 SD and -1.96. The value of the SD of the pair A and pair B is 1.26 and -1.03 which are well in the norm of data to show the agreement. Figure 2 displays the agreement of the raters' scores of pair C and pair D.



**Figure 2: Mean of Pair C & D**

The agreement between rater C and D is shown in figure 2. It is also noticeable from the figure that most of the points lie near to the mean value and zero line, which is an indication of the agreement between the raters. Moreover, the mean value of the Pair C and Pair D is also near to +1.96 SD and -1.96. The value of the SD of the pair A and pair B is 1.60 and -1.31 which are well in the norm of data to show the agreement. Figure 3 illustrates the rater agreement of pair E and F.



**Figure 3: Mean of Pair E & F**

The agreement between rater E and F is revealed in figure 3. It is apparent from the figure that most of the points lie near to the mean value and zero line, which is an indication of the agreement between the raters. If more than 50% of the points lie near to zero, this shows the agreement between the raters. Moreover, the mean value of the Pair E and Pair F is also near to +1.96 SD and -1.96. The value of the SD of the pair E and pair F is 1.67 and -1.31 which are well in the norm of data to show the agreement.

### **Discussion and Recommendation**

The reliability of the speaking test was investigated in two ways. The results of the correlation coefficient indicated that the inter-rater reliability of the rater is not satisfactory to meet the desired norm of the test reliability. However, the reliability of the first pair was .710 which is considered satisfactory. The reliability of the second and third pairs is valued at .690 and .640 which is questionable. Although, the reliabilities of the pairs did not seem satisfactory yet the p-values of all three pairs were significant which are less than  $p= 0.00$  which is less than 0.05. This states that the speaking test used at CFY is reliable. The discrepancy in the findings of the inter-rater reliabilities maybe because of the reason the correlation determines that how many same scores were

awarded to the participants, which is not possible where the scores are awarded in point and above than zero.

This leads to the administration of the Bland-Altman test which shows the agreement between two raters. The results of the Bland-Altman indicated that all three pairs of raters showed agreement. The points of the data are closer to the zero line. If more than 50% of the points lie near to zero, this shows the agreement between the raters. This was obvious in all three pairs. Moreover, the mean value of Bland-Altman was also close to +1.96 and -1.96 in all three figures. To this end, it can be interrupted that the speaking test used at CFY is reliable. The assessment of the reliability of the speaking proficiency is not an easy task and it is affected by many aspects including the construct of the test, the task of the test, the knowledge of the learners' background.

The finding of the study is partially aligned with the finding of Fujinaga *et al.* (2007) who indicate that the results of such analysis offer significant value in explaining the reliability of the test. The result of the present attempt was also found in partial agreement with Ozer *et al.* (2014) who carried out the reliability of an oral test. The results of the study asserted that the speaking test was highly reliable, however, the reliability of the present study appeared to the accepted norm of the reliability. This may be a result of the rating criteria and raters have awarded scores in points too, which led to the lower level of the reliability.

The results are consistent with Restrepo and Villa (2003) study which showed inconsistencies in the scores awarded by the examiners. The inconsistencies in the raters' scores have mainly resulted as one of the raters have award hikers scores in grammar and vocabulary use. This can be improved by giving training to the raters. Likewise, the findings are partially aligned with Iwashita *et al.* (2008) who studied the form of speaking proficiency tests in order to establish a rating scale for ESP. The findings implied that certain features of the test had a resilient influence on the total scores assigned by the evaluators which include fluency and vocabulary. Finally, the results also endorsed the result of several investigations (Karim & Haq, 2014; Li, 2019; Quaid, 2018; Read & Nation, 2006) which determined the reliability of the IELTS speaking test. The studies indicated that most of the IELTS speaking test is primarily valid and reliable.

## Conclusion

The results of the study indicate that speaking test used for CFY students was moderately reliable. The study can be developed in many ways. To begin with the number of raters, the participant can be increased, and paired can be exchanged for the scoring purposes. The rater training before the test-taking can also present different results. The rater reliability of the speaking performance showed some adverse variation between the shores of the rates. It would be handy, if the grading procedure made clearer to the rater, which could help in making the test more reliable.

## References

- Alrefaee, Y., Mudkanna, A., & Almansoob, N. T. (2020). Refusals of Suggestions and Offers: An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16-2-1, 176-195.
- Bachman, L. F., Carr, N., Kamei, G., Kim, M., Pan, M. J., Salvador, C., & Sawaki, Y. (2002). A reliable approach to automatic assessment of short answer free responses. *Proceedings of the 19th international conference on Computational linguistics-Volume 2*, pp. 1-4.
- Bahrani, T., & Soltani, R. (2011). Improving the components of speaking proficiency. *Canadian Social Science*, 7(3), 78-82.
- Bautista, J., Samonte, I., Improgo, C. M., & Gutierrez, M. R. (2020). Mother Tongue versus English as a Second Language in Mathematical Word Problems: Implications to Language Policy Development in the Philippines . *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(2), 18-29. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i2.283>.
- Bygate, M. (2009). 23 Teaching and Testing Speaking. *The handbook of language teaching*, 412.
- Carey, M. D., Mannell, R. H., & Dunn, P. K. (2011). Does a rater's familiarity with a candidate's pronunciation affect the rating in oral proficiency interviews? *Language Testing*, 28(2), 201-219.
- Clark, J. L., & Swinton, S. S. (1979). An exploration of speaking proficiency measures in the TOEFL context. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1979(1), i-69.

- Dimitrova-Galaczi, E. (1969). Peer-peer interaction in a paired speaking test: The case of the First Certificate in English.
- Franklin, C., Ballan, M., & Thyer, B. (2001). Reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Handbook of Social Work Research Methods*, 2, 273-292.
- Fujinaga, C. I., Zamberlan, N. E., Rodarte, M., & Scochi, C. (2007). Reliability of an instrument to assess the readiness of preterm infants for oral feeding. *Pro-fono: revista de atualizacao cientifica*, 19(2), 143-150.
- Fulcher, G. (2013). *Practical Language Testing*: Routledge.
- Fulcher, G., & Reiter, R. M. (2003). Task difficulty in speaking tests. *Language Testing*, 20(3), 321-344.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Gwet, K. L. (2014). *Handbook of Inter-rater Reliability: The Definitive Guide to Measuring the Extent of Agreement among Raters*. Advanced Analytics, LLC.
- Iwashita, N., Brown, A., & McNamara, T. (2008). *Assessed levels of second language speaking proficiency: How distinct Applied linguistics*.
- Karim, S., & Haq, N. (2014). An Assessment of IELTS Speaking Test. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, 3(3), 152-157.
- Kemiläinen, E. (2018). *Teaching and assessing oral skills in the advent of oral language testing in the Finnish Matriculation Examination*. Thesis. Master's thesis. University of Helsinki.
- Kernot, J., Olds, T., Lewis, L. K., & Maher, C. (2015). Test-retest reliability of the English version of the Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale. *Archives of Women's Mental Health*, 18(2), 255-257.
- Latief, M. A. (2016). Reliability of Language Skills Assessment Results. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 8(3).
- Li, J. (2019). An Evaluation of IELTS Speaking Test. *Open Access Library Journal*, 6(12), 1-17.
- Li, W. (2011). Validity Considerations in Designing an Oral Test. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(1), 267.

- Ling, G., Mollaun, P., & Xi, X. (2014). A study on the impact of fatigue on human raters when scoring speaking responses. *Language Testing*, 31(4), 479-499.
- May, L. (2009). Co-constructed interaction in a paired speaking test: The rater's perspective. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 397-421.
- May, L. (2011). *Interaction in a paired speaking test: The rater's perspective* (Vol. 24): Peter Lang.
- McCarthy, M., & O'Keeffe, A. (2004). 2. Research in the Teaching of Speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 26-43.
- Namaziandost, E., & Nasri, M. (2019). The impact of social media on EFL learners' speaking skill: a survey study involving EFL teachers and students. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 6(3), 199-215.
- Ockey, G. J. (2018). Oral language proficiency tests. *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, 1-5.
- Ozer, I., Fitzgerald, S. M., Sulbaran, E., & Garvey, D. (2014). Reliability and content validity of an English as a foreign language (EFL) grade-level test for Turkish primary grade students. *Procd Soc Behv*, 112, 924-929.
- Quaid, E. D. (2018). Reviewing the IELTS speaking test in East Asia: theoretical and practice-based insights. *Language Testing in Asia*, 8(1), 2.
- Ranganathan, P., Pramesh, C., & Aggarwal, R. (2017). Common pitfalls in statistical analysis: Measures of agreement. *Perspectives in Clinical Research*, 8(4), 187-191.
- Read, J., & Nation, P. (2006). An investigation of the lexical dimension of the IELTS speaking test. *International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Research Reports 2006: Volume 6*, 1.
- Restrepo, A. P. M., & Villa, M. E. Á. (2003). Estimating the validity. *REVISTA Universidad EAFIT*, 39(132), 65-75.
- Rohan-Minjares, F., Schutzman, E. Z., Chavez, M., Galicia, R., & Valverde, C. (2019). Oral Proficiency Language Testing for Medical Students.
- RSari, N. K., & Nike, S. (2017). The use of oral language assessment in learning speaking in junior high school.

- Shariq, M. (2020). Feedback and Speaking Skills in Task-Based Language Teaching: Proposed Corrective Measures for EFL Learners. *Asian ESP Journal*, 16(2), 232-248.
- Silvia, P. J. (2011). Subjective scoring of divergent thinking: Examining the reliability of unusual uses, instances, and consequences tasks. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 6(1), 24-30.
- Stenson, J., Vivanti, A., & Isenring, E. (2013). Inter-rater reliability of the Subjective Global Assessment: a systematic literature review. *Nutrition*, 29(1), 350-352.
- Tuan, L. T. (2012). Teaching and assessing speaking performance through analytic scoring approach. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(4), 673.
- Underhill, N., & Nic, U. (1987). *Testing Spoken Language: A Handbook of Oral Testing Techniques*. Cambridge University Press.
- Vera, J. D., & Vera, P. D. (2018). Oral Communication Skills in English among Grade 11 Humanities and Social Sciences (HUMSS) Students. *Asian ESP Journal*, 14 (5), 30-52.
- Winke, P., Gass, S., & Myford, C. (2013). Raters' L2 background as a potential source of bias in rating oral performance. *Language Testing*, 30(2), 231-252.



**WhatsApp as a writing tool in EFL Classroom: A study across two universities  
in Saudi Arabia**

**Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal**

*Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, Department of English and Translation,  
College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia*  
aa.alahdal@qu.edu.sa

**Nadia Muhammad Awdh Hussein**

*Assistance Professor of Linguistics, Department of English, Faculty of Arts and  
Humanities, Jazan University, Saudi Arabia*  
nadiaawdh@gmail.com

**Bio-profiles:**

**Dr. Arif Ahmed Al-Ahdal** is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Though his vocation is teaching, Dr. Al-Ahdal is an established poet and writer. He has to his credit two bilingual poetry collections, *To Yemen with Love and Joys and Sorrows*, published in Yemen in 2010 and a reference book "Preparing EFL Teachers for Tomorrow: Opening New Vistas in Teacher Development with INSET", published in Germany in 2015, apart from nearly 40 research papers published in Internationally Indexed Journals. He also gained cross-cultural teaching experience from three countries: Yemen, India and Saudi Arabia. With such diverse exposure, he was offered prestigious editorial responsibilities as Monograph Editor, Sage Open Journals, America; Section Editor, International Journal of Language and Literary Studies, Italy; Board Member of ELT Journal, Canada; Arab World English Journal, Malaysia; International Journal of English and Literary Studies, Australia; Journal of ELT and Applied Linguistics, India, among others. He is

also a freelance trainer and certified IELTS Examiner.

**Nadia Muhammad Awdh Hussein** is an assistance Professor of Linguistics, Department of English, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Jazan University, Saudi Arabia. Her research interests are Linguistics, Translation and SLA.

### **Abstracts**

EFL is one of Saudi Arabia's most essential and fastest developing educational fields, while school and college graduates can not write in English effectively. The present study used WhatsApp as a learning tool to improve the writing of learners in two Saudi Arabian universities. To assess the progress and commitment of learners, an essential but creative writing exercise was used. Twenty-four EFL students from two KSA universities, Qassim University and Jazan University participated. The results of the study indicate that using WhatsApp as a writing platform provides students with a valuable opportunity to improve their individuality, use their vocabulary, work together and transition from passive to active learners. In addition, this research highlighted the importance of recognizing the dynamic and complex essence of the application process of theories of learning and innovative approaches by technology interference. This also makes specific guidelines and further research for educational establishments in Saudi Arabia.

**Keywords:** *Learner engagement, Learning tool, WhatsApp in EFL learning, Technology as innovation in the classroom.*

### **Introduction**

The introduction of technology in the modern era brought significant changes to the educational environment. The new education model, education 4.0, allows teachers and students to be proficient at the latest technical technologies that can provide teaching efficiently. The use and incorporation of digital technologies was a challenge in today's modern education system. With the rapid rise of tablets, computers, and desktops, the traditional way of learning has been redefined with limitless student learning

opportunities (Briz-Ponce et al., 2017; Dunn & Kennedy, 2019; Park et al., 2019, Al-Ghamdi, Almansoob & Alrefaee, 2019; Elshahawy, 2020; Al-Ahdal, & Alqasham, 2020).

With WhatsApp, teachers have the chance to monitor and check their language output for mistakes in the EFL classroom. Further, students are able to refine their speech while they are rehearsing it (accent, intonation, speed of speech) while being more open and responsive to language. It is also examined from the study of the current literature on emerging technological tools to facilitate language learning that network-based environment can serve to be highly effective in enabling the language teachers to incorporate a wide range of material to improve language learning in the classrooms (Almekhlafy & Alzubi, 2016). The use of learning tools such as WhatsApp can serve to be highly valuable to improve the effectiveness of language learning to a highly significant extent. The huge quantum of data communicated through this tool makes it extremely useful for the learners of English as a foreign language because it is a powerful way to engage the learners with credible and real-life learning experiences associated to their cultural backgrounds (Almekhlafy & Alzubi, 2016).

### **WhatsApp**

WhatsApp is the world's most popular messaging network with over 700 million subscribers. This has become the 'knowledge hub' in social networking and transformed the way people communicate quickly (Susilo, 2014). This instant messaging program allows you to deliver free text messaging to any mobile generation, including iPhones, Ios, Blackberry and Nokia cell phones. As an exclusive fusion feature. Whatsapp should be described as a global social media network that can provide educators and learners with a highly useful educational resource. From a pedagogical viewpoint, the WhatsApp facilitates various different forms of communication using built-in mapping, ranging from text to images, audio and video files and locations (Alsaleem, 2013). Here it should be remembered that it is often used as a way of teaching vocabulary or disseminating general knowledge and language learning relations in EFL classrooms, which are useful as a dialogical organization for students. Smartphones are becoming a central part of our everyday lives. Everyone has their own cell phone. Cell telephones have grown exponentially since 1995 and applications have evolved concurrently. They are not only

used for receiving and making calls to text messages, but also for watching a movie and playing music and Internet access in many programs. Several operating systems have been developed to have more device accessibility, such as Windows, IOS and Android. Android Frameworks (Susilo, 2014) is being created. Lenhart, Madden, Smith and Macgill (2009) say that university students and, in particular, language learning are commonly engaged in messaging technology, making it a blessing to both teachers and learners.

