Table of Contents

Muhammad Jafar and Andi Qashas Rahman ................................................................. 5
Exploring Teachers’ Perception of Professional Development in Indonesian EFL Classroom

Amaluddin, Sapri and Rahmatullah Syaripuddin .......................................................... 26
Student’s Voice: A Case of Significance in Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL)

Aidil Syah Putra ............................................................................................................... 39
The Correlation of EFL Student’s Learning Style and Writing Skill at Vocational High School

Iwan Jazadi and IGA Widari .......................................................................................... 49
Introducing English Learning Strategy as a Compulsory Subject: A Reflective Study at English Education Department in Regional Indonesia

C. Gangalakshmi and R. Naganathan .............................................................................. 67
Machinery Learning – Implication of Blended Learning for Higher Education students in down south India

Andi Hudriati, Rusdiah, Muli Umiaty Noer and Muhammad Arham ............................. 79
EFL Students’ Attitude on Mendeley-Based Instruction for Scientific Writing in Indonesian Higher Education

Akmal Hamsa and Sukardi Weda .................................................................................. 96
Comparative Study in Indonesian and English: Identifying Linguistic Units of Comparison

Kembong Daeng and Sukardi Weda .............................................................................. 112
Contrastive Analysis of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English Syntax

Sebastianus Menggo, I Made Suastra and Ni Nyoman Padmadewi .............................. 133
Self-Recording Videos to Improve Academic English-Speaking Competence

Muli Umiaty Noer, Rusdiah and Andi Hudriati .............................................................. 158
Multicultural Education Approach: Perspectives of Learners on Resolving University Student Conflicts in South Sulawesi

Annie Mae C. Berowa, Jennibelle R. Ella and Rochelle Irene G. Lucas ......................... 170
Perceived Offensiveness of Swear Words Across Genders

Eden G. Aquino and Arnel R. Madrazo ....................................................................... 198
Deciphering Meaning in the Chabacano Speakers’ Illocutionary Acts

Bernardita G. Bacang, Richard M. Rillo and Ericson O. Alieto ..................................... 210
The Gender Construct in the Use of Rhetorical Appeals, Hedges and Boosters in ESL Writing: A Discourse Analysis

I Wayan Agus Anggayana, I Gede Budasi and Irawinne Rizki Wahyu Kusuma .............. 225
Social Dialectology Study of Phonology in Knowing English Student Speaking Ability
Scrutinizing the Effect of E-Learning to the Students' Attitude: Affective, Cognitive and Behaviour in the Classroom at EFL Context A case study of five students in University Level
Exploring Teachers’ Perception of Professional Development in Indonesian EFL Classroom

Muhammad Jafar & Andi Qashas Rahman
STKIP Muhammadiyah Bone & Universitas Negeri Makassar

Bio-Profiles:
Muhammad Jafar is English Language teaching at STKIP Muhammadiyah Bone, Indonesia. His research interest deals with English language teaching, language policy, and language assessment. E-mail: s3jafarunm@gmail.com

Andi Qashas Rahman is a professor in Applied Linguistics at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. His research interest concentrates on biliteracy development and bilingualism, English Language Teaching, and Language Assessment.

Abstract
This paper explores the teachers’ perception on the professional development of EFL teachers in Indonesian EFL classroom. It engages three kinds of procedure of collecting data, namely (1) observation and field note, (2) Interview, and (3) document analysis to collect data on the teachers’ perception towards the professional development of EFL teachers within three research subjects of the Indonesian Junior High School context. Research result reveal that there were the real differences in the way of the Junior High School teachers’ perception on the professional development in Indonesian EFL classroom and these differences influence the practices of using the professional development in the EFL classroom context. The compound of the attitude of the teachers toward the professional development and their classroom teaching practices guide to the three categories of the Junior High School teachers such as: (1) Highly Effective Teachers on Professional Development (HETPD); (2) Moderately Effectively Teachers on Professional Development (METPD); and (3) Lowly Effective Teachers on Professional Development (LETPD). What is evident is that the more positive attitude of the teachers toward the Professional Development, the better the performance they have in
Indonesian EFL classroom. This research has attempted to expand on scientific understanding of EFL teachers’ professional development in Indonesian Junior High School.

**Key words:** Professional development, competence, Junior high school.

**Introduction**

In Indonesia, the duties of teachers are established in the act on the National Sistem of Education No. 20/2003, especially chapter XI article 40. It is stated that one of the responsibilities of teachers or education workers is “to have professional commitment to improve quality of education” (Undang-undang Sidiknas, 2003).

Because of the important role, the teachers need to be able to improve and develop their professional competences. As may be not to say what professional competence of EFL teachers should possess or how they should improve and develop as professionals. This is because the concept of ELT teacher professional competence itself is relatively not easy to define and it is constantly changing. Also, the aim of the study is to investigate English teacher professionalism development within the Indonesian educational context which is characterised with a lot of complex realities, limitations and obstacles in its classroom (Walkers, 2001). While Usmirawati (2012) stated that the study of the professionalism of teachers currently can’t be separated from the formulation of the teacher characteristics, competence, commitment, status, respect, autonomy, career development and welfare.

In the contrary, Tanang & Abu (2014) state that teachers’ professionalism and professional development practices which still have lower quality based on the law and do not produce an improved performance yet in South Sulawesi, Indonesia. This investigation focuses on teachers’ behavior-attitude, pedagogic skills, and diversity learning activities through effective professional development as commitment to do continuous improvement. The supporting factors and the constraints of being professional teacher are also identified.

In line with Al Asmari (2016), he states that attending the Continuous professional development, in their feedback, the participants of the current study reiterated upgrading their professional and leadership skills realizing the importance of CPD in developing their teaching skills. He acknowledged that CPD provided them with a challenging change in their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs. Based on findings, there were CPD related demanding issues which needed urgent attention.

Most people agree that teaching in fact intends to deliver the students into the objective that have been planned before. Successful EFL teachers are not only able to teach but also able to help students to learn. (Thomson, 2006:2). Believing in that a clear understanding of third
phenomenon provides a meaningful addition and depth to understanding of the teacher professional competence in the classroom setting, how they are flexible and vary their teaching strategies, how extent they understand learners and their roles, rights, needs and motivation. It is obvious from the previous discussion that the major problem in EFL teacher’s professionalism development that they posses in Indonesian educational context. These phenomenon is the main concern of this research, and hence it is the core of the whole discussion.

Realizing the problem above, this study attempts to answer this research question:

What are the perceptions of EFL teachers on their professional development?

Review of Literature

This chapter comprehensively reviews literature pertaining to the issue of teachers’ professionalism development. It provides the related to the information and identification of what others have contended to clarify the issue in this research. The discussion below is dealing with the previous related studies and some pertinent ideas. The pertinent ideas encompass the EFL teaching in Indonesian context and its policy, concept of professionalism development, teachers’ performance, teaching and learning theories, language learning theories and methods in language teaching, assessment in language teaching and concept of perception.

Teacher’s professional development becomes very important in general area or study of education, it is probably because the professional competence development of the teacher plays an important role in their performance in teaching and the interaction with the students and other members of the school community.

Definition of perception

The term “perception” is etymologically derived from the Old French Language “perception” and literally referred to the collecting rents by feudal landlords (Barnhart, 1988). While the term perceptio, percipto, derives from Latin according to Schacter is “the organization, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment” (2011: 64). Sensory information is information that the brain collects from the senses (taste, smell, sight, hearing and touch). The information is collected from the receptors and then sent through the neural pathways to the brain, where it is processed so it can be understood.

While Wang (2007) defined it as “a set of internal sensational cognitive processes of the brain at subconscious cognitive function layer that detects, relates, interprets, and searches
internal cognitive information in the mind”. From the definitions above, it can be concluded that perception is the recognition and interpretation or understanding of events, objects, and stimuli through the use of senses like hearing, touching, smelling, feeling and seeing. Perceiving includes how person respond to information. Accordingly, it can be formulated that perception is a process where sensory information can be taken from the environment and can be used in order to interact with the environment. Perception allows us to take the sensory information in and make it into something meaningful.

Factors influencing perception

There are many factors raised to shape and deform perception. These factors can lie in the perceiver, in the target or object being perceived and the situation or context in which the perception is made (Robin, 2003). The factors that derives from the perceiver, for instance, when an individual looks at an object and then tries to interpret what s/he sees, the interpretation is heavily affected by personal characteristics of the individual perceiver. The relevant personal characteristics of the perceiver that affect perception are attitude, motives, interest, experience and expectation. The characteristics of the target that is being perceived such as novelty, motion, sound, size, background, and proximity as well as similarity can affect what is perceived. While the background in which people observe objects are important. These backgrounds among others are the time, the work setting and also the social setting.

The importance of perception

Concerning the description of the perception above, it can be stated that perception is important in understanding individual differences, as how people perceive something will determine how people behave. In short, perception affects behavior (Atweh & Cooper, 1998; Calderhead, 1996; Cillessen & Lafonta, 2002). In relation of perception that dealing with teachers, Lópes (2010) established that the perceptions of teachers are reflected in their attitudes and their attitude toward an innovation is the result of their perception of an innovation. Attitudes are also reflected in the behavior of teacher. For instance, a positive attitude toward innovation can be reflected in the teachers’ cooperative behavior. However, their ambivalent or negative attitudes are reflected in their uncooperative or even their resistance.

Hence, perception can steer and direct the teachers own teaching (Boekaerts, 1998; Artini, 2010). Teachers’ innovative teaching practices are related to their perception of teaching and learning. Teachers’ perception often guide their decisions in the classroom and
influence many facets of classrooms, including the degree of student autonomy, interaction, and forms of assessment in the classroom (Zhu & Wang, 2014; Stipek et al., 2001).

Research suggests that the relationship between one’s self concept (perception) and one’s academic ability is very strong. By the same token, Boekerts (1998) asserts that perception has a role in providing a set of expectancies towards teaching a particular subject. Accordingly, teacher perception on the importance of the teacher competence is important. Perception plays a pivotal role in attainment and practice of competencies in professional field. Perception may encompass students’ preference of how their instruction should be delivered (Lightbown & Spada, 2008). With regard to this, the researcher investigated the perception of EFL JHS (Junior High School teachers in Bone regency South Sulawesi province on the importance of the EFL teachers professionalism development and examine the perception of EFL JHS teachers on their own professionalism. Exploring the teachers’ perception is essential to improve the professional development and teaching performance of the teachers. This notion is supported by Jie (2015) who claims that perception is a great significant in achieving and practicing competencies during the professional development of teachers. Accordingly, it can be concluded that perception plays a pivotal role in the attainment and practice of these competencies in the field of professionalism (Bhargawa & Pathy, 2011; Dozza & Cavrini, 2012).