### **Theoretical Grounding**

This study is grounded in the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). This theory in the field of information system explains how users accept and adopt technology based on its usefulness, ease of use, facilitating condition, and behavioural health (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989; Dwivedi et al., 2018 Al-Ahdal, & Shariq, 2019). Because of the soundness, simplicity, and adaptability of TAM, it is considered as one of the standard models to measure information system adoption and acceptance in the context of mobile learning (Dwivedi et al., 2019; Hansen, Saridakis, & Benson, 2018; King, & He, 2006). In the context of the present study, the use of WhatsApp among Saudi EFL students has been explored, guided with the dimensions of TAM. In such a way, better implementation of Mobile learning in language classes will improve students' learning performance. It will also provide necessary interventions for language educators on how to properly integrate the use of M-learning in the classroom with optimum students' participation. Accordingly, higher education institutions are tap to produce highly skilled and capable human resource have a role in understanding what affects students' technological acceptance and literacies before implementing interventions of setting up technological systems. The need for universities to have an analysis of the proper use of M-learning will let them identify the determinants which will leverage its implementation and utilization for students' development (Akour, 2010; Sulaiman & Almuhammad, 2018).

## Research Gaps and Context

While previous research focuses on the impacts of the use of technology in language learning (Lai, et al, 2016; El Shaban & Egbert, 2018; Chang, et al, 2016; Rawendy, et al, 2017; Stickler & Shi, 2016 Arrosagaray, et al, 2016; White, Drenzo & Bortolotto, 2016; Hung, et al, 2018; Mei, 2019; Kappalumakkel, 2020; Alrefaee, Mudkanna, & Almansoob, 2020), the majority of these studies are concentrated continuously on language learning technology results and perceptions, very few studies have studied the dynamics and complexity of its use to improve learners' skills in writing by comparing results across the two universities. The use of WhatsApp is extremely significant, especially in the Saudi educational context, as the country has more than one smartphone per person and mobile applications, which are extremely popular as educational instruments. This research specifically examined its usefulness as an instructional writing method for two universities in Saudi Arabia in EFL environments. WhatsApp is also a well-used worldwide social media device (Al-Shehri, 2014; Fattah, 2015; Fodah & Alajlan, 2015). Given its success, it is no wonder that it is adopted for various educational purposes by Saudi Arabia students and their teachers. Through an experimental analysis, Fattah (2015) reported that the use of WhatsApp contributed to an improvement through Saudi EFL's tertiary education achievements. Reports from many studies demonstrate WhatsApp's innovative role in improving the vocabulary, writing and punctuation of EFL students. The findings also reveal that the students who used WhatsApp to study English as a foreign language were slightly more punctuating and structuring the sentences in the classroom.

In KSA setting, Almekhlafy and Alzubi (2016) conducted a study using WhatsApp with forty EFL students in the University of Najran (KSA) to help enhance communication between students through free-range activities and topics with native English-speakers. The authors used mixed data collection methods that included semi-structured interviews with 10 participants and a 15-part questionnaire. Results showed that most students were optimistic about the use of WhatsApp and believed that it helped them in learning English. Other studies have also demonstrated that using WhatsApp increases learner self-confidence and impetus, and while speaking in English, there was a drop in their anxiety. Hazaea and Alzubi (2016) complemented the quasi-experimental

approach. They used qualitative analyses to find that the use of WhatsApp enhanced readability practices and maybe more significantly improved student reading at a Saudi Arabia university. Alshammari (2017) discusses how WhatsApp Messenger can provide language guide to EFL learners. In the studies cited here and in a large number of other studies with WA as a foreign language learning tool, mainly quantitative aspects have been the focus of research.

Further, the role of teacher agency using WhatsApp has so far not been studied from a qualitative perspective. It is this gap that the current paper endeavours to fill. The study is likely to be of great benefit to the EFL teaching community, institutions and planners who wish to modify teachers' role as facilitators of learning, and the broader learner community who will achieve greater autonomy with the new approach.

Institutional and administrative forces in the Saudi Arabia have been actively advocating the cause of technological integration into teaching pedagogies and many teaching communities have indeed achieved much in this direction. However, force of habit and cultural ethos have still kept the teacher at the centre of the learning universe, acting the fountainhead of all there is to learn, relegating the learners to being mostly silent recipients of 'information'. Each lesson is treated as a separate unit of knowledge wherein learner autonomy to ask questions or answer others' questions is negligible. In short, the teaching learning process is linear and bookish, one that leads to poor enrolment in English language, translation and literature courses, and where subscription is reasonable, failure rates are disheartening. The current study focuses on enhancing learners' writing skills using what they are best at, their smartphones.

### **Research Questions**

The study draws from the immense popularity of WhatsApp among smartphone users and investigates how innovative writing activities that use WhatsApp messaging can enhance the Saudi EFL learners' writing skills. The following questions are to be answered: (1) How successful is WhatsApp as a learning tool for the Saudi EFL learner? (2) What is the nature of activities that can be planned using WA to enhance learners' writing skills? (3) What are the micro language skills that are affected by the use of WA as an instructional tool?

## **Methodology**

### **Participants**

The current study takes the Qualitative Comparative Analysis approach, one which systematically compares a small number ( $5 < N < 75$ ) to evaluate trends in the enhancement of learners' writing skills across two universities in KSA over a period of four weeks with WhatsApp being used as an instructional tool. Voluntary participation from twelve students each enrolled in the Academic Writing Course at Qassim University and Jazan University, KSA was sought for the study. The participants were in fifth to sixth semester of the BA Course of the academic year 2018-2019. This was a strictly non-classroom investigation, one which exclusively targeted the writing skills of the participants in a collaborative environment and to widen the scope of the study, we based the study in two campuses.

### **Activities for Data Collection**

There can be no doubt that WhatsApp can be an effective learning tool given its availability on all smartphones, free access, high popularity and adaptability to post text, image, video or audio materials. These very features made it possible to conduct the activity simultaneously across two campuses. In the pre activity preparation, we formed the WhatsApp group with each participant being given the responsibility to update the icon on a daily basis (the total number of days available being 24 at six working days in a week) with an interesting image or language component, such as a quote or idiom. This ensured that even the lone reticent participants had an opportunity to contribute. All participants were requested to observe public communication etiquette by being polite, communicative, and regular on the group and posting only activity related materials. Finally, they were asked to use the group as an information portal from which they could extract ideas and facts to prepare a report at the end of the week.

### **Week 1**

In keeping with the global crisis of the Coronavirus outbreak, the first activity invited participants to brainstorm on the 5Ws and 1H of the event based upon one of the early news stories that circulated on Twitter and WhatsApp. They were encouraged to

post their views via text or image that conveyed as much information about the disease as possible. On day one itself, the total number of text messages was upwards of 73, with participants posting general as well as specific information on the problem. Many of these posts were based upon internet sites and contained critical appraisals from economic, political, social and medical viewpoints. A few posts were also related to the earlier viral outbreaks of SARS and Ebola in other parts of the world. This line of conversation was kept alive for the remaining portion of the week with new updates being uploaded. The researcher kept a diligent record of posts to ensure full participation, and where a participant(s) was missed for more than a few hours, a prompt request to contribute was posted. On at least two occasions this did check absenteeism. By the end of the week, the WhatsApp group had a precious resource of numerical and other data on the status of the outbreak across twelve countries, by when it was time for the weekly submissions of reports which were kept at a low word count of 1200 words for the first week. These essays were submitted online and evaluated by the researcher for content value, organization, the scope of writing, and general English which included grammar, sentence structure and variety of vocabulary used.

## **Week 2**

In the subsequent week, the discussion was taken to the possible forecast for the coming weeks as governments across the world scrambled to contain the problem, the nodal points of discussion were global cooperation, awareness and readiness to face a possible escalation. This week required greater critical thinking and brainstorming by the participants. The frequency, content, and solemnity of the posts were remarkable during this week, and it was observed that generally, the participants were sending original instead of forwarded messages. During this week, the participants were encouraged to also post the line of discussion they were likely to take while composing their end-of-the-week report. This new angle of collaboration was greatly appreciated by the participants as they got better insights into how their peers planned to go about the activity. The word limit for the reports was increased to 1400 words.

### **Week 3**

The following week was dedicated to the Saudi Arabian milieu in the wake of the outbreak, and the participants were encouraged to contribute and think of the measures locally taken to contain the spread, contribution of social networks in spreading awareness, social, political and economic outcomes on the local and national scale etc. This saw enthusiastic participation with scores of videos and audios being contributed to the group. It was noted that emoticons ruled the conversations during this week, conveying more than text messages in some instances. The weekly report was requested in about 1800 words and participants were free to use images too in their reports.

### **Week 4**

The last week was the most interesting as it was given to participant feedback on the preceding three weeks, with the researcher inserting queries that elicited information from the participants on the drawbacks of the activities, suggestions for improvement, any other views they may like to share. This week saw a record post of 80+ contributions a day with some very insightful and useful ideas on both the methodology and how it could be made better. Participants also actively commented on the views of their peers, sometimes agreeing and at others countering them.

### **Results**

The study explored the use of WhatsApp as a writing tool in the Saudi EFL classroom. Results showed that WhatsApp is effective in enhancing the writing skills of EFL students. It is seen that participants' writing skills improved drastically by the middle of the second week. Learner participation was heartening as the researcher noted that each one of them contributed at least two posts each day. As the activity moved into the second week, this figure steadily rose to seven. The quality of contributions also improved as learners vied with their peers to add better worded and more informative posts. These changes also reflected across the three weekly reports which were duly evaluated by two departmental colleagues of the researcher, who graded them on a scale of 1-10 each on the following parameters: Content, Analytical approach, Critical thinking, Use of vocabulary, Organization of topics, Connectivity of argument, Richness of ideas,

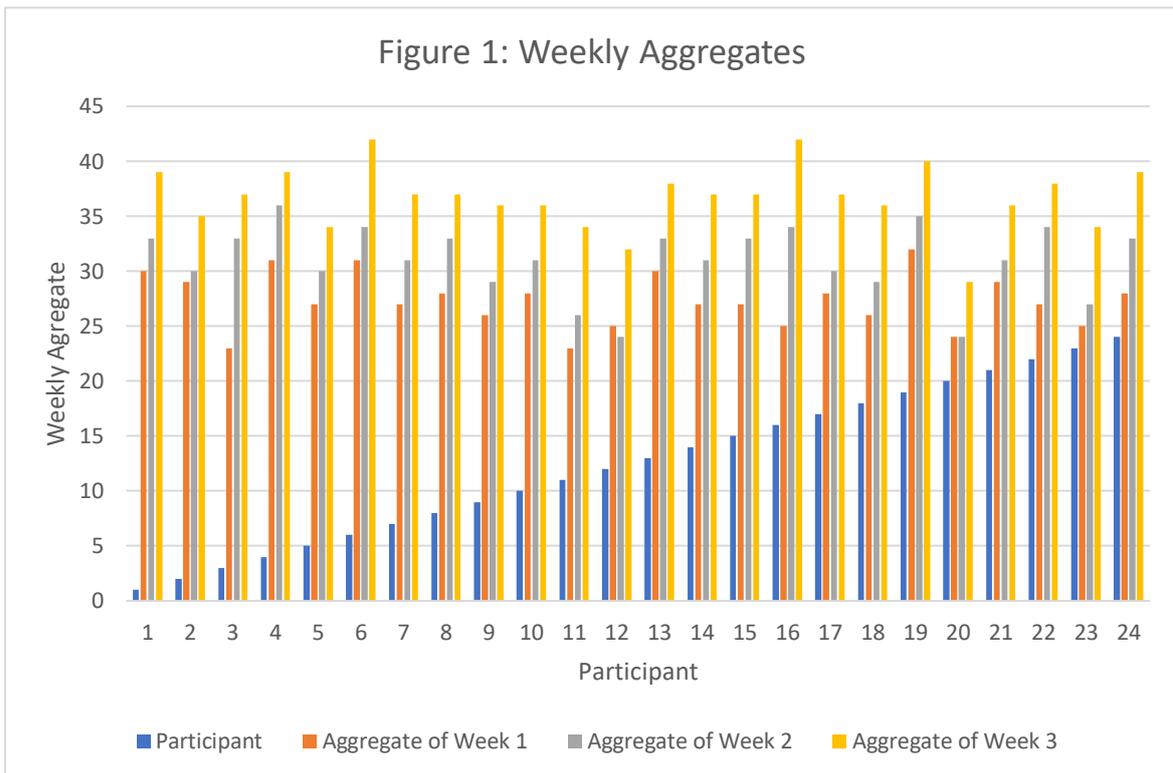
in all a maximum score of 70, reflected as the aggregate of the week. Table 1 below presents these grades.

Table 1. Weeks 1-3 Aggregates

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Aggregate of Week 1</b>	<b>Aggregate of Week 2</b>	<b>Aggregate of Week 3</b>
1	30	33	39
2	29	30	35
3	23	33	37
4	31	36	39
5	27	30	34
6	31	34	42
7	27	31	37
8	28	33	37
9	26	29	36
10	28	31	36
11	23	26	34
12	25	24	32
13	30	33	38
14	27	31	37
15	27	33	37
16	25	34	42
17	28	30	37
18	26	29	36
19	32	35	40
20	24	24	29
21	29	31	36
22	27	34	38
23	25	27	34
24	28	33	39

The aggregate scores above clearly indicate that all participants across the two universities benefitted by improving their writing skills even though the activity duration was a few weeks.

Figure 1 below graphically represents this change:



Even with participants who showed no change between the first and second weeks, such as participant 20 or participant 12 who showed a marginal drop, eventually picked up by the time they needed to write their report in the third week. Further, group mean for the first week stood at 27.33, it rose to 31 in week 2, and finally to 36.7 by the end of week 3. Statistical difference or *p* value between the Week 1 and Week 3 scores came to 0.06 which means that using WhatsApp as an instructional tool in EFL writing does lead to enhanced outcomes. Further, the examination of the aggregate scores for each week individually revealed that the maximum scores achieved by the participants

were in week 1 was 32 by 1 participant followed by a score of 31 by 2 participants and 30 by another 2 participants. The remaining all participants had a score below 30. The lowest score earned in this respected in week 1 was 23 (see figure below).