**Research Design**

An ethnography approach was used as the design of this research. Ethnographic research is one of the qualitative research designs useful to investigate the behavior patterns of teachers and students at school and in the school community. As a qualitative research, ethnographic research design uses qualitative methodological principles, very different from those quantitative researches. Ethnography is the written information of a special culture, customs, beliefs, and attitudes lied on issues collected by using the fieldnote (Harris and Johnson, 2000). In education, ethnographic research is used to describe teachers’ and students’ behavior; their viewpoints, their needs, their interactions, their language use, etc., from which effective educational or training programs can be designed.

Heath (1982, p.33), one of the pioneers of ethnographic longitudinal research about literacy and language socialisation, instructs educational researchers that an understanding of ethnography “depends on linking it to its traditional disciplinary base in anthropology and it s role in the anthropologist”’s study of human behaviour in cross cultural perspective”. Related that Jafar (2010) said that Heath”’s comment underscores the disciplinary roots of ethnography
in studies of culture and the value of comparison and contrast across cultures as part of such study. Whilst its roots lie in anthropology and sociology, the value of ethnography has been realised across a wider range of disciplines, including in education, where the recognition of the existence of groups with their own cultures, such as those of a school and families associated with the school, has led to exploration using ethnographic techniques to provide new and contextualised insights into aspects of human behaviour in relation to child development and classroom learning.

**Procedure of Collecting Data**

**Observation and Field Notes**

Observation is a systematic data gathering technique. Researchers employ all of their skill to explore human in natural environment or naturally occurring conditions. Some researchers’ figure out a difference between subjectst observation and observation. Subjects observation involves participation in the lives of the human being learned with the maintenance of a professional that permit enough observation and recording of the data (Fetterman, 1998). Subjects observation puts the human's role as subjects in the social environment he or she observes. The range of functions one may employ as a participant observer have been inform by Gold (1958), Adler and Adler (1984) and others. Bernard (1998) assumes that subjects’ observation ought to be learned in the field work.

**Interview**

Interview is an intended interaction in which one person is trying to obtain information from another. Interviews allow researchers to obtain information data that they can not acquire only from observation, moreover pairing observation and interviewing provides a valuable way to gather complementary data. Interviews can explore and probe participants’ responses to gather more in-depth data about their experiences and feelings. They can examine attitudes, interests, feelings, concerns, and values more easily than they can through observation. (Gay et. al. 2006:418).

**Document Analysis**

Document analysis is one of data resource which can be in the model of composition or visual that can give contribution the comprehension of what was situation in the classroom or in the study site and the strategies employed where the study is managed. Document analysis is an organizatinal procedure for reviewing, assesing, examining, or evaluating documents both printed and electronic concepts. Like other analytical approaches in qualitative research,
document analysis asks that data be explored and interpreted to get the meaning, get the comprehension, and improve empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

**Technique of Analyzing Data**

In qualitative research paradigm the process of analyzing data used analytical flow model proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994: 10) are often referred to as interactive data analysis methods. They revealed that the activities carried out in the analysis of qualitative data in an interactive and take place continuously until complete, so the data was already saturated. There were three concurrent flows of activities in analyzing the qualitative data, such as: data reduction, data displays, and conclusions drawing or verification.

**Findings**

Professional development of English language teachers have an encouragement to develop their capability. Perception has a very close relationship with the attitude. Perception deals with the use of mind or senses to understand a person’s surrounding. Attitude, on the other hand, is the person’s feeling or a way of thinking about something based on their perception (Pickens, 2005).

Perception is the basis for understanding individual differences, as for how people perceive something will affect how people behave (Cillessen & Lafonta, 2002; Lópes, 2010). Teachers’ attitude is the reflection of their perception and their perception can guide and set their sights on their own teaching (Artini, 2010). Teachers’ instructions are related to their perception of teaching and learning and their perception often determines their decisions and affects many aspects of classrooms such as the interactions, activities, assessment, and students’ engagement (Zhu & Wang, 2014; Stipek et al., 2001).

Related to the statements above that the findings in this research about teacher’s perception on their professional development are strongly supported by the theories above. Professional development of English language teachers have an encouragement to develop their capability and performance in teaching.

The following summary is the short information of teachers’ perceptions that focusing at some attributes. The teachers’ point of view about professional development of EFL teachers program as follow;

**Technical knowledge**

The first research subject also delivered a message about technical knowledge on professional development of the EFL teacher that the question as follow;
Researcher : What is your opinion about the professional development of English teacher?

Teacher : Well, I think that professional development of EFL teacher has extraordinary benefits; (1) I can be a good teacher and also give a good treatment to the students because I have been through the stages in the process of developing English teacher’s professional development that I have followed. There are many positive things that I learned and very helpful for me to do my duties at the school especially in teaching practice in the classroom. The ability of our pedagogic competence or the other terms, teacher talk and it consists of two kinds, namely management talk and instructional talk. Management talk here refers to how preparation into classroom like opening class or giving appreciation, check to the students, asking to the students about the preparation in studying reviewing the materials before, giving informations about the purposes of studying, method and strategies of studying, steps of studying, media of studying, etc based on the learning scenario. While instructional talk refers to performance of teaching begins pre-teaching, while-teaching, and post-teaching and also our language skills automatically will be good also. For example MGMP, seminar, conference, Workshop, Teacher Training (Diklat), and PLPG program (Teacher’s Training and Development centre) that carried out at provincial level. And (2) there are many informations that we can share in that activity, not only about the information of English teaching but also information about personal administration as Civilian state apparatus for example on tax report, the target employee (SKP), and small meeting with use English language at the same time joking with friends.

Researcher : Do you think the professional development of English language teacher is important?

Teacher : Yes, it is. Professional development of English teachers is necessary and very helpful at all, especially on program of PLPG, MGMP, workshop, seminar, diklat, competence during I follow the training of increasing teachers’ competence especially English teachers, I feel like in re-fresh and frekly there are many methods and teaching strategies that I have gained and after I followed the program, it is directly applied in class because I don’t want the way of my teaching method is monotony, I want there are many variations in teaching because I realize that nowadays the education has changed and it has
developed rapidly and most of all the changes that accured on the learner, nowadays the most of the students are mastering sophistication of technology and information such as the use of the internet or smart phone and gadget, then as a teacher I have to balance the situation and I get it through the training program.

Researcher : Is the professional development of English language teacher could influence and support the mastery of your language skills?
Teacher   : Yaah, of course that is very influent because indirectly, I always use English eventhough it is not one hundred percent in using it but we often to use it for example; teaching in speaking, reading, writing, and listening, we always explain the material by using in English. Of course there is a transformation of understanding here. (Interviewed on Thursday, August 23, 2018 FN 002).

Based on his answer to the interview is supported strongly by Cutrone, P (2015) states that it is important that EFL teachers understand and respect how potentially sensitive cross-cultural issues can be in the EFL classroom. Accordingly, he cautions EFL teachers to never push their learners to communicate in ways that make them feel uncomfortable. It is important to keep in mind that students forge their identities and belief systems through their culture; thus, any attempts by teachers to alter their communicative style or behaviors may be met with resistance and disengagement from the class.

Professional development of English language teachers have an encouragement to develop their capability and performance in teaching. How the teachers improve their ability and competence maximally whether it is in term of professional qualities and pedagogical competence. That is why this is the questions that asked in this research. It is about what is their opinion on the meaning of perception on professional development of English language teachers.

The second research subject also delivered a message about technical knowledge on the professional development of English teachers.

Extract

Researcher : What is your opinion about the professional development of English teachers?
Teacher    : At the present I think that the developing of English teacher on professionalism competence can support my duties as a teacher, it is proved by applying what we have a lot of experiences to know directly in learning process in the class, it can increase our motivation and self-confidence.
Researcher: Do you think that professional development of English teacher is important?

Teacher: Yes, it does. It took affect very much in increasing my motivation and my self-confidence in teaching classroom context.

Researcher: Is the professional development of English language teacher could influence and support the mastery of your language skills like; speaking, writing, reading, and listening? How?

Teacher: Yes, it is very influential because of the existence of training such as; MGMPs, workshops, training, PLPG, and so on train teachers to teach alternately appearing in front of the class or practice learning designs that have been compiled or designed together in such a way based on the demands of the existing curriculum so that integrated learning automatically listening, reading, speaking, and writing. (Interviewed on Monday, August 27, 2018 FN 008).

The preceding extract shows that she is really believe that the professional development of EFL’s teacher through service training such as; MGMP (Musyawarah Guru Mata pelajaran) Teachers Field Study Meeting Club, PLPG (Teachers Training and Development Centre), and Teaching Trainings (workshop) or seminar by using computer facilities like LCD, chamera, handphone, etc are vry important and influential in increasing her motivation and self-confidence in teaching classroom context, and they take affect for the teaching quality to professional development, her subject-matter knowledge can be applied in studying process directly. It is also influential to her language abilities to master such as; listening, writing, reading, and speaking.

In MGMP activities, We also ofter discuss together with the participants or our friends how to solve problems in the field related to duties such as how to make a test effectively, lesson plan, assessment, etc based on the new curriculum, we also plan to make a hands book or moduls by using media because media is a tool to help the teachers to transfer their knowledge in order to make easier to understand for learners so that it is very important to have for teachers if they will teach in the classroom, but in listening comprehension subject frankly we still need technical guidance”.

In indonesia the duties of teachers are established in the act on the National system of education No. 20/2003, especially chapter XI article 40. It is stated that one of the responsibilities of teachers or educational workers is “to have professional commitment to improve quality of education” (Undang-undang Sisdiknas 2003). And according to the act of
teachers and lecturers No 14/2005, teachers need to have four kinds competences, namely; professional competence (knowledge of subject matter), pedagogic competence (skill in teaching methodology), personal competence (good behaviour and personalities), and social competence (social interaction and acceptance).

**Pedagogical Skills**

The first research subject delivered a message about pedagogical skills on professional development of the EFL teacher that the question as follow;

**Extract**

Researcher : Is the professional development of English language teacher that you already have could improve your capability in designing and developing the teaching scenario?

Teacher : Yes, for the first, I think indeed greatly help improve my ability to teach as far as my experience in the EFL teachers’ professional development program, we are as teachers required to find out, it means that we are expected to up to date our teaching treatment, for example studying from computer like the using of quicker school, quicker school is the computer based on program use by both teachers and students in studying via internet applications.” And the second, I think yes of course professional development can increase our knowledge about how to become a professional teacher. A lot of suitable techniques and useful information how to arrange, designing, and developing teaching scenario or Lesson plan that suitable and appropriate in student learning in the classroom.

Researcher : Is the professional development of English teacher able to enrich your teaching technique and strategy?

Teacher : Yes, it can provide information while at the same time enriching our ability in mastering techniques and strategies in teaching because for example in MGMP activities teachers are accustomed to designing and compiling learning steps, learning techniques and strategies in class, sharing and sharing among friends - teacher friends in terms of ability enrich new knowledge about new learning models according to the demands of the new curriculum and apply them in the classroom.