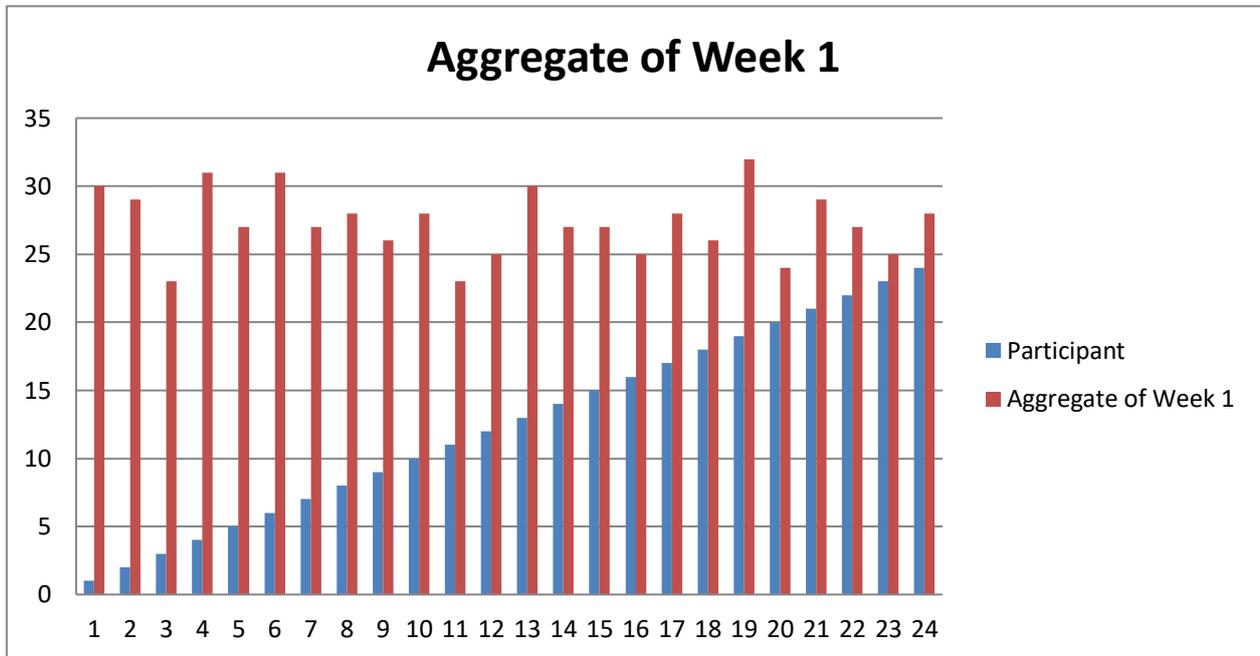


Figure 2

In respect of the aggregate scores achieved by the participants in the week 2, it was examined that the highest score earned by the participants was 36 by 1 participant followed by a score of 35 by 1 participant and 34 by another 3 participants. The remaining all participants had a score below 30. The lowest score earned in this respect in week 1 was 24 (see figure below). These findings indicate that in comparison of the aggregate score in week 1, the scores in week 2 were higher.

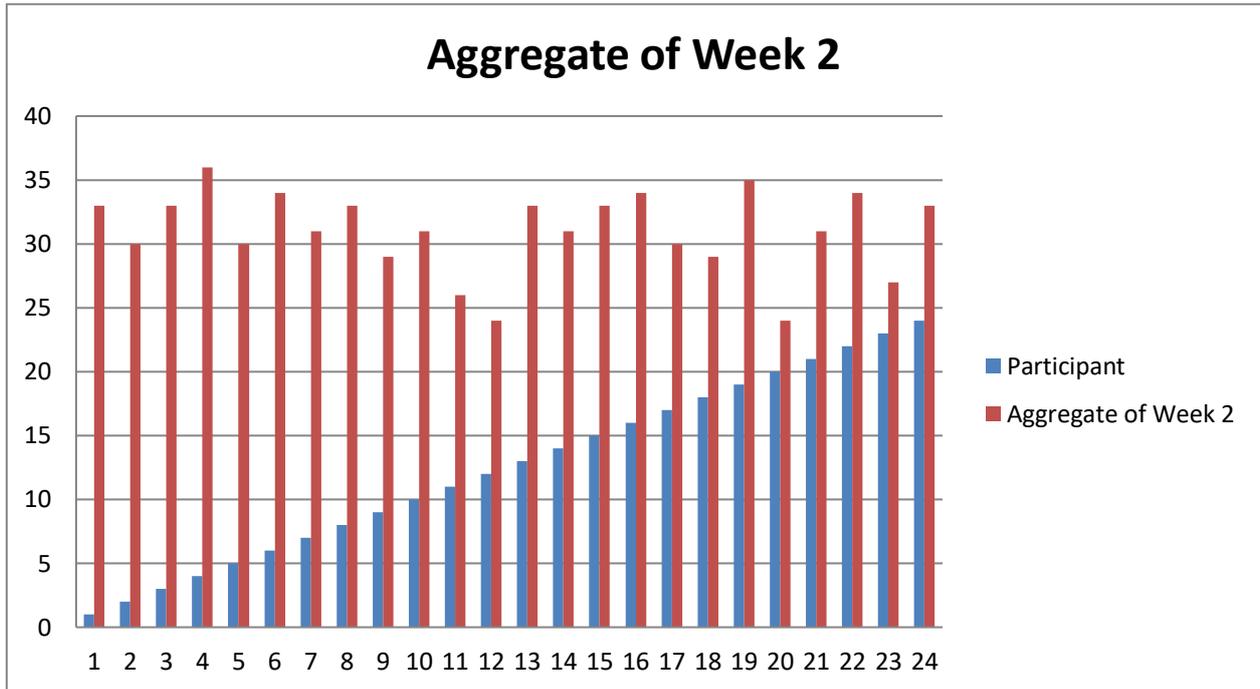


Figure 3

### Discussion

The study explored the use of WhatsApp as a writing tool in Saudi EFL classroom. Results showed that WhatsApp is effective in enhancing the writing skills of EFL students. It is fast evolving as a platform that can be used for various educational purposes, as social networks are prevalent among young people. Being a social platform for interaction and communication, several researchers are taking an interest in it as a tool to facilitate English language education. In respect of EFL Saudi learners, the usage of WhatsApp serves to be a highly effective and reliable platform that helps in addressing the formal and informal interactions. In a comparison of other subjects, successful learning of any language is partly dependent on the learner's ability of expression. By allowing an extensive interaction with their peers, WhatsApp offers a unique platform where students can pursue continuous communication, raise concerns on everyday issues, seek clarification and engage in formal and informal activities. This mechanism helps develop positive social interactions between the students themselves and between the students and the teacher. The usage and the potential importance of WhatsApp can also be supported by the critical feature of instant messaging (IM) within a classroom. There

has been numerous evidence of the significant usage and benefits of IM in the classroom context in the process of learning. It holds a higher potential for learning, and it also raises the probability of the learners to be active during the process of learning and create positive interactions between the student and their faculties. Shahbaz & Khan (2017) highlight the findings of a study wherein WhatsApp was used as a substitute to SMS, a message service that is expensive and less convenient. Its application allowed the users to gain additional material related to comprehensive questions through the study material links shared on WhatsApp group. The findings of the questionnaire in the study revealed that after the 12-week implementation of the exercise, students were examined to have increased their tendency to enjoy learning activities and increased the reading practice. The ability of reading comprehension among the students was also examined to have improved significantly through the usage of WhatsApp. Based on these findings of the literature regarding the unique features of WhatsApp, its highly significant pedagogical implications for ELF learners in Arab countries can be established.

Particularly, its features facilitating the creation of a pleasant environment that allows learning even beyond the classroom hours can serve to be highly beneficial for the EFL learners in Saudi Arabia. The additional advantages of this application facilitate the learners to increase interaction with numerous people concurrently irrespective of time and distance. This makes it a practical and useful platform to facilitate interaction among people speaking various languages and living in various countries and cultures. Nevertheless, it is important that the educators demonstrate the willingness to utilize this tool to be used such that maximum benefits can be drawn out of it. It is further examined that WhatsApp is also additionally embedded with unique and highly interactive features and functions that enhance its usability. It allows sharing videos, audios, several web links, files, and even making video calls. There is also an additional feature that allows group chatting and enable members to communicate in a free and safe manner. As per the latest statistics, instant messaging through WhatsApp managed up to 10 billion messages per day until August 2012 (Sarhandi, Asgar & Abidi, 2018).

This level of convenience and information sharing associated with WhatsApp instant messaging can serve to be highly beneficial for the EFL students to improve their learning, interaction and collaboration. Out of the varied collaborative features on

WhatsApp, text-based features and short message modes are the most commonly used features used by the students in higher education to send messages. With a tremendous rise in the usage of this platform, several higher education institutions in the world have adapted to the application of these technologies in the process of learning (Alabasi & Alghamadi, 2019). Another important and notable feature associated with the usage of WhatsApp in various institutions is the discussion forum. Creating these platforms allow detailed and never-ending discussions between the instructor and the students themselves. This helps in creating and developing the teaching communities as core assistance for the learning process, particularly the conventional learning process ( Bangayan- Manera, 2019).

### **Conclusion**

WhatsApp is a cheap but highly effective learning tool to enhance EFL learners' writing skills. It's one feature that engages learners the most is its flexibility, not only of time and place but also of the mode of communication that one may choose whether text, audio, video or even emojis, all of which are highly popular with the young users. The bulk of posts on the WhatsApp group in the study supported this notion as practically all participants were regular and active in their posts. Weekly writing assessments also showed a steady rise with remarkable differences reflecting between scores for week one and week 3. Feedback of the assessors also confirmed enhancement in the quality of the participants' writings as all the seven parameters showed improvement.

### **Implications**

The results in the study lead us to conclude that WhatsApp may be used across campuses in KSA as a useful tool in writing exercises. The very activity of writing and its follow-up by the teachers are both time consuming and sometimes seen as non-engaging by the learners, especially given their limited language skill. With the introduction of the collaborative element even across campuses, much of the passiveness of the activity is got rid of while at the same time, learners are ever excited to interact with their peers. It may be recommended that writing assignments be shifted to the domain of the apps if we are to keep our learners engaged and obtain desirable learning

outcomes. However, the scope of this study was limited with a small group of participants. Hence it is recommended that studies with broader range be initiated before implementing WhatsApp as an instructional tool in the EFL environment of KSA.

## References

- Akour, H. (2010). *Determinants of mobile learning acceptance: an empirical investigation in higher education* (pp. 1-378). Oklahoma State University.
- Alabasi, K.M. & Alghamadi, F.M.A. (2019). Students' Opinions on the Functions and Usefulness of Communication on WhatsApp in the EFL Higher Education Context. *Arab World English Journal* pp.129-144.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. & Alqasham, F. H. (2020). WhatsApp in language classroom: Gauging Saudi EFL teachers' roles and experiences *Opción*, 36, Especial No.26 (2020): 1667-1680.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., & Shariq, M. (2019). MALL: Resorting to Mobiles in the EFL Classroom. *The Journal of Social Sciences Research*, 90-96.
- Al-Ghamdi, N., Almansoob, N., & Alrefae, Y. (2019). Pragmatic Failure in the Realization of the Speech act of Responding to Compliments among Yemeni EFL Undergraduates. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature®*, 25(4). 227-240. <http://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2019-2504-14>
- Almekhlafy, S. S. A., & Alzubi, A. A. F. (2016). Mobile-mediated communication a tool for language exposure in EFL informal learning settings. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 7(1), 388-407.
- Alrefae, Y., Mudkanna, A., & Almansoob, N. T. (2020). Refusals of Suggestions and Offers: An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16-2-1, 176-195.
- Alsalem, B. I. A. (2013). The effect of "WhatsApp" electronic dialogue journaling on improving writing vocabulary word choice and voice of EFL undergraduate Saudi students. *Arab World English Journal*, 4(3), 213-225.
- Alshammari, R., Parkes, M., & Adlington, R. (2017). Using WhatsApp in EFL Instruction with Saudi Arabian University Students. *Arab World English Journal*, 8 (4).

- Al-Shehri, S. (2014). Mobile learning in the Arab world: Contemporary and future implications. In X. Xu (Ed.), *Interdisciplinary mobile media and communications: Social, political, and economic implications* (pp. 48-62). Hershey, PA: IGI Global.
- Arrosagaray, M., González-Peiteado, M., Pino-Juste, M., & Rodríguez-López, B. (2019). A comparative study of Spanish adult students' attitudes to ICT in classroom, blended and distance language learning modes. *Computers & Education, 134*, 31-40.
- Bangayan- Manera, A. (2019). Doodle: Towards A Hermeneutical Appreciation in Jacques Derrida's Deconstruction. *The Asian EFL Journal, 24*(4.2), 191-204
- Briz-Ponce, L., Pereira, A., Carvalho, L., Juanes-Méndez, J. A., & García-Peñalvo, F. J. (2017). Learning with mobile technologies—Students' behavior. *Computers in Human Behavior, 72*, 612-620.
- Chang, C., Chang, C. K., & Shih, J. L. (2016). Motivational strategies in a mobile inquiry-based language learning setting. *System, 59*, 100-115.
- Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). User acceptance of computer technology: a comparison of two theoretical models. *Management science, 35*(8), 982-1003
- Dunn, T. J., & Kennedy, M. (2019). Technology Enhanced Learning in higher education; motivations, engagement and academic achievement. *Computers & Education, 137*, 104-113.
- Dwivedi, Y. K., Rana, N. P., Jeyaraj, A., Clement, M., & Williams, M. D. (2019). Re-examining the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT): Towards a revised theoretical model. *Information Systems Frontiers, 21*(3), 719-734.
- El Shaban, A., & Egbert, J. (2018). Diffusing education technology: A model for language teacher professional development in CALL. *System, 78*, 234-244.
- Elshahawy, K. E. M. (2020). Practicing English through Digital Devices: Practices and Perceptions of the EFL Undergraduate Students Majoring in English Language. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies, 2*(1), 21-37. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i1.109>.

- Fattah, S. F. E. S. A. (2015). The effectiveness of using WhatsApp messenger as one of mobile learning techniques to develop students' writing skills. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(32), 115-127.
- Fodah, O., & Alajlan, H. (2015). A work in progress survey on mobile learning in higher education in Saudi Arabia. Paper presented at the Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference 2015, Las Vegas, NV, United States.
- Hansen, J. M., Saridakis, G., & Benson, V. (2018). Risk, trust, and the interaction of perceived ease of use and behavioral control in predicting consumers' use of social media for transactions. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 80, 197-206.
- Hazaea, A. N., & Alzubi, A. A. (2016). The effectiveness of using mobile on EFL learners' reading practices in Najran University. *English Language Teaching*, 9(5), 8.
- Hung, H. T., Yang, J. C., Hwang, G. J., Chu, H. C., & Wang, C. C. (2018). A scoping review of research on digital game-based language learning. *Computers & Education*, 126, 89-104.
- Kappalumakkal, T. B. (2020). Application of Mobile Phone as a Motivational Tool in the ESP Classrooms of Dhofar University. *International Journal of Language and Literary Studies*, 2(1), 81-89. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlls.v2i1.116>.
- King, W. R., & He, J. (2006). A meta-analysis of the technology acceptance model. *Information & management*, 43(6), 740-755.
- Lai, C., Wang, Q., Li, X., & Hu, X. (2016). The influence of individual espoused cultural values on self-directed use of technology for language learning beyond the classroom. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 62, 676-688.
- Lenhart, A., M. Madden, A. Smith, & AR Macgill. (2009). Teens and social media: An overview. Washington, DC: Pew Internet and American Life. (5) (PDF) Social media's impact on teenagers and women.
- Mei, B. (2019). Preparing preservice EFL teachers for CALL normalisation: A technology acceptance perspective. *System*, 83, 13-24.
- Park, C., Kim, D. G., Cho, S., & Han, H. J. (2019). Adoption of multimedia technology for learning and gender difference. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 92, 288-296.