Researcher : If you find a new teaching strategy applies by one of your friends, what should you do?
Teacher: In my opinion, we appreciate it well and try to learn it later if the learning model is in accordance with the demands of the new curriculum and can be done then we strive to translate it based on the needs of students and conditioned according to the needs of students and existing school facilities. (Interviewed on Monday, August 27, 2018 FN 008).

Based on the extract that professional development program can increase the teachers’ knowledge about how to become a professional teacher. And a lot of information that they can acquire for example, the suitable techniques and useful information how to arrange, designing, and developing teaching scenario in term RPP (Rencana Program Pembelajaran) or Lesson plan that suitable and appropriate in student learning in the classroom. And also it can provide information while at the same time enriching our ability in mastering techniques and strategies in teaching in the classroom.

The third research subject delivered a message about pedagogical skills on professional development of the EFL teacher that the questions as follow;

**Extract**

**Researcher**: Do you have the development of professional English teachers that you have so far can improve your ability in compiling and designing your learning scenario?

**Teacher**: Yes, I do. when attending teacher professional development trainings such as the Subject Teachers’ Consultation (MGMP) we were greatly helped in compiling and designing learning scenarios because in those trainings, we were trained to develop and design learning scenarios to improve teaching abilities and qualities in carrying out tasks as a teacher.

**Researcher**: Can professional development of English teachers provide information while at the same time enriching the ability of mastering the techniques and strategies for teaching English in the classroom?

**Teacher**: Yes, it can provide information while at the same time enriching our ability in mastering techniques and strategies in teaching because for example in MGMP activities teachers are accustomed to designing and compiling learning steps, learning techniques and strategies in class, and sharing among friends - teacher friends in terms of ability enrich new knowledge about new learning models in accordance with the demands of the new curriculum and can apply it in the classroom. (Interview on August 29, 2018 FN 010).
Based on the extract that the development of English teachers can provide information while at the same time enriching our ability in mastering techniques and strategies in teaching because for example in MGMP activities, teachers are accustomed to designing and compiling learning steps, learning techniques and strategies in class, sharing and sharing among friends - teacher friends in terms of ability enrich new knowledge about new learning models in accordance with the demands of the new curriculum and can apply it in the classroom.

**Personal Qualities**

The second research subject also delivered a message about pedagogical skills on professional development of the EFL teacher that the question as follow;

**Extract**

Researcher : How do you control your students to keep focus in the classroom teaching process?

Teacher : Yes, of course there are a number of steps that I have taken in class, the first, giving assignments which are usually in the form of appreciation, yells, songs, games, and others. Then the two give assignments in the form of exercises, discussions and in the form of question and answer or feedback.

Researcher : Do you have any short and long term target toward professional development in the future?

Teacher : Yes, of course, a teacher has such a plan, for example, a short-term plan is to prepare all the tools or learning tools needed in the learning process in the classroom and for the long term the impact of learning English on students can be useful or used in daily life, day and work world. (Interviewed on August 27, 2018 FN 008).

Based on the extract that professional development of English teacher can give positive effect to the teachers especially for the teaching techniques and methods in apply the teaching process so that the students can focus more on learning English in the classroom and are also they are hoped to have long-term and short-term plans in professional teaching. In line with Mainstream classroom teachers are teachers who are responsible for teaching the core areas of the primary school curriculum which include literacy/English, Science, Mathematics, Technology, and Study of Society and Environment (Jafar, 2010). Therefore, the existence of professional development programs can provide solutions for English teachers.

The third research subject delivered a message about personal qualities on professional development of the EFL teacher that the question as follow;
**Extract**

**Researcher**: How do you control your students to keep focus in the classroom teaching process?

**Teacher**: Yes, we often do it in class so that students stay focused and concentrated on subjects, of course the use of appropriate, fun learning methods and techniques and the use of appropriate media because using media can attract students' attention and be motivated to focus more on learning. Furthermore, of course, looking at the condition of students, if the students' conditions are out of focus, we usually give assignments which are usually in the form of appreciation, yells, singing, games, and so on. Then then give assignments in the form of exercises, discussions and in the form of question and answer or feedback.

**Researcher**: Do you have any short and long term target toward professional development in the future?

**Teacher**: Yes, of course, a teacher has such a plan, for example, a short-term plan is to prepare all the tools or learning tools needed in the learning process in the classroom and for the long term the impact of learning English on students can be useful or used in daily life, day and work world. (Interviewed on Wednesday, August 29, 2018).

Based on the extract that an English teacher should have many teaching techniques and methods so the students can focus more on learning English in the classroom and also they are hoped to have long-term and short-term plans in professional teaching. Therefore, the existence of professional development programs can provide solutions for English teachers in Indonesia.

**Discussion**

Professional development of the EFL teachers can encourage to increase and develop their pedagogic competence or their ability and quality in teaching and learning process in the classroom. How the English teachers improve their professional development whether it is in terms of qualities, capability, and performance in teaching through MGMP, seminar, workshop, Teacher training (Diklat), conference, discussion or sharing in social media, and so on. It is about what is their opinion on the perception of the EFL teachers professional development.
The research has explored what EFL opinion on the concept of professional development. In sum, the notions of the English language teacher’s professional development are indeed very important and very helpful for the successful process of teaching and learning that lead to increase the student’s interest of the material. This research findings in line with Afsaneh (2011), previous research findings who conducted a research entitled “The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ sense of Self-Efficacy and their pedagogical success in Language Institutes.” The qualitative findings of the study indicate that there is a significant relationship between teachers’ success and their self-efficacy, their teaching experience and age. This reflect the theory, stated that, The concepts of teacher professionalism are closely linked to autonomy, professional judgment, engagement with matters of curriculum and assessment, collaboration with others, power sharing with other stakeholders, and continuous learning (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Yuwono 2010). Teacher’s professional and competence are two of effecting factors for the successful in teaching English as the mandatory subject in Indonesian school.

From the EFL teacher’s perception data about professional development, the researcher identified three categories that can be used as the size of the teacher characteristics assessed professionally development, namely:

1. Highly Effective Teachers on Professional Development (HETPD), with the indicators:
   a. having a good technical knowledge
   b. applying various ways of teaching in the classroom.
   c. sharing each other about many things related to the duties in the school.
   d. creating active learning environments that are meaningful, technologically appropriate, and academically challenging.
   e. creating the learning process effectively and efficiently.
   f. organizing frequent student interaction through collaborative learning techniques.
   g. having a large networking.
   h. creative and active in joining education development.

2. Moderate Effectively Teachers on Professional Development (METPD), with indicators:
   a. using the limited instruction techniques to different learning styles.
   b. rarely control the students to keep the focus of studying in classroom teaching context.
   c. have a simple technical knowledge.
3. Low Effective Teachers on Professional Development (LETPD), with indicators:
   a. is not informed of the rational for professional development
   b. still use of teaching monotonously.
   c. do not share an active commitment toward professional development.
   d. do not open to innovation.

Excellent EFL teachers are needed to help achieve the national education curriculum goal because of the important role of that teacher have, teachers need to be able to improve and develop their professional development.

Conclusion
1. This research study identified that the perception of EFL teachers on professional development had a positive impact on teaching practice. This finding implies that professional development for teachers is important to ensure high quality teaching. In general, teachers’ professional development is viewed as a platform for professional learning. As teachers develop better content knowledge through participation in professional development, they become more confident with their own practice (Harris et al., 2010). This will result to better student understanding of the subject taught.

2. The more positive perception of EFL teachers on professional development the better ways to teach or manage students in classroom teaching practice and also more creative and quality in their teaching process so that they can improve learning outcomes to the students as well.

3. The more highly implemented professional development of EFL teachers the more positive towards teachers’ performances, methods, and approaches in the classroom teaching practice.

Suggestions
1. For the teachers, they need professional development effectively and continuously in particularly the EFL teachers in order to be able to improve and develop the high teaching quality and more creatively in classroom teaching practice.

2. This research can be further replicated to involve more schools to increase the validity and reliability of its finding. It is recommended that this research be conducted on a group of teachers who had experience similar professional development so that their perception of its impact on their teaching practice can be better understood.
3. EFL teacher in this professional development should be encouraged to explicitly use the theory that they study in practical realizations such as lesson plans, class observations, and the planning and execution of classroom activities. Teachers benefit from being asked to use theory this way and to reflect upon it. Lastly, activities that combine theory and practice in professional development programs, especially ones that address planning and executing teaching ideas, should have follow-up sessions for reflection. Teachers and teacher educators, or collaborators (Freeman, 1989), should reflect prior to and on action to see in what ways the program is having an impact on teachers.

References


Al Asmari, A.R. (2016). Continuous Professiona Development of English Language Teachers: Perception and Practices. *Associate Professor, Faculty of Arts, Taif University, At-Taif, Saudi Arabia*. Doi:10.7575/aiac.all.s.v.7n.3p.117 Received: 17/01/2016. URL: http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.s.v.7n.3p.117.


Student’s Voice: A Case of Significance in Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL)

Amaluddin

Sapri

Rahmatullah Syaripuddin

Bio-Profiles:

Amaluddin was born on March 7th, 1965 in Kalosi, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. He is a lecturer at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. He got his Dr. at State University of Malang. He obtained his M.Hum from Hasanuddin University of Makassar. His research interests are linguistics, applied linguistics, teaching, and learning practices. He can be reached at amaluddin1965@gmail.com, amaluddin@umpar.ac.id.

Sapri was born on January 3rd, 1994 in Sumulluk, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. He got his S.Pd. at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. His research interest is English language teaching. He can be reached at sapriumpar@gmail.com.

Rahmatullah Syaripuddin was born on October 12th, 1995 in Ujung Pandang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. He got his S.Pd. at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. He obtained his M.Pd. from Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. His research interests are English Language Teaching and Curriculum and Material Development. He can be reached at rahmatullah.syaripuddin@gmail.com.

Abstract

This research was based on the students’ voice regarding the significance of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), especially the students’ perception and conception about the use of mobile devices in English language learning. The laptop, handphone, and internet connection were the main mobile tools in the learning process. However, the students were still confused about the effectivity of mobile devices, and they were afraid that it would become their disturbance. Therefore, the implementation of MALL at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare would be the main perception of the student. This research is qualitative
research, which is expected to capture data on more comprehensive data sources as well as the data of observation. After analyzing the data by data display and reduction, the social situation has been concluded that the significant differences and counter method about the concept of MALL in the student's voice found the engagement between student to student, student to the teacher, and student to the mobile devices as their assistance in the learning process.