- Rawendy, D., Ying, Y., Arifin, Y., & Rosalin, K. (2017). Design and development game Chinese language learning with gamification and using mnemonic method. *Procedia Computer Science, 116*, 61-67.
- Sarhandi, P.S.A., Asgar, J. & Abidi, A.A. (2018). Interaction patterns in WhatsApp conversation in EFL classroom: pedagogical implications. *Journal of Academic and Social Research 1*(1), pp. 1-18.
- Shahbaz, M. & Khan, R.M.I. (2017). Use of mobile immersion in foreign language teaching to enhance target language vocabulary learning. *MIER Journal of Educational Studies, Trends & Practices 17*(1), pp. 66-82.
- Stickler, U., & Shi, L. (2016). TELL us about CALL: An introduction to the Virtual Special Issue (VSI) on the development of technology enhanced and computer assisted language learning published in the System Journal. *System, 56*, 119-126.
- Sulaiman, M., & Almuhammad, A. (2018). *An extended information system success model for mobile learning usage in Saudi Arabia universities* (Doctoral dissertation, Universiti Utara Malaysia).
- Susilo, A. (2014). Exploring Facebook and WhatsApp as supporting social network applications for English learning in higher education. *Applications for English Learning in Higher Education*, 10-24.
- White, C., Drenzo, R., & Bortolotto, C. (2016). The learner-context interface: Emergent issues of affect and identity in technology-mediated language learning spaces. *System, 62*, 3-14.



## **The Impact of Translanguaging on the EFL Competence Development of Arabic Speaking Learners**

**Seham Elashhab**

Saelashhab@uqu.edu.sa

English Language Center

Umm AL-Qura University, Makkah, Saudi Arabia

[saelashhab@uqu.edu.sa](mailto:saelashhab@uqu.edu.sa)

### **Bio-profile:**

**Dr. Seham Elashhab** has a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from University of Ottawa, Canada. She has many years of English teaching experiences. Her research capabilities can be seen in several published papers in Applied Linguistics employing recent theories and approaches in the fields. Her research interests include all aspects of language teaching and learning as well as teacher development and training. She presented her work and conducted workshops in several conferences in various countries. She has been an active member in Accreditation Committee and Recruitment Committee of English Language Centre among others at Umm AL-Qura University.

### **Abstract**

The aim of this study is to scrutinize the impact that the use of translanguaging strategies has on bilingual learners and to discover whether or not these strategies support their English language development. The researcher describes bilingual students' translanguaging strategies and how it enhances their target language communication; this study explores how Arabic speaking learners use their first Language (L1) as a resource for constructing meaning. Participants are Saudi medical students, studying English as a

prerequisite course from three different English language proficiency levels. The current study examines how translanguaging contributes to university students' four English language skills improvement. Data was collected during lessons taught, observations, unstructured interviews with students and their teachers, questionnaire feedback, and participation in a collegial circle. Findings revealed that translanguaging did promote the growth of students' English language and developed their communication in the target language. The researcher proposes via a continuum of bilingual lens that welcoming of translanguaging in classrooms is not only necessary, but desirable educational practice. Qualitative inquiries were used throughout a school year-long unit.

**Keywords:** *translanguaging, communicative skills, Arabic FL learners, learning strategies*

## **Background**

Translanguaging is an increasingly notable term in the field of applied linguistics defined as an approach to using language and educating multilingual students with the language practices of bilingual speakers who draw from one linguistic repertoire (Garcia and Wei 2014). Translanguaging is at the forefront of the research agenda (Carroll and Mazak, 2017). In recent years, with multicultural classrooms becoming more common, the notion of translanguaging as a new paradigm has brought a new insight into how classroom languages are viewed and often with profound impact on the practice of language teaching and research. Translanguaging refers to the ability of bilingual speakers to utilize and integrate diverse language resources to create their own voice. It challenges the traditional belief that languages are separate entities, each with its prescribed and fixed norms. Canagarajah (2012) argues that, throughout history and common among speakers from both monolingual and multilingual backgrounds, instances of translanguaging can be observed. Moreover, all speakers can be considered translinguals to some degree, in that they freely mesh semiotic resources from different languages and symbol systems in situated practice to construct meaning. Canagarajah's practice-based analysis has shown that language norms are being continuously negotiated and redefined in spoken and written communication.

For Garcia & Wei (2014), translanguaging refers to the *process* by which bilingual students perform bilingually in the myriad ways of classrooms. Translanguaging across the boundaries of named languages is understood as a languaging practice that is valuable and useful for bilingual speakers and bilingual learners (Woodley & Brown, 2016). This translanguaging perspective represents a paradigm shift from the traditional focus on structural constraints and separate roles of different languages in learning to what some linguists call “integrational” approaches (Harris, 1997), and more importantly, beyond the narrow focus on linguistic structures and the narrow concept of language. Such a shift also echoes the shifts in other disciplines to connectivity, fluidity, and mobility. While the point of departure in most code-switching research is the identification of different named languages such as Spanish, Chinese, Arabic, Russian, or English, the translanguaging approach challenges the idea that different named languages, which exist as historical, political, and ideological entities, exist as cognitive entities in the human mind. As Thierry (2016) pointed out, it is inconceivable from the available research evidence that the human mind can be divided into different languages. Some earlier experimental data did show that processing later acquired language(s) might involve certain neural networks that are not central to first language (L1) processing. But that tells us more about the process of language learning than about the representation of different languages in the human mind (Li & Ho, 2018). This new understanding has implications in language teaching, especially in academic writing and speaking, where negotiation strategies are deployed not only to clarify information but also to co-construct meanings in a way to ensure individual voices are more effectively heard. Related research has also shown that translanguaging pedagogies are beneficial on learning all four language skills (Chen, Chiao, & Tsou, 2019).

Globalization, together with the advancement of technology, has fundamentally changed the way people learn and use languages. People no longer have to sit in a classroom with a teacher giving instructions in order to learn a new language. Instead, they do it on their own, in small groups, with the help of online platforms and mobile devices, at times of their own choice. The language they learn may seem piecemeal, given that they need it for a variety of reasons such as travel, personal relationships, and entertainment. Even in the classroom context, language learning is most often supported

by technologies of various kinds, and the learners and the teachers may come from very diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, with diverse learning motivations and objectives. Therefore, foreign language (FL) teachers are no longer the main source of the target language (TL).

Over the years, translanguaging has come to refer to purposeful alternation of language mode of input and output in a variety of bilingual classrooms. It is the maximization of the learner's and the teacher's linguistic resources in the process of problem solving that attracts bilingual educators and bilingual education researchers to the concept of translanguaging. It has also been taken up by researchers and practitioners working in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and even English as a medium of instruction (EMI), especially by those who are critical of the traditional, monolingual approaches to CLIL and EMI (e.g. Lin & Lo, 2017; Carroll and Mazak, 2016). As discussed in Garcia and Wei (2014), translanguaging is a process of sense making and meaning making that involves use of the learner's linguistic repertoire in a dynamic and integrated manner without regard to the named languages individually and separately, that is, transcending the boundaries of named languages. This does not mean that the learner is not aware of the cultural and political connotations or the structural constraints of specific named languages; quite the contrary, they are fully aware of such facts but are also able to mobilize this knowledge for strategic gains.

To us, (English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and researchers) the relevance of translanguaging to modern foreign language teaching and learning is challenging our conventional thinking about the dichotomies between first language (L1) versus second language (L2) or native versus non-native language speakers, and connects language-learning research with the extensive research that exists on bilingualism and multilingualism. It is useful to remind ourselves that the purpose of learning an additional language is to achieve some degree of bilingualism or multilingualism rather than replacing one language with another. Yet real bilingual and multilingual language users and how they use languages in real-life social situations are rarely used as a model in L2 and additional language teaching and learning. Instead, it is often an idealized monolingual, so-called L1 native speaker that is used as the norm and the target of learning. There is a real disconnect between our knowledge of bilingual and multilingual

language users and their linguistic practices, on the one hand, and L2 and additional language teaching and learning, on the other.

Translanguaging is defined by Garcia (2009) as the “multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds” (p.45). Drawing heavily on “poststructuralism”, the use of the term translanguaging reflects recent shifts in the fields of socio- and applied linguistics which reject the notion of languages as discrete, separate entities (Rivera & Mazak, 2019). Mazak (2017) outlines five definitions of translanguaging that are currently being used in the research literature, mostly in education. She states that translanguaging is (a) “a language ideology that takes bilingualism as the norm,” (b) “a theory of bilingualism” which “posits that bilinguals do not separate their ‘languages’ into discrete systems, but rather possess one integrated repertoire of language practices from which they draw,” (c) “a pedagogical stance” that allows teachers and students to “draw on all of their linguistic and semiotic resources as they teach and learn both language and content material,” (d) “a set of practices” that are still being researched and described, including but not limited to “code-switching” and translation, and (e) a transformational practice that continually invents and reinvents the world through languaging (pp. 6-7).

Consequently, As English Language Learners are bilingual indeed considering that they have their first language (Arabic) and second language they got from formal education (English) even only in the classroom context. Therefore, teachers cannot isolate the two language systems in the minds of the learners, since they are bilinguals not two monolingual in one person. Teachers may give time and space to put those two languages alongside each other in the learning process, otherwise they will never be able to do that for themselves.

Translanguaging then, is not just another word for code-switching, but rather is meant to describe practices that are part of bilingual repertoires which go beyond code-switching. For example, Mazak and Herbas-Donoso (2014), name the following translanguaging practices observed in a higher education science classroom:

- (1) Using English key terminology in discussion of scientific content in Spanish (L1)
- (2) Reading text in English and talking about it in Spanish (L1)
- (3) Using Spanish (L1) cognates while referring to English text

(4) Talking about figures labeled in English using Spanish (L1)

(5) Pronouncing English acronyms in Spanish (L1). (p. 7)

Thus, translanguaging is distinct from code-switching as it emphasizes that students bring their entire linguistic repertoires to classroom interactions (hence “switching” no longer makes sense, as all languages are present). Translanguaging also offers a way to describe bilingual practices, which at a first glance, may not appear bilingual, such as the very common practice of reading of texts in English and discussing them in L1.

Instructors who spoke some L1 in the classroom indicated that L1 facilitated communication, built rapport with students, and helped them explain grammar (AL-Nofaie, 2010). Advocates for teaching completely in the target language believed that students were less likely to distract the teacher or stray from the target language if L1 was not allowed. These teachers believed that by eliminating L1, students perceived target-language activities to be purposeful and not a game played during class time. The hesitancy about choice of language for instruction also was addressed recently by experienced language teachers in an advice forum for new teachers. The experienced group underscored the importance of using the target language, despite temptations and pressure from students to fall back on L1. One strategy was to use L1 only as needed, minimally, deliberately, and set off from the rest of the lesson (Sweley, 2006). This recommendation is echoed by Wilkerson (2009), who advocates for a clear separation between the use of target and native languages. These collective discussions indicate that there is some support for limited, prudent use of L1 in the modern language classroom. Hence, in modern foreign language classrooms, it is still often assumed that the use of L1 should be minimized as it interferes with and slows down the process of learning and producing the target language (AL-Nofaie, 2010). The following research questions constitute the essence of this study:

- 1- How does the use of translanguaging strategies develop a student’s English language proficiency?
- 2- Does students’ FL level influence the use of translanguaging?
- 3- What are the situations in which students prefer to use Arabic (L1)?

## **Methodology**

To answer these questions, the study used a mixed-method inquiry that used survey questionnaires for quantitative data collection. For qualitative data collection, collegial discussions, talks with some participated students to clarify their classroom learning behaviors and progress, and classroom observations were employed. Survey questions are based on Champlin (2016) study.

## **Participants**

The participants of this study were 52 Saudi female university students between the ages of 19 and 23 years, from the faculty of medicine. They are from three different language proficiency levels (beginners, intermediate, and advanced) based on their results of Oxford Language Placement Test. These 52 students are distributed into three different classrooms according to their language proficiency levels and are enrolled in English as a prerequisite course. The teachers of these three groups were also participants of this study including the researcher. The first language of all the participants (teachers and students) is Arabic.

## **Data Collection**

Different forms of qualitative and quantitative data were used for this study. First, the researcher conducted lessons as an active participant, collecting data while simultaneously instructing by taking notes and keeping field logs. Second, classroom observations were carried out for three different language proficiency level groups. Third, an online survey containing 15 items was sent via Google form in order to gather information from the participants of the study. Fourth, the researcher recorded and transcribed informal meeting discussions of teachers who were implementing translanguaging approach.

As an active participant, I collected data while instructing lessons. I taught whole group lessons, and asked students to answer comprehension questions in English. In order to collect data during this time, I kept track of the students who I asked questions to, and how they responded using logs and notes.

## Results and Discussion

This section illustrates the results of the survey responses of the participants in table (1). Then it deliberates the impact of translanguaging on classroom communication, learners' participation, content comprehension and vocabulary learning.

**Table (1): Results of the survey statements**

No.	Survey items	never	rarely	sometimes	often	Always
1	I prepare my ideas in Arabic first before writing	1	7	13	16	15
		1.9%	13.5%	25%	30.7%	28.8%
2	To understand the sentence structure, I recall similar or same Arabic structures	2	12	16	11	11
		3.8%	23%	30.7%	21.1%	21.1%
3	To understand the grammatical rules, I compare them with Arabic rules	31	9	5	5	2
		59.6%	17.3%	9.6%	9.6%	3.8%
4	To confirm my comprehension of new words or phrases, I translate them to Arabic.	3	0	11	17	24
		5.7%	0%	21.1%	32.6%	46.1%
5	I prepare my sentences in Arabic before saying them in English	10	13	15	1	13
		19.2%	25%	28.8%	1.9%	25%
6	I think in Arabic while reading	19	11	8	10	4
		36.5%	21.1%	15.3%	19.2%	7.6%
7	To process a reading text I use Arabic language	14	15	13	3	7
		26.9%	28.8%	25%	5.7%	13.4%
8	I use Arabic to understand the meaning of new vocabulary	3	0	12	14	23
		5.7%	0%	23%	26.9%	44.2%
9	I use Arabic to understand a concept	3	5	15	16	13
		5.7%	9.6%	28.8%	30.7%	25%
10	I use Arabic to ask permission	0	25	16	2	9
		0%	48%	30.7%	3.8%	17.3%
11	I use Arabic to respond to teacher's questions	15	15	12	1	9
		28.8%	28.8%	23%	1.9%	17.3%
12	I use Arabic to explain problems not related to content	7	16	15	8	6
		13.4%	30.7%	28.8%	15.3%	10.9%
13	I use Arabic to brainstorm during class activities	4	10	16	13	9
		7.6%	19.2%	30.7%	25%	17.3%
14	I use Arabic to provide assistance to peers during activities	5	11	18	13	5
		9.6%	21.1%	34.6%	25%	9.6%
15	I use Arabic to discuss content or activities in small groups.	3	6	19	12	12
		5.7%	11.5%	36.5%	23%	23%
<b>AVG</b>		15.34%	19.84%	26.1%	18.16%	20.69%

- The red numbers are percentage of each choice per total of choices of each item.
- AVG is the average of percentage of each single choice for all statements.
- There is a minimal rate error in percentages, because only one percent has been adopted for arithmetic fractions.