**Keywords:** Student's Voice, Mobile Assisted Language Learning, Concept

**Introduction**

English as an intercontinental verbal communication has a significant role to the inhabitants of the world. It becomes the second verbal communication in many countries. In Indonesia, the English language as the first foreign verbal communication is taught to the students from junior high school up to university. English lecturers need to implement better approaches and techniques in their lessons. The use of technology in the education of students with disabilities has a considerable history. Stosic (2015) states that the role of educational technology in teaching is essential. The technology is not only a target but also it is related to teaching, which focuses on the limitation of the difficulties caused by a disability (Lancioni, 2010). Rahman (2017) Claims that pedagogical factor becomes the most crucial factor to be considered in teaching performance. Additionally, Nur and Syarifuddin (2018) state that there are at least three strategies to be achieved in learning, namely metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. In the students’ perception, the pedagogical competence of the good lecturer should cover the readiness in delivering the lesson, how they enliven the classroom condition, the application of media and technology in the classroom, giving feedback and evaluation skills.

The researcher in this area devised the direction of generating the learning content for mobile devices than investigating how mobile devices supported language learning skills. Therefore, the researcher used the qualitative approach to investigate the learning process by using MALL. It follows a line of investigation that was very significant to continue because students used mobile devices as an information center and learning utensil. Nevertheless, lecturers have not been directed students to use MALL, and the researcher will accumulate student perception about it.
Literature Review

The significances of language learning technology

Yeona (2015) argued about how the critical principle of technologies impacts the millennial students to know various social media and collaboration technologies which has the same or similar social affordances. Technology (ICT) is genuinely enhancing and persuading the educational practices of teachers and students, shifting the learning process from teachers centered to students centered (Suahirman, 2019). Integration of Information, Communication, and Technology (ICT) will lead teachers to the international requirement in changing traditional teaching methods by the use of technology-based teaching and learning tools and facilities (Ghavifekr & Rosdy, 2015). The study investigates the factor impacting students’ technology choice, from a pool of such technologies, for use in their collaborative learning activities – convenience. The analysis result of the survey response provides an informed basis for proposing the students' engagement, technology choice, and impact framework that conceptualizes the relationship between millennial students' technology choice and its impact on learning experience and performance.

Significantly, Ramdoss (2012) concluded that the current research is encouraging the use of technologies in teaching different skills to individuals with special needs. He also pointed out that more research is needed to be more conclusive. Moreover, Safdari et al. (2018) state that teaching is combining and applying knowledge, methodology, and technology through appropriate instructional behavior to provide a learning opportunity for learners. Besides, it involves the process of assessing the students’ improvement. In assessing them, teachers need a proper assessment rubric by using technology. It is because a good assessment rubric provides the profile of the students’ language development (Latifa, et al., 2015). In this context, it is clear that assessment is an integral part of instruction, as it determines whether or not the goals of education are being met (Bautista, 2019). Thus, integrating technology in teaching English is to be considered by the teacher before conducting the learning process.

Educational technology plays an essential role in improving the educational programs designed for the students of Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. Understanding how the technology assists the instruction, knowledge of ways to support day to day activities, and finally, the ability to teach students with the high production of new technologies may open a new era for special education. Because, when teachers can communicate learning material properly, and the students can interpret and understand what teachers explained, then it is called active learning (Nurhayati and Saenab, 2018). To this end, the special issue focuses on
pedagogy, technology, social impact, and other related aspects of technology enhancing learning environments in life-long education for disabled learners.

**Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL)**

This research advocates change that makes effective use of new research into learning styles as well as new technology in order to increase student learning. Many might feel that there has already been changing enough in the last two decades or more. Indeed, Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has brought significant and sweeping changes to almost every aspect of people’s lives, including education. This technology increased student autonomy, creativity, productivity, and teamwork (Esli, 2017). Even now, many innovations of the digital revolution—CDs, DVDs, streaming video, wireless communication—continue to have an impact, both on the way people conduct their lives and on the way educators endeavor to teach language (Levy, 2000).

The effects of the use of mobile technology within foreign and second language learning, learners use technology and attitudes and/or intentions, empirical studies, overview, and/or summary of MALL and CALL (focusing on the use of mobile technology) research, mobile technology in its relation to language learning within educational settings, the effects of technology used on the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and skills (reading, vocabulary learning, writing, etc.) (Olga, 2012). The conclusion of this discussion, the research concentrates primarily on the use of communication technologies for language learning. It limits its attention to the use of the computer as a tool for communication rather than exploring its other roles as a tutor or as a resource providing authentic language learning materials (e.g., newspapers). Whereas, the implementation of mobile-assisted language learning at the Muhammadiyah University of Parepare is still in line with this research of the computer learning user. Theory generating research developing mobile learning theory and constructing new theoretical models in mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is needed to be able to distinguish the field from other kinds of technology-assisted learning, such as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

**Mobile-Assisted Language Learning**

Language learning resources should be varieties. They are used not only as conventional as textbooks that accumulate in the library but have turned to multimedia-based learning resources such as the internet that has been widely used and developed in education
and distance learning (Suhirman, 2019). According to Vavoula, (2008), Mobile-assisted language learning is the formal or casual learning of a native language with the assistance of mobile devices. It is a helpful tool to improve the students' language competencies (Eslit, 2017). According to Colpaert (2004), Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is a subarea of the growing field of mobile learning and deals with the use of mobile technology in language learning. In MALL, there is no need for learners to sit in a classroom or at a computer to get learning materials. MALL can be considered as an ideal solution to language learning barriers in terms of time and place. Mobile learning environments might be face to face, distance, online, self-paced, and calendar-based.

**Methodology**

This research employs qualitative research, which tends to investigate the students' voices about the significance of MALL. The qualitative research is primarily about expanding people in the environment, interacting with them, making their language and interpretations of the world around them (Nasution 1988: 5). Besides, according to Gay (2012), qualitative research is the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative and visual, in example of numeric data to gain insight into a particular phenomenon of interest. This research was conducted at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. The sample was the students which come from various backgrounds of the departments. The sample was taken by using random sampling technique. The data was collected through the interview. The researcher interviewed them about the use of MALL in the learning process. There are two ways of collecting it. They are display and data reduction. After conducting those two ways, the researcher took the conclusion.

![Diagram](image-url)

**Figure 1.** Miles and Huberman, 2007: 177 (Data analysis)
Findings and Discussion

This aspect consists of one item which aims to find out the originality of the significances in MALL findings argued by the students in all major of Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. The findings of this aspect can be seen in the table below:

Table 1. Percentage of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Total Respondents (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Originality</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suryawinata and Hariyanto (2003)

Table 2. The Equipment/Tools of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MALL Tools</td>
<td>Laptop</td>
<td>All students and lecturers</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Handphone</td>
<td>All students and lecturers</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internet Connection</td>
<td>All students and lecturers</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suryawinata and Hariyanto (2003)

Students and lecturers have several electronic devices to support the teaching and learning process. The table above shows that almost one hundred percent of students and lecturers have a tool and a laptop. Therefore, the researcher has been concluded that there was a potential use of devices as a tool for teaching and learning processes or as a tool to help them do their tasks and as a media to simplify and accelerate their learning process. Whereas, the researchers found the fact in the field that nearly a hundred percent of students and lecturers were very dependent on the internet connection as a need that must be fulfilled. However, the use of computers and mobile as learning media must be equipped with an internet connection to speed up and maximize their time.
1. So far, is the lecturer already implementing a learning model using Mobile?

“There are some lecturers who have led to the use of cellphones in the lecture process, but some have not directed to it, but they allow me and my friends to use cellphones to look for our assignments.”

“Yes, there is already, sir. But, I prefer to do assignments on board by using cellphones, but I also usually use cellphones to find information on the Internet if I find it hard to understand the explanation being presented by my friend.”

“Some told me to send it to an e-mail, but usually I only send it via cellphone. Sometimes when I am in the fourth semester, I am instructed to use Edmodo, and then we work on the task through it. Therefore, some lecturers have directed us to use cellphones, in my opinion.”

From the above questions, the researcher found that the students have been gotten lecturers' directions using their mobile. However, students have not been fully permitted to use their mobile for all of their courses because of the consideration of disturbing student concentration in the course. The researcher found in the field about how lecturers directed the students to use mobile was only to find information when they were in trouble or send their assignments via WhatsApp or email them via their mobile.

2. How if Mobile Assisted Language Learning is applied to your class?

“That is not very good if I think brother because I used to pay attention to my friends, including myself too, where we usually use cellphones when feeling bored with these courses, sometimes also if there is a need for activities outside of college. Therefore, usually what I do when using a cellphone, but more often also use cellphones to search for material if I have trouble, usually using a hotspot of cellphone to connect my laptop to the internet.”

“Good brother. I agree if it is implemented in class.”
Researchers argue that social situations actually agree if the MALL is implemented in their class. In addition to following the era of all-around technology, there were some considerations that became issues measuring why students should use mobile to support their teaching and learning process that they become stakeholders in the process of learning or what we usually call the student center learning. The students got a difficulty when they did not use mobile to get information when distress. That was the result of field observation and questioning of the social situation.

3. What are the obstacles if the MALL is Implemented in your class?

“It is that a great brother. Because we can follow the era, and make it easier for us to learn, because usually, discussions are boring if friends do not understand the material, therefore cellphones are very helpful.”

“If that happens later, students will not focus on learning but focus on playing cellphones only, but in my opinion, it is not too much if the lecturers can handle students to restrict cellphones used during the lectures.”

“Just technical problems, brother. As an internet connection, if in the classroom, the internet network can be reached, it would be great to implement the cellphone learning model.”

“The biggest obstacle may be in the users themselves, maybe later brother. They already want to do their work, because there is an incoming notification, the work will be done again, but later, if I do an online learning group, and they do not have a quota, maybe that is the problem.”

The researcher found the obstacles that students would have difficulty in accessing the internet with some consideration as they would be difficult to consistently buy quota then from the campus room that was not covered by the connectivity of campus itself. The next problem
is students distracted by other activities such as playing online games, chats via WhatsApp, and some activities in addition to seeking information about related learning.

This study tried to describe the significance of MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) by the student's voice at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. Two aspects described in this study. Firstly, the student's perception of the significance of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) and the second is the conception of Mobile Assisted Language Learning. The results of questionnaire and field observations, the researchers found that mobile assisted language learning was beneficial for students or lecturers for their learning process because this mobile has become a necessity they must meet. However, they also have to make sure that they can have internet connection as an alternative to seek information. It has been proven with the supporting idea in Vavoula (2008), Mobile-assisted language learning is the formal or casual learning of a native language with the assistance of mobile devices. In addition, Yeona (2015) argued about how the critical principle of technologies impacts the student, and Millennial students are familiar with various social media and collaboration technologies with the same or similar social affordances.

They were also tending to use the mobile as compared to the computer with the consideration of using mobile is more practical for their use. Therefore, the researcher found that there was a potential use of devices as a tool for teaching and learning processes or as a tool to help them did their tasks and as a medium to simplify and accelerate their learning process. The researcher also found that against this research by Salaberry (2001), who definitely argues against "technology-driven pedagogy, suggesting that despite their revolutionary status, it is not clear that any modern technology such as television, radio, and computer.

The researchers found the fact in the field that nearly a hundred percent of students and lecturers today is very dependent on the internet connection as a need that must be fulfilled. However, the use of computers and mobile as learning media must be equipped with an internet connection to speed up and maximize their time. Yeona (2015) argued about how the critical principle of technologies impacts the student, and millennial students are familiar with various social media and collaboration technologies with the same or similar social affordances.

The researcher found the obstacles that students would have difficulty in accessing the internet with some consideration as they would be difficult to consistently buy Kouta then from the campus room that is not covered by connectivity campus itself. Through the inbuilt GPRS, Wi-Fi, and 3G and 4G Internet access, modern mobile devices provide language learners with opportunities to be involved in meaningful real-context interactions, which are usually lacking
in traditional language learning environments, especially in informal out-of-class situations. Significantly (Ramdoss, 2012: 197) concluded that the current research base is encouraging the use of technologies to teach different skills to the individual with special needs.

However Rosemary, (2015) Opposed the mechanism with the title “Web Applications that Promote Learning Communities in Today’s Online Classrooms” and the result of the research is that changing online learning environment requires that instructors depend less on the standard tools built into most educational learning platforms and turn their focus to the use of Open Educational Resources (OERs) and free or low-cost commercial applications. These applications allow new and more effective ways to build online learning communities and support recommended best practices by facilitating student dialogues with their instructors, other students, and online resources.

Additionally, the researcher said that there was a potential use of devices as a tool for teaching and learning process or as a tool to help them did their tasks and as a medium to simplify and accelerate their learning process. Whereas, the researchers found the fact in the field that nearly a hundred percent of students and lecturers were very dependent on the internet connection as a need that must be fulfilled. However, the use of computers and mobile as learning media must be equipped with an internet connection to speed up and maximize their time.

**Conclusion**

Based on the findings and discussion of the study, it can be concluded that the significance of MALL approved the social circumstances. It is proved by the students’ perception of the significance of MALL, whereas the mobile phone as their primary tool to learn, and they need a connection in the lecturing process. However, they are still confused about the effectivity of the mobile phone where they were afraid that the mobile would become their disturbance. Moreover, the significant differences and counterbalanced method about the concept of MALL in the student’s voice was online group learning which the mobile devices are close to the collaborative learning that found the engagement between student to student, student to the teacher, and student to the mobile devices as their assistance in the learning process. Other than that, some considerations became obstacles to how the students should use mobile devices to support their teaching and learning process so that they become stakeholders in the process or what we usually call the student center learning.
Acknowledgement
This research is limited to the field of applying technology in English language teaching, which results in the students’ perception on the use of mobile devices in English language teaching. The result shows that students need mobile devices in the learning process. Thus, it is important for the teacher to use mobile devices in the English learning process in order to make the students engage with the learning environment.

References
Accessed on 24th February 2019


The Correlation of EFL Student’s Learning Style and Writing Skill at Vocational High School

Aidil Syah Putra

aidilpoetra@gmail.com

Muhammad University of Tangerang

Bio-Profile:

Aidil Syah Putra is an awardee of LPDP (Lembaga Pengelola Dana Pendidikan) managed by the Ministry of Finance in the Republic of Indonesia. The research was financed by LPDP. He is a doctorate candidate at the State University of Jakarta. He is interested in language skills, language acquisition, young learners, teaching methodology and technique, psycholinguistics and gender). He works as a lecturer in the Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang.

Abstract

The research aims to analyze the correlation of EFL student’s learning styles and writing skills at vocational high school. Vocational high schools has the purpose of developing the competence of students in using English as a foreign language in both speaking and writing. The researchers need to observe and analyze EFL students’ learning styles and writing skills whether there is a significant correlation or none. The method used in this study is a survey method through correlation research. The data that the researchers gathered in this research are questionnaires and writing tests. The questionnaires consist of 24 questions which adapted from Barsch (2017). The samples that the researchers used were 51 students in the middle class of SMK Tiara Tangerang. The calculation result showed that the null hypothesis ($H_0$) was accepted and the alternative hypothesis ($H_a$) was rejected. It could be seen from the result obtained Kendall Tau Z-count ($0.309 < Z$-table (1, 96)). It means that there is no significant correlation between students’ learning styles and their writing skills. In summary, it can be said that students’ learning style was not a dominant factor affecting writing skills.

Keywords: Learning Style, Writing Skill, EFL learners
Introduction

Writing is one of the important skills that should be mastered by students. According to Hamp-Lyons and Kroll, 1997 in Weigle (2002, p.19), “writing is an activity that takes place within context to accomplish a special purpose and appropriately shaped for its intended audience”. Furthermore, another definition of writing comes from Nunan (2003, p. 88) state “writing is physical and mental activity”. Writing is called physical activity because it is an activity of collecting the words in some medium. Also, writing is called mental activity as it is the work of inventing the ideas, thinking about how to express and organize ideas into statements and paragraphs that will impress the readers. It means that writing is a collaborative activity of a physical act and mental working in developing ideas into statements and paragraphs that are conveyed through the reader and through writing the students can deliver their ideas written. The students can express their ideas in a letter, book, or article. It is related to the thinking process and ideas in written form. The writing process is more complex because the students need to pay attention to the overall pattern or structure of the text that students know what they have written.

Although on reality, not all of the students have well in writing. There are some factors contributed such as learning motivation, learning style, vocabulary mastery, grammar mastery, and emotional problem. These factors can affect a student’s writing skills. The students learning styles is one of the factors that influence a student’s writing skill. According to MacKeracher (2004, p. 71) state “that learning style is behavior that serves as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment”. Also, Brown (2000, p. 120) defines “learning styles as the manner in which individuals perceive and process information in learning situations”. Base on the definitions above the students has different ways to get information in learning situations.

Wang (2007, p. 409) defines “learning style as an individual’s preferred or habitual ways of processing the knowledge and transforming the knowledge into personal knowledge”. It is an educational condition under which a student is most likely to learn. Thus, learning style is not concerned with what the learners learn, but rather how they prefer to learn the materials. Furthermore, each person has his or her own best way to learn, governing how they prefer to receive and process the knowledge. Some learners may rely on visual images or presentations; others prefer listening to music while learning; still, others may respond better to hands-on activities.

Having a full understanding on students learning style preference will help the educators to be more cautious when they are in the classroom, for the students with certain
learning style preference would react and respond differently when they are exposed to certain learning environment. Furthermore, Keefe in Martinez (2001, p. 82) argue that “learning style is the composite of characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interact with, and responds to the learning environment”. In other words, learning style is the combination of learner ability and knowledge to achieve a goal from the learning process.

Related to the researcher’s pre-observation in writing class of eleventh-grade students at SMK Tiara Aksara, the students have a different style in understanding the material about writing that explained by the teacher not only caused by the students’ low motivation and their difficulty to express some ideas in writing. It is because they do not master vocabulary. Besides that, the learning and teaching process cannot utilize the language laboratory provided there. So, it seems the teaching process still uses a conventional method. To solve the problem, the students must be equipped with vocabulary before writing. The students are lack of vocabulary and grammar mastery that makes students difficult in writing.

So, in this research, the researcher chooses a student’s learning style to know a student’s writing skills. The title of the research is “The Correlation of the Eleventh Grade Student’s Learning Style and Writing Skill at SMK Tiara Aksara.

**Research Method**

This study was a quantitative correlation research since the researcher identifies variable and looks for relationship among them but does not manipulate the variable. In this research involved two variables that is students’ learning style and writing achievement. This statement is supported by Gay and Airasian (2000: 321) said that correlation research describes an existing condition where it is distinctly from its correlation provide an estimate of just how related two variables.

**Result and Discussion**

**Writing Skill**

The researcher has been analyzed the students’ writing skills as variable Y by distributed writing test, the test was recounting text that students write their experience or a past event that happens in their life consist 250 words in 90 minutes to 51 students as respondents from a sample. Besides, from variable X that is learning style, the researcher got data from 24 items of the questionnaire.
### Table 4.1 Summary Data Description of Writing test (Y)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics (Y)</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean ((\bar{x}))</td>
<td>61,89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median (Me)</td>
<td>63,83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode (Mo)</td>
<td>77,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Score (D_{\text{max}})</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Score (D_{\text{min}})</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range (r)</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation (SD)</td>
<td>39,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance ((S^2))</td>
<td>15,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class ((k))</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Interval ((i))</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After knowing the class interval, the data are taken from the interval and put on the table of frequency distribution, as follow:

### Table 4.2 frequency Distribution of Y Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Interval LLC- ULC</th>
<th>Class Boundaries</th>
<th>Frequensi Absolut ((fi))</th>
<th>Relative Frequency (fr (%))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>30-37</td>
<td>29,5-37,5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5,88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>38-45</td>
<td>37,5-45,5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5,88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>46-53</td>
<td>45,5-56,5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15,69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>54-61</td>
<td>56,5-61,5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>62-69</td>
<td>61,5-69,5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>70-77</td>
<td>69,5-77,5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21,57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>78-85</td>
<td>77,5-85,5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3,92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table distribution frequency above, it can be known that the highest range score of the eleventh grade students at SMK Tiara Aksara in recount writing are 80-86 with consisted of 3 students with frequency relative 5,88 %. and the lowest range score is 38-44 with consisted of 1 student with frequency relative 1,96 %.
b. Central Tendency

Central Tendency of the research is using the statistical techniques; mean, median and mode

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>( \bar{X} )</td>
<td>61.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>63.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>Mo</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table above, the result of the central tendency of the Y variable is mean is 61.89, the median is 63.82, and the mode is 75.5.

c. Dispersion

The dispersion of the data is the process to know the group of variances by calculating range, deviation standard, and variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Range</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>39.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>( S^2 )</td>
<td>15.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table above, the result of the dispersion of the Y variable is range is 53, the standard deviation is 39.55, and the variance is 15.64.

Learning Style

The instrument for learning style is a questionnaire, this questionnaire consists of 24 statements, there are three choices and the researcher give points for each statement. They are often = 5 points, sometime = 3 points and seldom = 1 point. Moreover, the result for descriptive statistics of learning style is given below.

After knowing the class interval, the data are taken from the interval and put on the table of frequency distribution, as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics (Y)</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (( \bar{x} ))</td>
<td>74.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median (( Me ))</td>
<td>74.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table distribution frequency above, it can be known that the highest range score of the eleventh-grade students at SMK Tiara Aksara in narrative writing is 80-86 with consisted of 3 students with frequency relative 5.88%. and the lowest range score is 38-44 with consisted of 1 student with frequency relative 1.96%.

b. Central Tendency

Central Tendency of the research is used the statistical techniques; mean, median and mode.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>$\bar{X}$</td>
<td>74.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Me</td>
<td>74.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>Mo</td>
<td>75.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the table above, the result of the central tendency of Y variable mean is 74.93, the median is 74.72, and the mode is 75.28.

c. Dispersion

The dispersion of the data is the process to know the group of variances by calculating range, standard deviation, and variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Range</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Sd</td>
<td>10.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>$S^2$</td>
<td>111.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table above, the result of the dispersion of Y variable are range is 52, the standard deviation is 10.56, and the variance is 111.51.