Table (1) illustrates that most of participated students 30.7% often prepare their ideas in Arabic before writing in English, and 30.7% of students sometimes recall Arabic structures to understand similar English structures. This represents the highest number of participants who utilize translanguaging. In addition, 46.1% of participants reported that they always translanguage to confirm their comprehension of new words or phrases. Also, 28.8% of the participants sometimes prepare what they want to say in Arabic first before saying it in L2, and 44.2% of the participants always use Arabic to understand new vocabulary. Moreover, 30.7% of the participants often use Arabic to understand a concept, and 30.7% of the participants sometimes translanguage to brainstorm, which is the highest percentage. Further, 34.6% of the participated students sometimes use Arabic to provide assistance to peers during class activities. Likewise, 36.5% of the participants sometimes use Arabic to discuss content and activities in small groups. All these percentages represent the highest number of students who sometimes, often or always use translanguaging strategies to enhance their English. On the other hand, 59.6% of the participants never translanguage to understand grammatical rules which is the highest number for 'never' choice, as Arabic grammar is totally different from English. Further, 48% of the participated students rarely translanguage to ask for permission, which is also the highest number for 'rarely' choice, as this is an easy task that does not need any translanguaging.

### **1. Translanguaging as Communication strategies**

We argue that students' translanguaging in higher education can be understood as a *linguaging tactic* that challenges the traditional policy of language separation (Somervill and faltis, 2019). The students and the teacher often collaborate in translanguaging as a tactic to sustain meaningful conversations and achieve their communicative and learning goals. Students translanguage to share personal stories related to the content, to make connections between specific content and other real-world knowledge and experiences, to demonstrate prior learning, and to support extended explanations of their reasoning.

The researcher observed that beginner and intermediate level students still speak Arabic when they do language activities in small groups. They ask each other about the correct answers in L1 and they defend their answers in L1 and they agree on each other's answers in L1. These students used Arabic numbers while working together and said percentages in L1 as their L1 is always active in their minds and they cannot switch it off. Furthermore, they asked each other in small groups about the pronunciation of words in Arabic by saying "إيش دي الكلمة" (what is this word). They also set their pair work role in Arabic saying "أنا ألسأل" (I ask). This demonstrated that intermediate students' minds still work in Arabic in parallel with English during the EFL classes, which means both linguistic systems are on at the same time. This concurs with quantitative results that most participants (36.5%) report that sometimes they translanguage to communicate in small groups. Therefore, it is important for FL teachers to consider and allow translanguaging as a successful communicative learning strategy.

In addition to translanguaging, communicating successfully in the TL depends not only on the nature of the task and the message that has to be communicated, but also on the teacher's effective use of communication strategies. The researcher found in her classroom observations that some teachers used the L1 sometimes as a last resort to convey the meaning, but those teachers who were most successful in maintaining the norm of FL use for classroom communication also used a wide repertoire of other strategies for conveying meaning. These included repetition, substituting an item with similar meaning, explaining it in simpler terms, contrasting with items from a similar lexical set, exemplification and giving clues. Teachers may also gain valuable insights from studies of the modified speech which adults use when speaking to children and searched into the compensatory strategies which learners themselves often use to bridge gaps in linguistic knowledge (paraphrase, gestures, pictures and sign language). TL communication strategies are important enough to deserve attention as an aspect of initial lesson planning in order to meet anticipated difficulties (Littlewood & Baohua, 2011). For example, intermediate proficiency level students used signs and gestures to describe a word that they did not know in English in order to try to avoid saying it in Arabic to their teacher. This is illustrated in their responses to the survey statement of "using L1 to answer teachers' questions", as most of the participants (28.8%) selected never and rarely.

This shows that learners processed words in L1 and they tried to explain them in L2 as they did not have the exact English words. On the same line, results of the survey support this as most of the participants (28.8%) reported that they sometimes prepare sentences in Arabic before producing them in English. These strategies were supported by Garcia's statement about translanguaging, which is defined as the process of someone to use all language repertoires he/she has as an integrated communication system in order to create meaning while learning to successfully develop target languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014).

## **2. Translanguaging improves classroom participation**

If the teacher gives no space for native language in the classroom practice, most of students will be reluctant to speak and it will lead them to lose their engagement in the class activities due to the motivation loss (Ummul Khair, Rosmayanti, and Firman, 2020). Translanguaging in class was just one of a set of several practices that EFL teachers boosted to support the participation of the beginners. Teachers translanguaged in their lectures and in explaining texts written in English as well as when they posed questions in English and accepted students' answers in their L1 (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). The following examples illustrate these practices and what they accomplished in these beginner EFL classrooms. Here, one of my colleagues translanguaged to clarify meaning and refers to parallel structures in Arabic to help students understand English verb forms. She also checks students' comprehension through a bilingual label quest. In doing so, she treats her students as competent speakers of Arabic with fluency in metalinguistic vocabulary. During this lecture, students were engaged and were taking notes. In both of these examples, teachers' use of Arabic provided not only increased access to meaning but also drew on prior knowledge. Another common hybrid language practice in this classroom occurred when the teacher asked questions in English and students answered in Arabic. In the following example: when no one knew the meaning of the word "extrovert" in an intermediate class, the researcher started opening her arms using her facial expressions, Sara (a student) guessed "اجتماعي" (social). Laila got it: "مفتوح" (extrovert). The teacher said in Arabic, "ما العكس له؟" (What is the opposite of it?) Dalal said "مغلق" (closed). The teacher responded, "Okay", any other words? Hanan answered, "منطوي" (introvert). Here, the researcher elicited words describing extrovert and introvert.

Then she had them look at the headings in the text to fill in a graphic organizer. In the preceding excerpts, the teacher and students move between English and Arabic to discuss the curricular content. This kind of translanguaging aided intermediate students in reaching content-related course goals and allowed for widespread participation. The survey results concur with these examples, as most of the participants (46.1%) depicted that they always use Arabic to understand new words and phrases. In line with this, Nurhikmah, Basri and Abduh (2020) indicate that bilingual communication assists in defining unknown words more directly and successfully. This was true even for advanced and beginner students, whom I observed participating in Arabic in their class.

Accepting answers in any language gave students strength in their language choices and allowed for participation from a wider range of students than would have been possible in English only, as Arthur and Martin (2006) also documented in Brunei classrooms. This was proved by one of my intermediate level students who described her frustration of wanting to participate in class discussions, but was afraid she might say something wrong, or that the other students would laugh at her English. Nurhikmah, Basri and Abduh (2020) confirm that translanguaging assists students in reducing affective barriers and increasing their confidence in their ability to successfully comprehend the target language. At the level of individual interactions, then, teachers' use of translanguaging was often successful in these EFL classrooms. It facilitated communication between emergent bilingual students, validated students' existing linguistic abilities and drew on their prior knowledge, aided access to curricular material, and allowed for those who could not participate in English to have a voice in class. For example, during my classroom observations I noticed some beginning and intermediate level students used Arabic to ask their partners in pair work about what they have to do and their partners clarified and explained the task to them in L1. Then, they used Arabic to confirm their understanding of how to do the task by asking their peers in Arabic. When they engaged in the task, they argued their answers to convince each other in Arabic. They also used google translate to confirm their understanding of the meaning of the new vocabulary used in their discussions. Furthermore, beginners thought loudly in Arabic to compose L2 sentences with their peers in pair work activities to confirm their answers before participating in class. Beginners correct each other's answers in Arabic and justify

their correct English answers in L1. They also defend their opinions in L1. Thus, translanguaging triggers participation and engagement in the classroom activities. Thus, translanguaging in small group discussions is a potent strategy in fostering interactive communication amongst students. When done properly i.e. topics are carefully designed, it brings different knowledge, experiences and talents that are shared and built upon by the participants in a relaxed learning environment where passiveness is turned to activeness (Tan, Polong, Collantes and Torres, 2020).

Moreover, when learners were asked for an English meaning of an English word, they recalled the Arabic meaning first and then they looked for its English meaning. Hence, translanguaging allows students to use language practices that they already possess to perfect their English. They also think in L1 to produce an English sentence, they say it in Arabic first then process it in English after using their electronic dictionaries. In line with this, Nurhikmah, Basri and Abduh (2020) confirm that translanguaging helps students speak more, builds self-confidence, helps to have better self-expression in interaction, eliminates errors, makes the task easier to complete, assists in defining unknown words more directly and successfully, fosters and maintains interest in the task, and makes difficult tasks more manageable.

Yet, as previously mentioned, when reflecting on their slow development of English, students expressed reluctance for these practices. As an evidence in this exchange, many of the advanced students believed that teachers' L1 use was stifling their English learning, even if a few acknowledged that it represented their teachers' best attempts. Despite their disagreement over Arabic-medium courses, they came together in agreement that translanguaging was acceptable and helpful. However, many other lower English proficiency level students see that a thoughtful teacher uses native-language support as one tool in her repertoire to communicate curricular content to her emergent bilingual students. The use of L1 source provides a beneficial scaffolding that assists beginning students in target language classroom activities. However, it also reveals the transitional nature of this approach. The observed teachers claim that they only used L1 as a last resort, only for discipline-specific vocabulary, and only as a precursor to saying or asking students to say the words in Arabic to confirm their comprehension of them.

### **3. Translanguaging Facilitates Meaningful Content Learning**

Another important implication for teachers in EFL classrooms is that translanguaging can be used as a tactic to facilitate meaningful content learning. By not enforcing dual languaging at all costs, and by giving positive feedback on the content of students' messages, teachers can facilitate space for student contributions that go beyond simple I-R-E (Initiation-Request-Evaluation) sequences (Mehan, 1985). In a strict predominant TL model, we (teachers) risk students sitting silently with their personal stories and other connections to content simply because they lack the vocabulary to express their ideas when restricted to the target language. In contrast, when teachers encourage students to draw on all of their linguistic resources, they open space for students to bring in personal experiences from home and community contexts through facilitating students making connections across home, community, and school contexts. Translanguaging proves that conceptual knowledge developed in one language helps to make input in the other language comprehensible. To let them translanguage means they were able to more deeply discuss the subject content and they deeply discuss a text in English later on with all their language resources (Ummul Khair, Rosmayanti, and Firman, 2020). Translanguaging pedagogies can align with and support culturally sustaining pedagogies (Ladson-Billings, 2017).

ESP students could benefit from a learning environment where translanguaging and digital tools are encouraged. ESP teachers could provide explicit instruction to help students compare different languages' systems. Translanguaging practices were taking place when students find Arabic language and English are related; they might even recognize some words, especially academic words with a Latin base like alphabet and alcohol. Students recognize the words, read the sentences fully, correlated with other sentences, trying to understand the context and guessing the meaning. It is beneficial to raise cross-cultural awareness through practicing translingual approach by asking about the content word families such as (what is the verb, adverb and adjective of "politics" in L1 and L2?). Quantitatively, survey results are in agreement with this discussion as most of the participants (36.5%) declared that they sometimes use Arabic to discuss the content in small groups or with partners in pair work. Interestingly, advanced students didn't know the Arabic equivalent of the verb (politicize). However, they got the English

adverb "politically" by applying the rule of changing nouns to adverbs. The researcher also asked about the L1 opposite of the word "consistent" to ensure content comprehension. Students thought deeply to find "متناقض". In this instance, the researcher ignited the bilingual systems of students and translanguaging strategies to reinforce meaningful content comprehension.

Furthermore, in writing, Aseel is an ESP advanced language level student. She reads and listens to the topic in Arabic, takes notes in Arabic, then writes in English. Her writing following these translanguaging strategies is much better than her writing when she did not read about or listen to the subject in Arabic before writing in the TL. Interestingly, several students in my advanced level group were utilizing these strategies without realizing that they are translanguaging strategies as they were relying on their L1 linguistic sources to produce L2 writing. This shows that the aim of translingual approach is to connect the target language content with the first language, and at the same time to build the target language through leveraging students' diverse linguistic assets.

#### **4. Translanguaging promotes vocabulary learning**

One more implication for teachers in EFL classrooms is that teachers can build on students' translanguaging tactics to further facilitate vocabulary and language learning. The researcher routinely built on students' connections to the content vocabulary through asking follow-up questions. The researcher often pushes students for protracted explanations of how and why they got these answers. In some cases, students translanguaged to support their responses as they missed the correct English words. Thus, translanguaging, as it did for the students in this classroom, can serve as a tactic for expressing complex ideas with extended language use by saying "can I say it in Arabic?", the researcher responds "sure" to encourage students to complete their ideas and to participate even when they do not have a correct English word in the future. Furthermore, advanced level students used Arabic to confirm their comprehension of new vocabulary by asking their bilingual teacher questions. For instance, after the teacher introduced the word 'gist' by putting it in sentences and using hands and other ways of explaining the word in English, my students asked "نبتة لأموضوع؟" (The cream of the topic) to confirm that they got the correct meaning of this word according to its context. Also, to confirm

their understanding of the word 'survey' after explaining it in English, a student asked "لنبي ان؟". These examples affirm the survey results of 44.2%, which is the highest number of the participants, always use Arabic to comprehend the meaning of new vocabulary.

On the other hand, in several instances, advanced level students ask for the English equivalent of Arabic words such as "عبادات" (worships), "مجنات مضاعفة" (doubled deeds). This proves that advanced students still use Arabic to prepare for a discussion or for writing a text. This translanguaging learning strategy is widely used between advanced level students to enlarge their vocabulary. This accords with the survey results where most of the students (28.8%) depicted that they sometimes prepare sentences in Arabic before saying it in English. In addition, observed teachers including the researcher used to ask students about the Arabic equivalent of some conceptual words such as "mental & mentality" to confirm their comprehension of these words and their realization of the difference between them.

Furthermore, teaching collocations using L1 was very effective. One of my colleagues used L1 collocation example of "مطر غدير" (heavy rain) to explain the meaning of the word "collocation" as in Arabic we never say (heavy rain) "مطر ثقيل", but in Arabic we always say "مطر غدير" (torrential rain). This teacher said that as soon as she gave this L1 example, the meaning of the word (collocation) clicked right away in the minds of her students who said "aha". This "aha" means that the teacher succeeded in selecting translanguaging as the right strategy in the correct time to deliver her message. Students here relied on their background knowledge of their L1 system connecting it with L2 vocabulary system. This is a clear evidence that linguistic systems in learners' minds are connected to each other as they are all active during learning a new language.

Therefore, dual languaging need not be an institutionally sanctioned language strategy. We argue that translanguaging becomes a strategy when it is given a "place" in the structure of ESP programs and its use becomes part of the classroom norms. Even in ESP programs that do not explicitly support translanguaging pedagogies, at the classroom level, teachers can collaborate with students in translanguaging as a tactic, as well as engage in translanguaging as a strategy by intentionally using translanguaging pedagogies as part of their teaching repertoire and introduce these strategies explicitly to their students. For instance, the researcher and her students kept a running list of Arabic-

English cognates on the cognate list in their note books and students added to the list during lessons as they noticed cognates in speech or written texts. Teaching students how to make cross-language connections through recognizing cognates is a bilingual pedagogical strategy encouraged by bilingual scholars (Creese, & Blackledge, 2010, Champlin, 2016).

## **Conclusion**

Ultimately, Translanguaging is a process whereby multilingual speakers use all of their languages for arguing, asking questions, providing answers, or participating in any other form of communication in the classroom. Hence, this study asserts that lower English proficiency level students use more translanguaging strategies as they think in L1, produce sentences in L1 then process them in their minds to transform them into L2. Thus, beginners depend on L1 more than their peers in higher levels. For instance, beginners used L1 while working together to choose the correct answers, to match verbs with pictures and to point out the right answer. Yet, intermediate level students used L1 during pair work and group discussions to clarify grammatical rules, to explain meaning of words to one another, to confirm their answers, to introduce the task, and to confirm their understanding of the task. However, advanced level students used Arabic during their pair work less than intermediate level students. This study found that low proficiency level learners translanguaged for simple tasks and activities; however, higher proficiency level learners translanguaged for more complicated linguistic processes and tasks. Therefore, translanguaging creates a more dynamic learning environment for EFL students. Thus, the main goal of any effective multilingual instruction would develop students' language awareness and variations in input and output. Translanguaging also increases learning through language development, cognitive development, and content comprehension.

Based on the above mentioned results and discussions, this study revealed that until FL learners reach a high level, they are constantly translanguaging and comparing against the target language with Arabic in their heads. There's no way to stop this, so teachers need to allow it and use it in a positive way. Trying to ban Arabic shows insensitivity to how difficult and tiring it is to use a foreign language for long periods. Translanguaging

can help learners to notice and understand the distinctive features of the target language such as lexis, grammar style, etc. Translanguaging may also help students to realize the gaps in their FL knowledge. Further, it is believed that the translanguaging perspective enables EFL teachers and researchers to discover the complexities and dynamics in the way learners leverage and orchestrate their diverse resources for learning. At the classroom level, teachers can contribute to the creation of new models of EFL teaching by continuing to accept students' translanguaging as a languaging tactic and engaging in translanguaging pedagogies as a learning strategy. Current research has shown that the flexible use of two or more languages in the same lesson can serve a number of communicative purposes, and the use of all linguistic repertoires flexibly may help the development of the target language.

## References

- Allard, E. (2017). Re-examining teacher translanguaging: An ecological perspective. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 40, (2), 116-130. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2017.1306597>
- AL-Nofaie, H. (2010). The attitudes of teachers and students towards using Saudi in EFL classrooms in Saudi public schools: A case study. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 4 (1), 64-95.
- Arthur, J., & Martin, P. (2006). Accomplishing lessons in postcolonial classrooms: Comparative perspectives from Botswana and Brunei Darussalam. *Comparative Education*, 42, 177-202. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03050060600628009>
- Canagarajah, S. (2012). *Translingual Practice: Global Englishes and Cosmopolitan Relations*. Routledge. DOI: [10.4324/9780203073889](https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203073889)
- Carroll, K. S. & Mazak, C. M. (2017). *Translanguaging in Higher Education: Beyond Monolingual Ideologies*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2019.1623679>
- Champlin, Molly J. (2016). Translanguaging and Bilingual Learners: A Study of How Translanguaging Promotes Literacy Skills in Bilingual Students. *Education Masters*, 16, 323. [https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education\\_ETD\\_masters/323](https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education_ETD_masters/323)

- Chen, F, Chiao, C. & Tsou, T. (2019). The Application of Translanguaging in an English for Specific Purposes Writing Course. *English Teaching and Learning*, 43 (1), 65-83. DOI: [10.1007/s42321-018-0018-0](https://doi.org/10.1007/s42321-018-0018-0)
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *Modern Language Journal*, 94 (1), 103–115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x>
- Garcia, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism, and education*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan. DOI: 10.1057/9781137385765
- Garcia, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Blackwell. DOI: 10.1017/S0047404513000304
- Harris, R. (1997). From an integrational point of view. In G. Wolf & N. Love (Eds.), *Linguistics inside out: Roy Harris and his critics* (pp. 229–310). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/cilt.148.16har>
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2017). The Revolution will not be standardized: Teacher education, Hip Hop pedagogy, and culturally relevant pedagogy. In D. Paris & H. S. Alim (Eds.), *Culturally sustaining pedagogies: Teaching and learning for justice in a changing world* (pp. 141–156). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Li, W., Ho, Y. (2018). Language Learning Sans Frontiers: A Translanguaging View. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38, 33–59. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190518000053>
- Li, W. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39 (1), 9-30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx039>
- Lin, A. M., & Lo, Y. Y. (2017). Trans/Languaging and the triadic dialogue in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms. *Language and Education*, 31(1), 26–45. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2016.1230125>
- Littlewood, W., Baohua, Y. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44 (1), 64–77. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990310>
- Mazak, C. M. (2017). Introduction: Theorizing translanguaging practices in higher education. In

- K. S. Carroll & C. M. Mazak (Eds.), *Translanguaging in higher education: Beyond monolingual ideologies* (p. 1-10). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2019.1623679>
- Mazak, C. M., & Herbas-Donoso, C. (2015). Translanguaging practices at a bilingual university: A case study of a science classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18, (6), 698-714. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2014.939138>
- Mehan, H. (1985). The structure of classroom discourse. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.), *Handbook of discourse analysis, Volume III: Discourse and dialogue* (pp. 119–131). London, UK: Academic Press.
- Nurhikmah, A., Basri, M., Abduh, A. (2020). Bilingual Communicative Competence Development of the Students in Indonesian Higher Education. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 27, (2.3), 172-187.
- Rivera, A. & Mazak, C. (2019). Pedagogical Translanguaging in a Puerto Rican University Classroom: An Exploratory Case Study of Student Beliefs and Practices. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, 18 (3), 225-239. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1538192717734288>
- Somervill, J., Faltis, C. (2019). Dual Languageing as Strategy and Translanguaging as Tactic in Two-Way Dual Language Programs. *Journal of Theory Into Practice*, 58, (2), 164-175. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1569380>
- Sweley, M. (2006). Back to school for the first time: Words of wisdom for new language teachers. *The Language Educator*, 1 (4), 32-37.
- Tan, R., Polong, R., Collantes, L., & Torres, J. (2020). Influence of Small Group Discussion on the English Oral Communication Self-Efficacy of Filipino ESL Learners in Central Luzon. *TESOL International Journal*.15, (1).
- Thierry, G. (2016). Questions of multi-competence. In V. Cook & W. Li (Eds.). *The Cambridge handbook of multi-competence* (pp.521–532). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107425965>
- Ummul Khair, A., Rosmayanti, V., & Firman, A. (2020). Translanguaging Pedagogy in

Promoting Higher Order Thinking Skill (HOTS) in Indonesian Higher Education. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 27, (2.3), 259-287.

Wilkerson, C. (2009). Instructors' Use of English in the Modern Language Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 41 (2), 310-320. DOI: [10.1111/j.1944-9720.2008.tb03294.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2008.tb03294.x)

Woodley, H., & Brown, A. (2016). Balancing windows and mirrors: Translanguaging in a linguistically diverse classroom. In O. Garcia & T. Kleyn (Eds.), *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments* (pp. 83–99). New York, NY: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2018.1468365>



## **Teaching English Using One-Way and Two-way Communication: A Case Study in an EFL Context**

**Reham Ibrahim Alkhudiry**

*Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics, Department of English and Translation,  
College of Sciences and Arts, Buraidah, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia  
rkhthaiery@qu.edu.sa*

### **Bio-profile:**

**Reham Alkhudiry** is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics in the Department of English Language and Translation, Qassim University, SA. Her main areas of interest are: second language acquisition, vocabulary learning and teaching, written discourse analysis, L2 lexical representation and development, assessment of reading comprehension and vocabulary in L2 learners.

### **Abstract**

Globalization today has valorized the English language as a lingua franca, linking the far-stretched zones of the world and making their communication possible across space and time. The current investigation ventured on the comparative effectiveness of one-way and two-way communication in enhancing the grammatical competence of Saudi EFL learners. It employed a quasi-experimental research design in two groups of 60 Saudi EFL students each. This study is a contribution to the existing body of literature on examining the role of one-way and two-way communication in enhancing the linguistic competence of Saudi EFL students. Notable findings showed that both one-way and two-way communication enhanced the students' grammatical competence and improved their attitude towards language learning. However, when both strategies are compared, it was found that the Saudi EFL learners exposed to two-way language learning communication, which showed better grammar performance than those in one-

way communication. The theoretical and practical implications of the advantages of both one-way and two-way communication are presented and discussed in this study.

**Keywords:** *KSA EFL, Linguistic Competence, One-Way Oral Language Strategy, Quasi-Experimental, Two-way Oral Language Strategy*

## **Introduction**

English is undoubtedly a global language, occupying a dominant position and playing a crucial role in the industry, commerce, education, and human sciences. English is a language with a formidable presence in all professions and across walks of life. Consequently, proficiency in English allows an individual to understand the diversities of peoples all over the world. In addition, the effect of globalization today has placed unprecedented importance on the English language as a lingua franca, linking the far-flung regions of the planet and rendering their contact possible across time and space. As a concrete manifestation of the growing significance of English, the education systems of the world are initiating intervention to prepare learners towards global communicative competence. Therefore, language teachers ought to be informed of the use of appropriate language teaching approaches to meet the needs of learners, reaffirming English as the world's language particularly as the 4th Industrial Revolution arrives.

Saudi Arabia is no exception to the challenge discussed above. Educational reforms are an indelible part of the policy and planning measures of Saudi Arabia that seek to strengthen the status of its language education (Al-Ahdal, 2020a; Al-Hazmi, 2017; Elyas & Picard, 2012). The obstacles that are encountered in this study are often ascribed to the use of teaching strategies producing deaf-and-dumb English learners (Alharthi, Alassafi, Walters, & Wills, 2017; Gaffas, 2019) with studies galore showing that these learners cannot use the English language in a real-life situation even with almost a decade long compulsory and continuous exposure to EFL learning. To address such pressing concerns, the Saudi Ministry of Education initiated interventions to standardize English language instruction for all levels of schools. The emphasis was to be equally on the four skills viz. writing, speaking, reading, and listening. Yet, satisfactory outcomes are nowhere in sight.

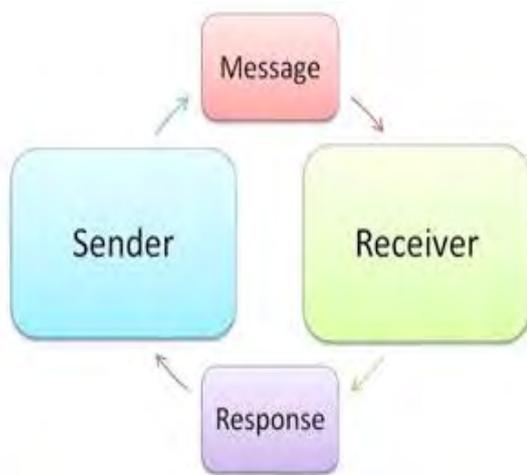
The researcher's experience shows that traditional approaches to language education have not produced real communicative communication skills. The role of English language educators in promoting language learning is, however, essential to the growth of the communicative learning culture. Consequently, the efficiency of one-way and two-way communication language learning strategies need to be accurately evaluated by language teachers with a view to improving the language skills of Saudi EFL learners, which will also likely fill a major research gap in this direction. One principal aim of this study, therefore, is to extend the understanding of the Saudi EFL characteristics and attributes using two learning strategies, one-way and two-way communication strategies, by objectively unravelling learners' cognitive and attitudinal trends. This study provides necessary interventions to improve English language teaching in Saudi Arabia, as well as, add to the existing literature on the debate between traditional and contemporary approaches to language learning, particularly in relation to the oral communication skills.

### **One and Two-way Communication Model**

In a natural setting, contact within the human language may be either oral or written improves in social communication in one or more languages (Savignon, 2018). This study is anchored in the theory of communicative language pedagogy (Canale, 2014), which is based on the idea that language learning becomes more successful when it used in the real-life application, showing the context of the communication situation. The theory highlights the development of communicative competence among students in second or foreign language communication (Martinez, Morales, & Aldana, 2017).

Oral communication is not only the opportunity to talk but the capacity to listen. A good communicator is one that stands on the audience and needs to calibrate his voice properly. A well-learned mind can communicate faster, because information is the core of the communication process. A good communicator should also be able to discuss and deliberate, improving intelligence and thus contributing to effective communication. Efficient writing abilities and strong physical speaking skills go hand in hand, even though they can appear antithesis for a newbie (Motallebzadeh, Ahmadi, & Hosseinnia, 2018; Newton, Ferris, Goh., Grabe, Stoller, & Vandergrift, 2018).

A simple model was conducted by communication theorists to show how information can transfer between three main parties including a sender, a message, a receiver. One-way communication is sequential and restricted as it comes straight from the sender to the receiver. The sender chooses to pick a channel for sending a message. This form is typically visual, published, or online, and this message is decoded by the recipient (Afshar & Asakereh, 2016; Jensen, Moynihan, & Salomonsen, 2018). The purpose of one-way communication is usually to tell, convince, direct, recommend, or motivate; hence, no reply is required. As an example of one-way communication in a classroom setting, the instructors try to deliver the lesson without any discussion or exchanging the information with students. While the two-way communication always provides the sender with the receiver's response and feedback and ensure the sender has interpreted the message accurately. Two-way communications are controlled, the sender sends the message and the receiver can predict, infer, and negotiate with the sender in a mutually communicative situation (Gu, 2018; Somerville & Faltis, 2019). The two-way communication model is shown in Figure 1



**Figure 1.** The two-way Communication Model (Gu, 2018)

Many researchers investigated EFL / ESL students ' communication (Martínez-Adrián, Gallardo-del-Puerto & Basterrechea, 2019; Tarone, 1981; Nakatani, 2006; Rabab'ah, 2016) and conducted face-to -face through the use of one-way and two-way tasks in language teaching (Jidong, 2011; Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Philp, Adams &

Iwashita, 2013; Uztosun & Erten, 2014; Asmalı, 2016). Both one-way and two-way communication can be linked to the language proficiency of EFL students and their linguistic competence (Al-Ahdal & Al-Awaid, 2018). Mei and Nathalang (2010) studied the Communication Strategies (CSs) used by 117 undergraduates in a Chinese university to learn English with one-way (i.e. idea recognition task) and two-way oral functions (i.e. role-playing task). Their results found that the form of assignment and the academic and language ability of students affected the usage of CSs. The findings also found that replicate, paraphrasing, generalization, inference and transformation were the most commonly employed communication strategies for both one-way and two-way tasks. In recent years, Yaman and Ozcan (2015) explored differences in the use of oral communication employed by EFL Turkish students. In specific, it aimed to recognize gender and language competence gaps through the usage of oral Communication Strategies. There was a minimum of 294 students carried out the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory established by Nakatani (2006). The findings revealed that compensatory and negotiation for meaning were the most widely utilized communication strategies with no significant differences in their language proficiency. Concerning gender, the results showed that women often use message abandonment strategies while men use affective strategies more frequently than women. Other finding has been found by Uztosun and Erten (2014) assessing the impact of English proficiency on the use of communication strategies by conducting an interaction-based methodology among Turkish EFL learners who had different proficiency levels and were asked to communicate and discuss two short movies. The findings showed that proficiency level cannot be considered as an effective factor in learners' communication strategy choice but there were significant differences in three specific strategies: 'message reduction', 'topic avoidance', and 'mime'.