Hypotheses Test

Hypotheses test has two formulations; there is an analysis of parametric statistics and analysis of non-parametric statistics. Analysis parametric statistics can be used if data are normally distributed and homogeneous. Based on the normal and homogeneity calculations above, it showed that both of the data were not normally distributed and no homogeneous. Therefore, the researcher uses the analysis of non-parametric statistics.

Non-parametric statistics formula used to calculate the hypotheses test is Kendall Tau coefficient correlation to find the correlation between students’ learning style as an independent variable and Writing test as the dependent variable. Based on the criterion of Tau is if $Z$ count $> Z$ table, thus accept $H_1$ and reject $H_0$. There is correlation variable $X$ and $Y$ significantly, the result can be seen in the table or see appendix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zcount</th>
<th>0.35</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ztable</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>There is not correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table of calculation with significant 0,05 above shows that Z count < Z table. Thus H0 is accepted and Hi is rejected, it means that there is no correlation between students’ learning style and writing skill.

The finding contradicts and refuses based on the theory that students’ learning style has a relationship with students’ writing skill. As known from the theory, according to Nunan (2003) writing is a physical and mental act. It’s about discovering ideas, thinking about how to communicate, develop them statements and paragraphs that will be comprehensible to a reader. Based on the theory, the first step to write is students must use they’re not only physical but also mental to put their statements and develop their writing. Thus, we can make a conclusion why students’ learning style does not have a relationship with students’ writing skill as learning style do not have any effect to students’ writing skill at SMK Tiara Aksara but it will be different effect and result in other schools.

Based on the explanation above, the researcher could be summarized that learning style does not have any effect on students’ writing at SMK Tiara Aksara but it will be a different result in another school. So, the students at SMK Tiara Aksara must improve their writing with practice and increase their vocabulary, grammar and also pay attention when the teacher teaches them, especially in teaching writing.

**Conclusion**

A researcher explained that the objective of this research is to know the positive correlation between the student’s learning style and writing recount text. After giving the test to the students, learning style is not the only one factor that student needs to master in writing but there are also other factors, they are internal and external factors, such as students interest on English, lack of vocabulary and grammar. Moreover, students also do not pay attention when the teacher explains, they are lazy and bored to learn English in the class. And there is no stimulus to make students interest to learn English, especially in writing. Based on the data described, the calculation result showed that the null hypothesis (H) was accepted H was rejected. It could be seen from the result obtained Kendall Tau Zcount (0,309) < Ztable (1,96). it means that there is no significant correlation between students’ learning styles and their writing skills.
References


Introducing English Learning Strategy as a Compulsory Subject: A Reflective Study at English Education Department in Regional Indonesia

Iwan Jazadi, IGA Widari

STKIP Paracendekia NW Sumbawa

Bio-Profiles:

Iwan Jazadi is assistant professor and Head of STKIP Paracendekia NW Sumbawa. He earned PhD in Education from the University of South Australia. His teaching and research include curriculum and materials development, English Language Teaching, and Applied Linguistics. He can be reached at iwanjazadi@gmail.com (Corresponding Author).

IGA Widari is assistant professor and Deputy Head for Finance at STKIP Paracendekia NW Sumbawa. She graduated from the Master of Instructional Technology at the University of PGRI Adi Buana Surabaya. Her teaching and research specialization includes the Foundations of Education, Learner Development, Teaching Profession, and Teaching Aids. She can be contacted at igawidari75@gmail.com.

Abstract

Successful learners always apply learning strategies. However, despite ample research and textbooks on this topic, learners and teacher trainees are not explicitly taught the strategic content. Thus, realising the importance of learner strategy training, “English Learning Strategies” had been introduced as one compulsory subject in the Bachelor of English education program of an advanced college in Indonesia. The research was joined by two lecturers and two classes with a total number of 40 students, focusing on the subject teaching implementation and the students’ reflective questions covering problems and strategies in learning English at school (year 7 to 12), and the strategies learnt from the subject that would be useful for learning in the future. The research applied a reflective method involving lecturers and students. The data were collected through the lecturers’ documentation and reflection, as well as the students’ end-of-semester reflective exam results. The data analysis was qualitative, that is by sorting out, categorising and interpreting the lecturers’ reflection and the students’
answers. The findings show that the majority of the students neither applied any strategy nor did they take any step to cope with their low achievement in the subject during their schooling. This is despite their reportedly high motivation and dream to succeed. The other finding is that more than half of the students were able to explain the strategies they had learnt from the subject that would be useful for them to overcome their expected difficulties.

**Keywords:** English learning strategies, curriculum renewal, learning motivation, learning achievement

**Introduction**

It is less debatable to argue that teaching English in Indonesia has been very complex and students’ mastery of the language is generally below expectation. At the beginning of the millennium, Madya (2002) contested that the highly centralized curriculum had been one main cause to the problem leading to her support to the government agenda to develop standards-based curricula to ensure the attainment of the students’ mastery of the language. In fact, some recent research shows that the central government’s changing of the curriculum several times including the standards or competency-based 2004 curriculum, 2006 educational unit-based curriculum, and the 2013 curriculum does not ensure the students’ mastery of the language. Sudarman and Chinokul (2018) measured the English vocabulary mastery size and level of their English Department students and found that they were only aware of 1,273 word-groups and were not familiar with 2,000 to 3,000 high frequency and academic words. The findings showed a low mastery of the supposedly intermediate students and thus recommended a need for further research on learning strategy instruction especially on vocabulary of the high frequency kinds. Sulistyo (2016, p. 2) observed that non-English Department students at his university and other universities in Indonesia and even in Southeast Asian countries “are categorized as less than good in spoken and written English proficiency”. Teaching English at school also shows a similar phenomenon. Syarifudin, Marbun, and Novita (2014) discovered that students at the end of a year of their junior high school learning of English were categorized as poor to average compared with the expected goal of the teaching materials. Thus, all these studies agree that more efforts need to be put to improve English teaching and learning in Indonesia.

Apart from the phenomena described above, it is strongly argued that learning English as a second or foreign language successfully cannot be separated from the use of particular strategies especially on the part of the learners. Successful students generally have a list of
learning strategies that they may have studied earlier or adapted from other learning contexts (Takac, 2008, p. 148). Students apply learning strategies for them to succeed in learning. In fact, different students choose different strategies in learning and several strategies appear to be practiced more by good language students. For example, Hashim, Yunus, and Hashim (2018, p. 39) found that although all respondents in their research tended to use cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies in their language learning, they applied different strategies for different language skills they focused on. Moreover, Nosidlak (2013, p. 660) discovered that high-level students implemented similar types of learning strategies which they have learnt to be the most effective ones in their paths of learning. Thus, these studies that students need to be familiar with a plethora of learning strategies from which they may choose the ones suiting them.

In connection with the failure issue discussed earlier, it is found out that the teaching of learning strategies has been generally unintentional and incidental depending on the teachers’ judgement, awareness, involvement and perception (Takac, 2008, p. 148). Chuin and Kaur (2015) discovered that students who do know much about learning strategies tend to develop negative perception that any learning strategy does not develop their language proficiency. In the case of Indonesia, learners at schools are not generally taught the strategic content, and English teacher trainees in education colleges are not either. Students classified as unsuccessful were found to apply a low-level memory strategy in their learning (Setiyadi, 2001). Our survey on curriculum of English Department in Indonesian universities available on the internet (e.g., those in the International University of Batam and Atmajaya Catholic University) show that learning strategies do not make up a subject in the curriculum.

Thus, realising the importance of learner strategies, in the academic year of 2018/2019 our institution introduced “English Learning Strategies” as one compulsory subject in the bachelor of English education program. The current research aims to report on the implementation of the semester-long subject teaching and reflect on the students’ problems or constraints encountered in learning English at school (year 7 to 12), the strategies they had taken, and the strategies they had learnt from the subject that would be useful for learning in the future.

**Review of Related Literature**

Research and writing on English learning strategies has been done for almost 40 years (Macaro, 2001, p. 18). The beginning of the research in the 1970s and 1980s on learner strategies mainly consists of efforts to investigate and identify a plethora of strategies applied
by students with a more focus on constructing a notion of a good language learner. Later research has been more specific on the areas of learning strategies such as memorization of vocabulary and students’ performance of certain tasks, and comparing between student groups (Macaro, 2001, p. 72). This section discusses the definitions and classifications of learning strategies, and a focus on metacognitive strategy as one making up learning strategy training. First, definitions of learning strategies have always been one of central issues discussed by scholars of learning strategies. For example, Takac (2008, p. 52), drawing from some 10 definitions, defined language learning strategies as “specific actions, behaviours, steps or techniques that learners use (often deliberately) to improve their progress in development of their competence in the target language”. One of the most recent references, Oxford (2017), drawing from 33 definitions, concludes second language learning strategies as:

- complex, dynamic thoughts and actions, selected and used by learners with some degree of consciousness in specific contexts in order to regulate multiple aspects of themselves (such as cognitive, emotional, and social) for the purpose of (a) accomplishing language tasks; (b) improving language performance or use; and/or (c) enhancing long-term proficiency.

She argues that such strategies are triggered psychologically and may also be realized as observable actions and behaviours. Learners may apply strategies in flexible ways, even mix and create their own strategies, to respond to their communication needs and the array of their personal and sociocultural contexts.

Takac (2008, pp. 53-54) observes that the classification of language learning strategies into cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective strategies appears to be the most dominantly used by scholars in language education (e.g., Cohen, 1998; O’Malley & Chamot, 1996; Williams & Burden, 2001). Cognitive strategies deal with thinking steps or actions that are used in studying, overcoming problems, which necessitate flexible application, analysis, and evaluation of study materials. Metacognitive strategies require learners to plan their learning, set their goals, think about the learning activities, control their performance and understanding, and evaluate their learning process and attainment. Social strategies involve working together with peers and the instructor in the target language. Affective strategies are to with students’ efforts to maintain their emotion, perseverance, and motivation so that they can enjoy and achieve success in their language learning.

Similar to the popular classification above, OECD (2010, pp. 79-82) classifies learning strategies into three: memorization, elaboration and control strategies. In memorization strategies, learners make an effort to memorize a new lesson so they can retrieve it, and to what
extent they can convert it to a long-term memory. In *elaboration strategies*, learners endeavour to comprehend a lesson by connecting it to another context or content in the other lessons or in the real world they are familiar with and envisage how the input may benefit them in coping with any problem in the real life. In *control strategies*, the learners plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning goals. These include sorting out which concept, skills or attitudinal aspects they have already mastered and focusing on what they still lack. Thus, the memorization and elaboration strategies are basically cognitive strategies, while the control strategies share the features of metacognitive strategies, as discussed by Takac (2008) above.