### **Research Gap and Problem Statement**

Charting the problems in the EFL context, there is still a shortage of literature on the effectiveness of communication, focusing, instead, on the learning of foreign language grammar inside the classroom. Such previous studies (Mei, & Nathalang, 2010; Yaman, & Ozcan, 2015; Uztosun, & Erten, 2014) examined the use of communication strategies

among EFL learners through one-way and two-way communication tasks, however, relative contributions of these two communication strategies to the EFL learners' linguistics competence still have insufficient investigations in the literature. Furthermore, a glance at the previous studies on oral language learning showed that an obstacle in learning English as a foreign language is the absence of natural and authentic language learning environment, wherein students do not get the opportunity to practice the use of English (Mei and Nathalang, 2010; Al-Ahdal, 2020b; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014). These previous studies on language learning indicated that, it is affected by how learners have access to, and make avail of, language learning resources and teaching strategies employed by the teacher. Despite the presence of existing literature, Saudi EFL learners still have insufficient opportunities with the use of the English (Alamer & Lee, 2019; Almekhlafy & Alqahtani, 2020; Tanaka, 2017); with the result that, these learners may encounter numerous difficulties, particularly in terms of oral production, grammar usage, finding appropriate words, pronunciation, and aural reception (Stickler & Shi, 2013). Such challenges are also due to the need for adequate and effective language teaching which focuses primarily on the mastering of grammar structures, as the base of language competence (Harun, Abdullah, Ab Wahab, & Zainuddin, 2019; Pekarek Doehler, 2018; Zuhriyah, 2017). This research, therefore, aims at shedding light on the comparative effectiveness of one-way and two-way communication inside the EFL classrooms, and how these strategies may enhance the grammatical competence of Saudi EFL learners. Further details will be discussed in the next section.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study are based on the comparative effectiveness of two oral language teaching communication strategies. The following are the specific research questions: (1) How different are the pre - and post- English grammar test scores of the two groups of EFL learners taught with one-way and two-way communication? (2) Is there a difference in the language learning of the EFL learners' attitudes when grouped according to their preferred language learning strategies? (3) How effective is the use of one-way OR two-way communication in enhancing the EFL learners' grammatical competence?

## **Research Hypotheses**

The following are the hypotheses of the study: (1) There is a difference in the EFL learners' English grammar test scores of the two groups before and after the study; (2) There is a difference in the EFL learners' attitudes exposed to one-way and two-way language communication tasks towards learning English grammar before and after the study; and (3) EFL learners exposed to the two-way language learning communication showed better grammar performance than those in the one-way communication.

## **Materials and Methods**

### **Research Design**

The study employed a quasi-experimental research design, using the pre and post-test experimental research method. This method is considered appropriate to examine the effects of innovations in an educational context, which is a standard method for educational research (Bloomfield & Fischer, 2019; Campbell & Stanley, 2015; Secomb & Smith, 2011).

Being experimental, a period of three weeks was given to try out the two strategies. Orientation to the researchers, planning session, and execution and to evaluate the participants' attitudes to one- and two-way communication via a reliable and validated structured questionnaire. Face validity was established by requesting three instructors of EFL to assess the questionnaire, which initially carried 25 items. On receiving their feedback, the number was increased to twenty-eight (28) to suit the Saudi applicability. Internal consistency of the questionnaire items was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha while questions with poor correlation to other items, or those not loading onto the same factor(s), were crossed out, bringing the number of the items to fifteen. The reliability of the fifteen-item questionnaire was ensured by administering it as a pilot test to a sample population, and irrelevant items were again weeded out producing a final, fourteen item questionnaires.

### **Research Participants, Sampling Procedure and Ethical Considerations**

The respondents of the study were one hundred and twenty Saudi EFL learners from Qassim University grouped equally into the one-way and two-way language teaching communication with the group median age at 20.7 years. To ensure homogeneity of the participants' English language proficiency, *The Oxford Quick Placement Test* (2001) was conducted to a large population of 200 EFL learners, and the sample of 120 obtained comprising those who scored between intermediate to upper intermediate. Paying heed to the ethical considerations of scholarship, the investigator ensures that the participants' personal information and data were handled confidentially.

### **Research Instruments**

The study used two instruments, namely the Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate Tests, and the English Language Grammar Attitudinal Scale. The Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate Tests comprises 60 item tests, but for the purposes of the experiment, it was reduced to 28 items to adjust to the proficiency level of the participants. Two grammatical items, the conditional clause, and active-passive voice were taken up for the experiment period in both groups, the control group (CG) and the experimental group (EG). The instruments have been used and recommended in several previous studies (Athanasopoulos, 2006; 2007; Barner, Inagaki, & Li, 2009; Sato, Gygax, & Gabriel, 2013) which used same test. Meanwhile, the measure of Attitude towards Learning English Grammar was the standardized research instrument adapted from (Akay & Toraman, 2015), known as the Students' English Grammar Attitude Scale (SEGAS). It is designed for students with an introductory level of English education. It has 16 items answerable with a five-point Likert scale, with one as the lowest indication of favourable attitude and five as the highest. It has a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.874 considered to have high reliability. Similarly, the instrument has also been used by previous language researchers (Demir, 2018; Karatas, Alci, Bademcioglu, & Ergin, 2016; Yang, Chen, & Jeng, 2010). For the study purpose, a Google Translate version of the original Turkish instrument was conducted and the alternated Likert measure of Totally Disagree to Totally Agree five options was used.

## Procedure and Treatment Phases

The study proceeded in three phases: Phase I was the pre-treatment phase meant to gauge the prevalent oral competence of the participants, Phase II was the intervention phase, and Phase III the Post-treatment phase to evaluate the efficacy of the two strategies under consideration. Before the implementation of the one and two-way language teaching communication, lesson planning and class schedule were carefully charted to assist the two experienced language teachers requested to teach the control (CG) and experimental (EG) groups. The Pre-treatment phase involved the pre-testing of the language learning proficiency and attitude of the two groups of respondents. For the treatment phase, one-way and two-way language teaching communication were conducted for the two **groups**. The control group was exposed to one-way, and experimental group to two-way communication. This means that the CG were not trained in any of the two-way communication, rather the standard one-way communication is prevalent in the EFL classroom, that is the one wherein the teacher reads, lectures and dictates, was followed without any discussion or exchanging the information with students. The EG, on the other hand, were given two sessions on two-way communication. These are discussed below. However, the average EFL learner has serious concerns about his/her General Weighted Average (GWA) over the semester and if new pedagogies are to be introduced, and their participation to be ensured, they have to be assured that it would go towards improving their grades. To phrase it a bit differently, class participation directed by the strategies discussed here was declared by the teachers in the two groups as being linked to their internal assessment scores. The following were the strategies which were introduced to EG:

- Repeat: Mock teaching was undertaken to explain to the group that during the real experiment, they could be asked to repeat what they understood from the teacher's exposition. In other words, they could be randomly asked to repeat the teacher's instructions.
- Ask: Participants were assured that it would go to their credit if they asked questions to clarify doubts, or confirm with the teacher whether they were moving in the right direction.

- Listen: As opposed to *hearing*, i.e., being a reticent recipient of information, participants were trained in *listening* to the teachers and the others in the classroom. They were encouraged to contribute to what others had to say, but of course, after seeking the teacher's permission to do so.

The experimental sessions lasted for three weeks, three hours per week and detailed lesson planning was undertaken to make the most of the time. After the implementation phase of the study, post-testing of the language learning skill and the two groups of respondents was initiated.

### **Data Analysis**

Showing the scores on the Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate Tests, in the post-intervention phase, 48% of the participants (N= 29) gained ground and scored in the lower to moderate advanced proficiency band, up from the pre-intervention phase by 30% (N= 18 in this band earlier) in the EG, while the CG also showed a slight up from 32% (N= 21) in the pre-experiment phase to 33% (N= 31) in the post-intervention stage which was practically a period of slight change for them, as the one way communication was adhered to in this group.

In the SEGAS questionnaire, items **1, 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14** were related to the positive contribution of grammar to proficiency enhancement, learners' awareness of the significant place that grammar holds in language learning, and the satisfaction gained on acquiring grammar. These items, therefore, may be labelled Positive Attitude and Contribution. Items **2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 13** were related to learners' negative attitudes to the learning of English grammar, their demotivation and disinterest resulting mainly from their inability to acquire the skill. These may, therefore, be named as the Negative Attitude Position. The following questionnaire was conducted twice to the EG, once at the beginning of the intervention and then, when the intervention was over. The change in participants' attitudes to learning grammar was compared in order to derive statistically significant differences, if any. Table 1 presents the results of the first feedback.

**Table 1: SEGAS questionnaire feedback at the beginning of the experiment**

No	Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	If a language is to be learnt, then the rules of that language are also to be learnt	37	9	1	6	7
2	Grammar learning experience destroys the desire to learn the language	42	10	3	4	1
3	A foreign language cannot be learnt without knowing the grammar	39	13	2	4	2
4	Given a choice, I would rather avoid learning of English grammar	45	4	1	0	0
5	All languages of the world follow rules, and hence, it is important to learn grammar rules for English too	38	15	1	5	1
6	I feel restless in the grammar class	41	7	2	5	5
7	Learning of English grammar should be strictly enforced	11	4	8	21	16
8	English grammar should not be removed from the curriculum	36	13	2	6	3
9	The language learning environment becomes better if there is no grammar to do	42	4	1	13	0
10	Nothing would make me happier than being able to understand the structure and rules of the English language	39	14	3	2	2
11	My ability to use the language fully and efficiently depends on how I am taught the grammar	43	5	3	6	3

12	I wish we were taught English grammar more effectively	37	15	2	5	1
13	It is unbearable when I am told that I can know English well only through knowledge of grammar	39	11	1	7	2
14	Every time I learn a rule of the English grammar, I feel more confident of using the language	36	9	3	8	4

Participants' responses to negative constructs show a tendency towards dislike of grammar learning in the class, but this is more a dislike of the pedagogy used as, in contrast, they are almost unanimous in recognising the significance of knowing grammar to learn a language. The latter is reflected in their responses to the positive constructs, which show their satisfaction every time they can acquire a new grammatical element as they interpret this as one more step in the direction of proficiency development.

In the second phase of the same questionnaire being used to measure attitudes at the end of the two-way communication model, demonstrated a large change in participants' responses to the learning of grammar. It may be noted, however, that in this stage, the positive attitudes and contribution also showed a slight rise in the range of 3.5 to 5.1 percent average response of the group. This, too, is remarkable in a way as it brought the positive attitudes closer to achieving absolute unanimity in the response of EG. Table 2 below shows the responses to the negative attitude position of the group in a comparative layout with the previous set of responses.

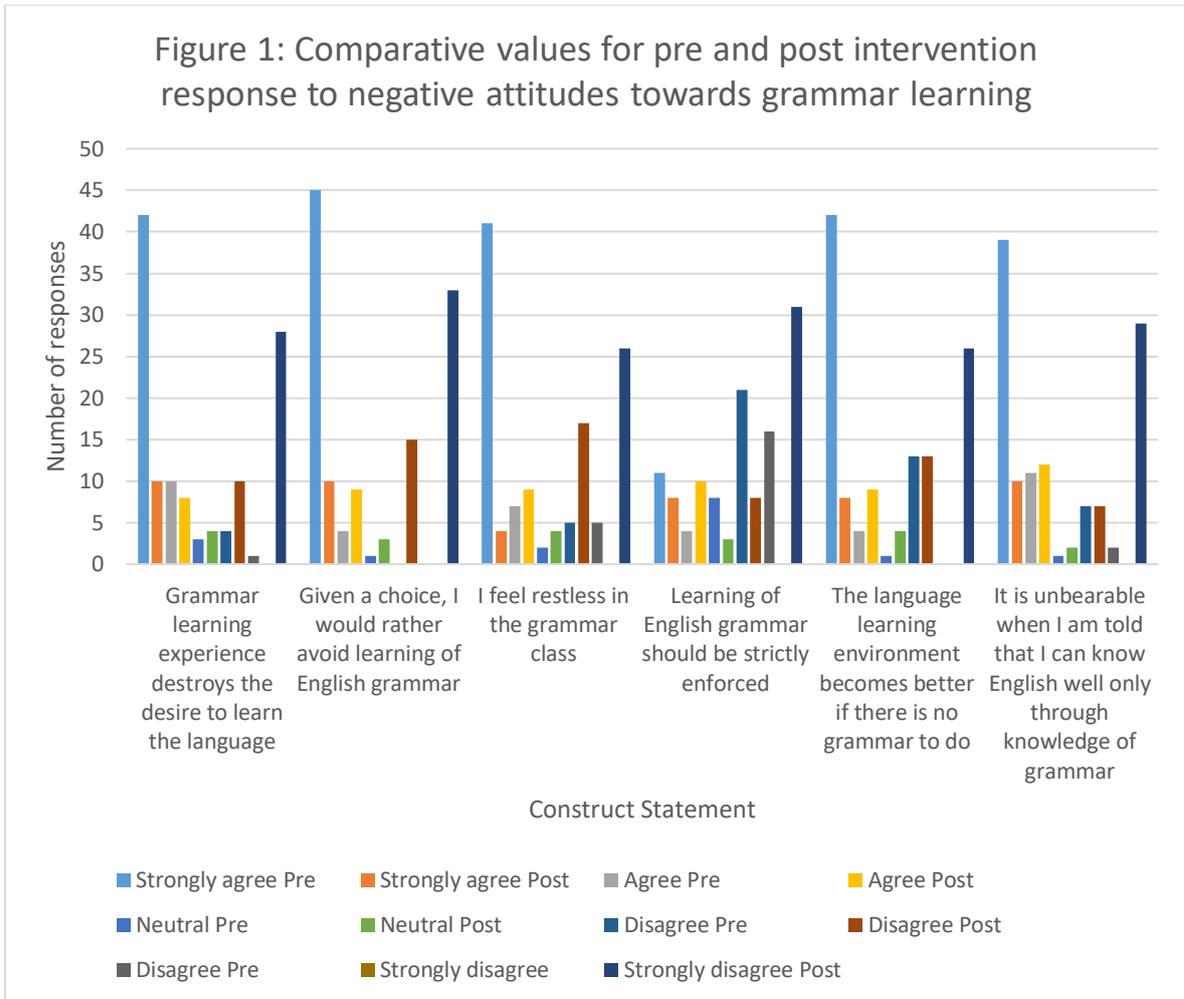
**Table 2: Comparative values on SEGAS questionnaire for Negative Constructs**

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree			Strongly disagree
	Pre	Pos	Pre	Pos	Pre	Pos	Pre	Pos	Pre	Pos
Phase of testing	42	10	10	8	3	4	4	10	1	28
Grammar learning experience destroys the										

desire to learn the language										
Given a choice, I would rather avoid learning of English grammar	45	10	4	9	1	3	0	15	0	33
I feel restless in the grammar class	41	4	7	9	2	4	5	17	5	26
Learning English grammar should be strictly enforced	11	8	4	10	8	3	21	8	16	31
The language learning environment becomes better if there is no grammar to do	42	8	4	9	1	4	13	13	0	26
It is unbearable when I am told that I can know English well only through knowledge of grammar	39	10	11	12	1	2	7	7	2	29

In the post-intervention phase, many trends in attitudes to learning English grammar show a reversal. For instance, where 70% of the participants reported strong agreement, and another 16% reported agreement to demotivation to learn English as a consequence of the grammar component, these percentages are reversed in the second phase, where only 16% reported strong agreement versus 63% that combinedly reported strong or plain disagreement. Similarly, in the earlier phase, as many as 81% agreed that given a choice, they would rather skip learning grammar, as many as 80% disagreed with the statement in the second phase. 80% of the participants felt restless in the grammar class in phase 1, whereas, 71% of them disagreed with the statement in the second phase post intervention. However, even with a clear and deep seated dislike for learning English grammar, the participants are conscious throughout of the importance of knowing it well

if they wished to achieve proficiency and as many as 65% rather felt that, grammar is not taught seriously enough as they went with the statement that it should be enforced more seriously in the curriculum. These results are presented diagrammatically in Figure 2 below, which clearly show the changes in the trends.