From a general educational perspective, Widari (2014) classifies learning strategies into mind-based strategies and observable action-based strategies. Mind-based strategies, also called cognitive strategies, occur in the mind and are defined as organized internal capacity that helps learners think, solve problems and make decisions. Such strategies are inductive in that learners learn to generalize based on facts or principles they have had and interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary in that the strategies apply to all subjects or types of learning. Such strategies constitute learners’ ability to control their interaction with their surroundings. For example, when reading an article, what is found may be facts, formulas, or a theory application; yet, the activities of encoding the information recorded in the mind and retrieve it for another purpose are cognitive or mind-based strategies. In addition, according to Widari (2014, p. 316), a mind-based strategy used by a student is affected by her or his cognitive style, which refers to the method of thinking or information processing or the method of using one’s abilities. Such a method may be *field-dependent*, that is triggered by the milieu or the external factors, or *field-independent*, that is driven by the willingness or force inside the learner (Nasution, 2000).

On the other hand, observable action-based strategies constitute observable actions or behaviour for accumulating new knowledge, showing the newly learnt knowledge for converting it as a long-term memory, and expressing it out orally or in writing. Collecting or accommodating new knowledge (information, data, facts, concepts, definitions, procedure, etc.) may be done through such strategies as underlining, notetaking, visual stimuli (reading, watching), aural stimuli (listening), and multipurpose strategies by reviewing materials, questioning and anticipating questions, imagining (visualization of a concept, event or principle), and mnemonics (using abbreviations and acronyms to trigger memory). Moreover, there are some strategies to transform newly learnt short-term knowledge into long term memory; those are outlining, chunking, summarizing, tabulating, and concept mapping. Finally, showing expressing mastered knowledge is done through mimicry, gestures, pictures, graphics, answering questions orally or in writing, giving a presentation or talk, and writing a
paper or book (Widari, 2014, pp. 317-320). Such knowledge expression depicts information enrichment; meaning development, deepening or enhancement; acceptance of new attitudes; gaining new appreciation; and working on something using the learnt knowledge (Suryadi, 2004).

From the perspective of strategy training, it is argued that any use of learning strategies should be part of the awareness of the learners as strategy users. That is, intentional learning strategy training requires increasing the awareness of the students’ own strategies, teaching them new strategies, and giving them chances to use, analyse, adapt and adopt new strategies. Students also need to be conversant with the goals of learning strategy training, by understanding the benefit and practicality of every learning strategy introduced and in the long run keeping a rich inventory of learning strategies for them to choose from. Mastering a repertoire of learning strategies contributes as properties of successful autonomous learners (Takac, 2008, p. 149).

Frăsineanu (2018, p. 118) argues that self-awareness or metacognition is useful for students to analyse their own intrinsic and extrinsic causes of their idleness, and their individualized implementation of particular resolutions, methods and instruments. Self-awareness includes such steps as making plans, activating, monitoring and modifying the results. He further suggests that any study need to discover efficient implementation formulas for use by students and teachers. In addition, Frăsineanu promotes the importance of teaching learners with their feeling of enjoyment and independence as such a feeling generates, compensates or develop their “bio-psycho-social functions”. Arkavazi and Nosratinia (2018, p. 1100) defines metacognition as including “self-regulation” and “locus of control” and reported that both factors have a direct connection with learners’ taking initiative to communicate or practice a target language. They suggest teachers, curriculum planners, and academics realize the importance of the pedagogical load of self-regulation and locus of control as without which EFL students will not make the effort to learn and master the target language. Research by Mistar (2015), Setiyadi (2001), Liu and Chang (2013), Farrokhi and Motlagh (2014), Chuin and Kaur (2015); shows that different levels of university students who succeeded learning English used metacognitive strategies a lot more than other strategies. The research results uncovered that learners obtained a high degree of independence as metacognitive strategies necessitate them to design their own plans for their study activities and assess their own progress. Mistar (2015) and Mistar and Umamah (2014) add that besides metacognitive strategies, the students used social strategies as a way to communicate and discuss their strategies. Thus, Mistar and Umamah (2014) recommend that to develop students’
oral productive skill, they need to be trained with such strategies as “self-improvement” (a part of metacognition), “interactional-maintenance” and “compensation” (parts of social strategies), in conjunction with memory or cognitive strategies. Farrokhi and Motlagh (2014) discovered that metacognitive strategies helped students develop their second language reading comprehension. Meanwhile, Setiyadi (2001) and Chuin and Kaur (2015) discovered that unsuccessful students only relied on low-level cognitive strategies in their learning of the target language.

From the perspective of materials development, it was discovered that a large number of language lessons and tasks provided in EFL textbooks focus on linguistic elements and fail to cater for students’ subjective properties or dispositions (Tomlinson, 2013). Thus, Arkavazi and Nosratinia (2018, p. 1101) emphasize the need for course-book designers to take into account students’ individual uniqueness including their “locus of control, self-regulation and willingness to communicate. This is done by the developers supplying relevant guides and materials for open-ended and balanced portion of group and individual activities and tasks. Moreover, it is argued that students’ cultural, economic, and social backgrounds affect how they learn and develop learning strategies. Culturally, for example, compared to those in the west, students in eastern countries tend to use fewer clarification strategies even though they still do not understand their lessons; another example, how different cultural groups appreciate written texts affect how each of their learners deal with reading strategies (Macaro, 2001, p. 30). Marcellino (2008) argues that English language teaching in Indonesia is very complex due to the cultural challenges of the country with more than 700 regional languages embedding students’ different values, customs, beliefs and political standpoints to the English as a foreign language. Economically, Mohseni and Rabiee (2014) found that students with better economic status have apply more successful strategies in learning. This finding implies that there is a need for providing specific time and effort to teach learning strategies to students with lower economic status. From a social perspective, Kamalizad and Samuel (2016) found that students’ different social settings of English as a second language in Malaysia and as a foreign language in Iran affected how often each of the groups applied learning strategies. It was discovered that students in Malaysia where English is a second language frequently used learning strategies such as writing reviews, summaries, reports, journals, emails and taking notes in English, while students in Iran where English is a foreign language rarely apply those strategies.

To sum up, the teaching or training of learning strategies plays a crucial role to accelerate students’ learning of a target language. Such training may include making the students aware of the learning strategies they have already used, which strategies have helped
and impeded them from success in the learning and introduced them with a repertoire of strategies with the contexts of their successful implementation. Such knowledge contributes to students’ increasing metacognition leading to the application of metacognitive strategies in learning; that is, the ability to plan, activate, check and evaluate their learning process and achievement.

Research Method

This research reports the preparation and implementation of a semester-long teaching of a newly introduced subject of English Learning Strategies at the English Department of an education college in a district or regency of Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia. The method used is reflective, that is “a self-critical, investigative process wherein teachers consider the effect of their pedagogical decisions on their situated practice with the aim of improving those practices” (Šarić & Šteh, 2017, p. 71). It is “a process of self-examination and self-evaluation in which effective educators regularly engage to improve their professional practices” (Shandomo, 2010, p. 103). Teacher reflection covers what he or she prepares before teaching, what he or she does in class, and a critical notetaking after teaching (p. 107). Thus, reflection for teachers enhances their teaching, their students’ learning and comprehension, and plays a key position in the their professional growth (Mathew, Mathew, & Peechattu, 2017).

The participants were the researchers who served as the lecturers and 40 English department students of two classes who joined the “English Learning Strategies” subject. They were categorically low in socioeconomic status (financial, human, and social capitals); many of them lived on subsidy, came from broken home families (divorced parents or one or more parents served as migrant manual workers overseas) or lived as orphans. It was discovered that students of such a background do not do well in school (OECD, 2010, p. 52) and it takes time for them to learn strategies. It is deemed crucial that language teachers instruct language learning strategies consciously to them (Mohseni & Rabiee, 2014).

The research location, a district or regency in West Nusa Tenggara Province, a regional Indonesia, is categorised as less developed region, in terms of people income per capita (Ripai, Jazadi, & Mahyuni, 2019, p. 126). The district is relatively small with population of 445 thousand people, 95% rural areas, and 7 community-run universities and colleges, most of which just operated within the last two decades. It is observed that most senior high graduates with good academic achievement from better-off families generally continue their studies to big cities in Java or the provincial capital of Mataram. On the other hand, many of those
attending higher education inside the regency tend to show lower motivation and interest to study. This is the case with the students under study.

Data were collected through the lecturers’ documentation and the students’ end-of-semester reflective exam results. The lecturers’ documentation was used to describe the preparation and execution of the subject instruction. The students’ reflective exam results consisted of four reflective open questions referring to period before they joined the subject (their junior and senior high school and for some students also the first year of the college study) and the period of joining the class through which they consciously learnt new learning strategies, and the future period in which they projected to apply many of their newly learned strategies.

Data were analysed qualitatively by reporting the relevant researchers’ reflection and categorising the students’ answers based on each question and emerging themes, and implications of the findings would include recommendation for the subject possible rearrangement or for the students, lecturers, and the institution to act upon (Arkavazi & Nosratinia, 2018, p. 1101).

Findings and Discussion

The design and implementation of the “English Learning Strategies” teaching

The lecturers generated such objectives for teaching the subject of English Learning Strategies: (1) identify and evaluate their own existing English learning styles, strategies and preferences, (2) understand and apply new learning strategies that suit their personalities and needs, and (3) develop self-confidence and motivation to communicate in English. As this was a new subject, the lecturers had not developed a specific module and so searched textbooks that suited the students’ level. The decision was that books by Brown (2002) Strategies for success: a practical guide to learning English as the main reference, and Jazadi (2009) A son of a cart driver earned PhD: A true story on motivation and learning strategies and Lengefeld (1994) Study skill strategies accelerate your learning as additional references. The subject had 2 credits (100 minutes) a week for a semester (18 meetings) and was delivered through home reading assignment, questionnaire survey, discussion, and student presentation. The first meeting was used for introducing the new subject (the objectives, materials, methods of delivery and evaluation) and introduced the students the first set of strategies, that is, time management and notetaking techniques based two chapters in Lengefeld (1994). This set of practical strategies would be practically needed by the students in their day to day studies and attending class.
All 14 chapters by Brown (2002) were used, namely: understanding your type as a learner, discovering your learning styles, left brain and right brain, motivation and goals, confidence and anxiety, taking risks in learning, language learning IQ, native language influence, learning a second culture, individual learning strategies, group learning strategies, and test taking strategies. The book was written to empower learners and lecturers in the learning process and provides guidance for the learners to realize their learning dispositions and develop successful learning strategies. Each chapter was equipped with a questionnaire for the students to reflect and engage themselves, a short text for explanation and discussion, and an exercise for the students to practice language skills while developing learning strategies. For the first seven chapters, the techniques of teaching and learning were students’ home reading before teaching of each chapter, then activities in the classroom included the lecturers’ leading the presentation of the chapter text and questionnaire, students doing the questionnaire in class, lecturers leading the discussion of the questionnaire results and some important points from the rest of the chapter. It was inevitable that the instruction was done bilingually in English and Indonesian to be able to meet the mood and the level of the students. In the first half of the semester, the lecturers intentionally took a leading role in material delivery to help the students get used to the kinds of topics and understand essential concepts in them. On the other hand, in the second half of the semester, the leadership role in classroom activities was given to the students by dividing them into seven groups to cover the seven chapters. Each group consisted of 3 or 4 students and each student got a third or fourth of the presentation materials. The method of the delivery followed that of the lecturers’ before. In the second half of the semester, the lecturers facilitated and commented when necessary or at the end of the session.