**Figure 2: Comparative values for Negative Attitude Constructs in Pre and Post Intervention Evaluations via SEGAS**

**Table 3. The difference between the Post-Test Achievement scores in the One-Way and Two-way Communication**

	Mean Score	SD	Mean Diff.	t-value	df	p-value
One Way	11.63	1.93	-1.23	-2.16	29	0.039*
Two-way	12.86	1.96				

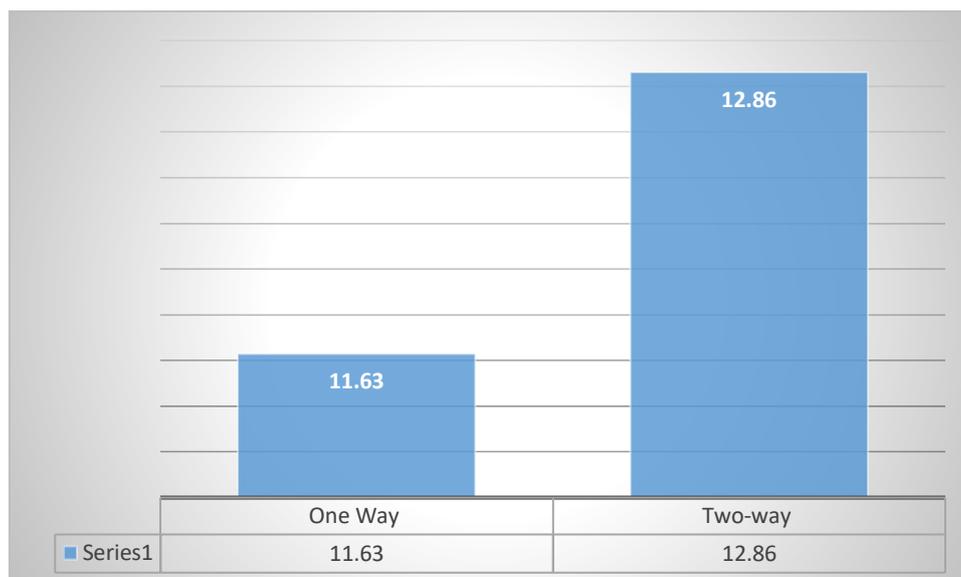
\*= Significant at 0.01 level

\*\*=Significant at 0.05 level

ns= not

significant

Result of this study also showed that the learners scored significantly higher in the two-way compared to one-way communication. The respondents scored 12.86 (SD= 1.96) in Post-Test Achievement scores from the Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate Tests using two-way oral communication strategy which is significantly higher than those respondents under one-way communication with the computed mean of 11.63 (SD= 1.93), as shown in Figure 3. This implies that the students exposed to two-way communication have higher English grammar test scores. The finding indicates that the learners, regardless of their language learning attitude, were able to perform better in two-way than those with one-way. This finding is in line with the previous study results on the differences showing the superiority of two-way communication as a communicative language teaching method (Mei and Nathalang, 2010; Gurunathan & Geethanjali, 2016).



**Figure 3. Comparison of the post-Achievement scores in the Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate Test with the use of the One-Way and Two-way Communication**

### **Conclusion**

This study contributes to the existing literature regarding the effectiveness of one-way and two-way oral communication in enhancing the linguistic competence of Saudi EFL students. Notable findings showed that both one-way and two-way communication enhanced the students' linguistic competence and their attitude towards language learning. However, when both strategies are compared, it showed that when Saudi EFL learners exposed to the two-way oral communication language learning strategy, they showed better language learning grammar performance compared to those in the one-way oral communication strategy. This study concludes that using two way-communication with Saudi EFL learners brought about statistically significant improvement both in attitudes to learning of grammar and the participants' actual test performance. The pedagogy, therefore, it can be introduced more rigorously in the classrooms; it also tallies with the currently supported communicative approach to language teaching.

### **Recommendations**

Both one-way and two-way communication in language learning enhanced the linguistic competence of Saudi EFL students. But the two-way communication showed

better advantages in learning the language in a pragmatic and natural approach. The use of language teaching communication may promote more language learning opportunities to students when adequately utilized by the teacher in developing students' communicative language competence. The implication is that English language teachers must be capable enough to adopt an eclectic teaching approach in the English language in such a way that students will be engaged to the real application of language.

### **Implications for Teaching**

The managerial and practical implications of the study are stated as follows: Firstly, foreign language teachers should properly combine the utilization of one-way and two-way language teaching communication across the different courses of EFL programs in order to enhance students' language proficiency, linguistic competence, and language learning attitude. Secondly, training EFL foreign language teachers to establish a higher level of adoption of both oral language teaching strategies in the classroom is a necessity.

Thirdly, both teaching strategies should be appropriately integrated with modern technology platforms to meet learning requirements. Fourthly, it is important to recognize the introduction of language learning approaches that suit the attitudes, types, and inclinations of the students. Fifthly, providing more instructional materials intended for the use of two-way communication is earnestly requested.

### **Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

This study has limitations that might constitute new avenues for future studies. First, the study only is limited to a small sampling size of Saudi EFL learners with limited profile variables included, limiting factors of the study to provide more conclusive findings. Second, the use of the simplest form of quasi-experimental research method is another limitation to conclude the direct effect of both one and two-way language teaching communication. Hence, the use of mixed and longitudinal approaches may provide reliable findings. Future studies are encouraged whether to replicate or to adapt the context of the survey to different proficiency levels of language learners, and to correlate other variables such as learners' cultural background, learners' history, and parents' education, and language performance. Lastly, there is a marked need to identify

the cognitive and attitudinal effects of other language teaching strategies that are not covered in this study.

## References

- Afshar, H. S., & Asakereh, A. (2016). Speaking Skills Problems Encountered by Iranian EFL Freshmen and Seniors from Their Own and Their English Instructors' Perspectives. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 13(1).
- Akay, E., & Toraman, Ç. (2015). Students' attitudes towards learning English grammar: A study of scale development. *DilveDilbilimiÇalışmalar ıDergisi*, 11(2), 67-82.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020). Using Computer Software as a tool of Error Analysis: Giving EFL Teachers and Learners a much-needed Impetus. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, 12(2).
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020a). Code Mixing in Arabic conversations of college students: A Sociolinguistic study of attitudes to switching to English. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16 (1), 6-19.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., & Al-Awaid, S. A. A. (2018). English as the Lingua Franca of Development: Finding Common Correlates in Saudi Arabia. *Malaysian Journal of Languages and Linguistics (MJLL)*, 7(1), 1-7.
- Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H., (2020b). Overcoming Pronunciation Hurdles in EFL Settings: An Evaluation of Podcasts as a Learning Tool at Qassim University Saudi Arabia. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles*, 27.
- Alamer, A., & Lee, J. (2019). A motivational process model explaining L2 Saudi students' achievement of English. *System*, 87, 102-133.
- Alharthi, A., Alassafi, M. O., Walters, R. J., & Wills, G. B. (2017). An exploratory study for investigating the critical success factors for cloud migration in the Saudi Arabian higher education context. *Telematics and Informatics*, 34(2), 664-678.
- Al-Hazmi, S. (2017). Current issues in English language education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Modern Languages*, 17(1), 129-150.
- Almekhlafy, S. S. A., & Alqahtani, A. A. J. (2020). The visual memory development technique: A remedial and pre-reading activity to enhance EFL learners' motivation. *Heliyon*, 6(3), e03627.

- Asmalı, M. (2016). Willingness to communicate of foreign language learners in Turkish context. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 188-195.
- Athanasopoulos, P. (2006). Effects of the grammatical representation of number on cognition in bilinguals. *Bilingualism: Language and cognition*, 9(1), 89-96.
- athanasopoulos, P. (2007). Interaction between grammatical categories and cognition in bilinguals: The role of proficiency, cultural immersion, and language of instruction. *Language and cognitive processes*, 22(5), 689-699.
- Barner, D., Inagaki, S., & Li, P. (2009). Language, thought, and real nouns. *Cognition*, 111(3), 329-344.
- Bloomfield, J., & Fisher, M. J. (2019). Quantitative research design. *Journal of the Australasian Rehabilitation Nurses Association*, 22(2), 27.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (2015). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Ravenio Books.
- Canale, M. (2014). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In *Language and communication* (pp. 14-40). Routledge.
- Demir, Y. (2018). English Course and Its Grammar: Discovering Attitudinal Relationships and Differences in Terms of Some Variables. *Kastamonu Education Journal*, 26(6), 1981.
- Elyas, T., & Picard, M. Y. (2012). Teaching and moral tradition in Saudi Arabia: a paradigm of struggle or pathway towards globalization?. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 47, 1083-1086.
- Gaffas, Z. M. (2019). Students' perceptions of the impact of EGP and ESP courses on their English language development: Voices from Saudi Arabia. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 42, 100797.
- Gu, Y. (2018). Two-Way Listening. *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, 1-8.
- Gurunathan, N., & Geethanjali, N. (2016). The Merits of Communicative Language Teaching Method in Relation to L2. *Language in India*, 16(4).
- Harun, H., Abdullah, N., Ab Wahab, N., & Zainuddin, N. (2019). Concept Based Instruction: Enhancing Grammar Competence in L2 Learners. *RELC Journal*, 50(2), 252-268.

- Jensen, U. T., Moynihan, D. P., & Salomonsen, H. H. (2018). Communicating the vision: How face-to-face dialogue facilitates transformational leadership. *Public Administration Review*, 78(3), 350-361.
- Jidong, G. U. O. (2011). Empirical studies on L2 communication strategies over four decades: Looking back and ahead. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 34(4), 89-106.
- Karatas, H., Alci, B., Bademcioglu, M., & Ergin, A. (2016). Examining university students' attitudes towards learning English using different variables. *International Journal of Educational Researchers*, 7(3), 12-20.
- Martinez, D. C., Morales, P. Z., & Aldana, U. S. (2017). Leveraging students' communicative repertoires as a tool for equitable learning. *Review of Research in Education*, 41(1), 477-499.
- Martínez-Adrián, M., Gallardo-del-Puerto, F., & Basterrechea, M. (2019). On self-reported use of communication strategies by CLIL learners in primary education. *Language Teaching Research*, 23(1), 39-57.
- Mei, A., & Nathalang, S. S. (2010). Use of Communication Strategies by Chinese EFL Learners. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (Foreign Language Teaching & Research Press)*, 33(3).
- Mei, A., & Nathalang, S. S. (2010). Use of Communication Strategies by Chinese EFL Learners. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (Foreign Language Teaching & Research Press)*, 33(3).
- Motallebzadeh, K., Ahmadi, F., & Hosseinnia, M. (2018). Relationship between 21st Century Skills, Speaking and Writing Skills: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach. *International Journal of Instruction*, 11(3), 265-276.
- Nakatani, Y. (2006). Developing an oral communication strategy inventory. *The modern language journal*, 90(2), 151-168.
- Newton, J. M., Ferris, D. R., Goh, C. C., Grabe, W., Stoller, F. L., & Vandergrift, L. (2018). *Teaching English to second language learners in academic contexts: Reading, writing, listening, and speaking*. Routledge.
- Pekarek Doehler, S. (2018). Elaborations on L2 interactional competence: The development of L2 grammar-for-interaction. *Classroom Discourse*, 9(1), 3-24.

- Philp, J., Adams, R., & Iwashita, N. (2013). *Peer interaction and second language learning*. Routledge.
- Rabab'ah, G. (2016). The effect of communication strategy training on the development of EFL learners' strategic competence and oral communicative ability. *Journal of psycholinguistic research*, 45(3), 625-651.
- Sato, S., Gygax, P. M., & Gabriel, U. (2013). Gender inferences: Grammatical features and their impact on the representation of gender in bilinguals. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 16(4), 792-807.
- Savignon, S. J. (2018). Communicative competence. *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*, 1-7.
- Secomb, J. M., & Smith, C. (2011). A mixed method pilot study: The researchers' experiences. *Contemporary nurse*, 39(1), 31-35.
- Somerville, J., & Faltis, C. (2019). Dual languaging as strategy and translanguaging as tactic in two-way dual language programs. *Theory Into Practice*, 58(2), 164-175.
- Stickler, U., & Shi, L. (2013). Supporting Chinese speaking skills online. *System*, 41(1), 50-69.
- Tanaka, M. (2017). Examining EFL vocabulary learning motivation in a demotivating learning environment. *System*, 65, 130-138.
- Tarone, E. (1981). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategy. *TESOL quarterly*, 15(3), 285-295.
- Test, Quick Placement. "Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate." *Photocopiable at UCLES* (2001).
- Uztosun, M. S., & Erten, İ. H. (2014). The impact of English proficiency on the use of communication strategies: An interaction-based study in Turkish EFL context. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 10(2), 169-182.
- Yaman, Ş., & Özcan, M. (2015). Oral communication strategies used by Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. In *Issues in teaching, learning and testing speaking in a second language* (pp. 143-158). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- Yang, J. C., Chen, C. H., & Jeng, M. C. (2010). Integrating video-capture virtual reality technology into a physically interactive learning environment for English learning. *Computers & Education*, 55(3), 1346-1356.

- Zhang, L. J., & Rahimi, M. (2014). EFL learners' anxiety level and their beliefs about corrective feedback in oral communication classes. *System*, *42*, 429-439
- Zuhriyah, M. (2017). Problem-based learning to improve students' grammar competence. *Register Journal*, *10*(1), 48-61.