The book by Jazadi (2009) is an autobiography on motivation and learning strategies covering all the author’s formal study levels from elementary school up to university doctoral studies in Australia. The author had achieved the best student status and high achieving student scholarships in all of his education stages including completing the PhD studies in an Australian university at the age of 30 despite his low income family background, one indicator of which was his father occupation as a cart driver. The success was attained through hard work, motivation, and learning strategies that he shared in the book. Sharing the same life trajectories with this author, each of the students enthusiastically spent home time reading the content of the book and presented in a 100-minute classroom session a 4-minute oral memorable summary and impression especially of Chapter 5 about the author’s undergraduate studies in English Language Teaching in a university in West Nusa Tenggara. In addition to learning English
learning strategies, they were charged with sharing on learning motivation and converting hard life to success.

**Students’ Reflection**

In the last session of the class, the students were given the following questions to reflect and explain: (1) What problems or constraints did you encounter in learning English at school (years 7 to 12)? Please explain; (2) What strategies had you taken to overcome the learning problems? Please explain; (3) What learning strategies have you learnt in this subject? Please explain.

*Question-1. Problems found in learning English at school (N=40)†*

The students faced a lot of difficulties in learning English during their schooling or pre-university studies. The difficulties are categorized as subjective factors, language skills and language areas.

![Figure 1. Subjective factors](image.png)

As shown in Figure 1, there are three subjective factors that contributed to the students’ difficulties. First, 20 (50%) students acknowledged that they were afraid or shy to practice or express themselves especially for speaking in English. They were afraid that they would make mistakes or errors in their pronunciation and choices of words. They were afraid that people would laugh at them and think that they were stupid students if they performed with mistakes or errors. Second, 14 (35%) students mentioned that laziness or the absence of interest in English subject. They did not find the value of learning English and if they found that English was useful, they gave up before they tried due the complex difficulty of English, for example related to the difficulty in pronunciation, the consistency of spelling and pronunciation, and the unlimited grammatical rules. Finally, 18 (45%) students found their English teachers as the

---

† The students provided as many relevant comments or answers as possible and so the number of comments outnumbered the students in many cases and in some other cases the comments were fewer.
source of the difficulties. They described their teachers as, for example, “their explanation can’t be understood”, and “come to class and do not teach, just ask the students to do exercises in the book or worksheets”.

![Figure 2. Language skills](image)

As shown in Figure 2, in terms of language, 20 (50%) students acknowledged speaking a difficult skill. They felt that speaking was the first and most important language skill to master. However, in their effort to practice speaking, they found a lot of difficulties as of the pronunciation, words and grammar. Although they acknowledged that they prepared themselves before practicing speaking, they had always found it difficult to express their mind in English. On the other hand, fewer than 25% students mentioned the other skills (listening, reading, and writing) as posing difficulties. The fact that fewer students did not see these skills less challenging is because for communicative purpose, they did not pay more attention to these skills compared with that of speaking skill.

![Figure 3. Language areas](image)
As shown in Figure 3, in terms of language areas, 19 (47.5%) students mentioned vocabulary as causing difficulty in their language learning, almost doubling their mention of structure (10 or 25% students) and tripling pronunciation (7 or 17.5% students). When the students tried to express themselves either in speaking or writing, the first thing in their mind was what words to use to convey their message and in many cases they had to work hard and often failed to find the correct words. Structure or grammatical rules were important but did not concern the students. In their opinion, as long as the message got across, they did not care about the grammar and pronunciation or spelling that might be still wrong.

Question-2 Students strategies to develop their English at school (N = 40)

![Bar chart showing students' strategies](image)

**Figure 4. Students’ strategies**

As shown in Figure 4, fewer students developed particular strategies to overcome their learning difficulties, that is, by listening to music or audio (13 or 32.5%), asking questions and modelling their teachers (10 or 25%), watching movies (8 or 20%), attending extra course or lessons (7 or 17.5%), working together and practicing English together with friends (5 or 12.5%), using internet or Youtube channel and practicing English with tourists or foreigners (4 or 10%), and watching and listening to radio (3 or 7.5%). Listening to music or audio had been more popular among students either before or after the availability of audio facilities in modern gadget or smartphones and laptops. Before the smartphone era, students used audio players in their home or using small portable players, while since the smartphone era, the facilities have been integrated in the gadget. This explains why more students preferred listening to music or audio to other strategies for developing their English. Some students had asked their teachers and modelled their teachers and considered doing so as a learning strategy because they found
their teachers (mostly in at the senior high school level) to have good English and easy to make friends not only in the classroom, but also outside. The teachers also often gave them motivation and shared their experiences dealing with problems in learning English. A few students also mentioned watching movies as a language learning strategies. Many of the students did watch movies. Yet only the few found it as source of learning, while the others watched movies for entertainment only. Learning with or from friends, practicing with native speakers and subscribing English lessons on Youtube channel were applied by few active students during schooling period. On the hand, watching television and listening to radio were least preferred as sources of learning by the students as they had tended to move their spare time use to smartphones and laptop. Since the last decade, television set has been less watched though still feature as an entertainment property, while physically separate radio sets have not been known much by students or children nowadays.

Question-3: Benefits of the subject “English Learning Strategies”

From the students’ answers or comments to question 3, all of them were admitted that they had never been taught explicitly about English learning strategies in their previous formal education. They did not have any knowledge or memory of when their teachers taught them a topic related to learning strategy. They did not realize either if there was such a topic in the schoolbook. Yet, some of them were aware if their teachers once gave them motivation and shared their experiences that entailed English learning strategies. Some students developed learning strategies as ways for them to cope with difficulties. They did it because they wanted to try if the strategies would help them, not because they were told to do so.

Some of the strategies learned by the students in the English Learning Strategies subject confirmed the strategies the students already did successfully (e.g. subscribing English lessons on the internet, practicing English with friends and tourists, listening to music and watching English movies). By studying the subject, the students also realized why some strategies the applied during the schooling were less successful. For example, some students acknowledged although they had attended many English courses outside the school time, they still found them less successful in learning English. After studying the subject of learning strategies, they realized that the key to success lied with students’ intrinsic motivation and willingness to practice, not simply by having a certificate of completion in the English course or just relying the English practices during the course and no follow-up practices on the students’ initiatives. Almost all (37 or 92.5%) of student participants found the materials in the “English Learning Strategies” amazingly useful. They found the subject materials developed their self-concept by understanding their weaknesses, strengths, and the types of learners they were. The subject
exposed them to a plethora of practical English learning strategies from which they could select the ones suitable with their types and the different contexts they were in to be able to learn a foreign language. The students were fully aware of the importance of metacognition or planning a strategy before doing something. The students had learnt so many strategies with all their feelings, emotions, and even cries when they studied the educational autobiographic chapter of the author who came from a low income family, but had successfully achieved the highest education (PhD) in ELT overseas. However, about 3 (7.5%) students failed to acknowledge any benefit of the subject due to their occasional absences in class, not making effort to do home reading of the materials, and tendency to avoid participation in class even if they were appointed in person by the lecturer or their friend to contribute.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

The research concluded that students in regional Indonesia did encounter a lot of problems in learning English, yet most of them did not take any strategy to cope with the difficulties. On the other hand, explicit learning strategy training through the “English Learning Strategy” subject did increase students’ awareness of their own accidentally found strategies and expose them to more choices of strategies from which they may choose the ones suitable with their types as learners and the contexts they are in. In addition, English learning strategy teaching materials used in the subject accommodated and digged up the needs, interest, and contexts of the learners.

The research findings are expected to shed light on the importance of bringing “learning how to learn” into the mainstream of curriculum and teaching materials. Thus, there are some pedagogical implications of this research. First, any English department in regional Indonesia and beyond with students of similar characteristics should offer the “English Learning Strategies” 2-credit subject to lay a strong foundation for students’ learning strategy development. Second, it is recommended that learning strategy training be integrated into each of other subjects in the English department as the learning strategies would match the specific contexts of the different subjects. Each semester plan or syllabus or each subject should integrate relevant strategies for fostering student independent learning. Finally, learning strategies should also be integrated as a small element in the teaching of English at school, non-English departments in the university, and nonformal English courses.

However, it is acknowledged that the research had involved a relatively small number of participants and might not be meant to be generalized for any other context. Therefore, further in-depth qualitative and quantitative studies would be needed especially in the context
of regional Indonesia or similar contexts whereby most of the students are from disadvantaged categories.

References


65


Machinery Learning – Implication of Blended Learning for Higher Education students in down south India

Dr. C. Gangalakshmi
MEPCO Schlenk Engineering College,
Sivakasi, TamilNadu, India

Dr. R. Naganathan
Sethu Institute of Technology
Kariapatti, TamilNadu, India

Bio-Profiles:
Dr. C. Gangalakshmi, working as the Senior Assistant Professor of English, MEPCO Schlenk Engineering College, Sivakasi, Tamilnadu, India, has got around 11 years of teaching experience and has published papers in Scopus-indexed journals and other international journals too. She has published in 38 journals, 10 chapters in books and has authored one book. Further, she has to her credit around 37 presentations in National and International Seminars. She has completed BEC Higher exam at C1 Level.

Dr. R. Naganathan, worked as the Associate Professor of English, Sethu Institute of Technology Kariapatti, TamilNadu, India has got around 13 years of teaching experience and has published papers in Scopus indexed journals and other international journals too. He has expertise in ELT with the primary focus on Reading enhancement. He has participated in various Workshops, Seminars and Conferences.

Abstract
Blended learning represents a combination of face-to-face delivery and computer-mediated delivery. Further, it effectively contributes to the development of students to have better understanding of subjects. As per the psychological research, listening to any subject content is constant only for 20 min. Then a digression is unavoidable. This research paper attempts to develop the English listening skill of the students considering this constraint. This
Research paper provides a forum for the students to enhance their listening in English, using the tools available in blended learning, so as to equip them with standard comprehensive skills. This paper has the blended learning as a prototype and further stereotype is generated for the ESL students, especially higher education students in down south India, to equip them with good listening skills and to answer effectively the listening modules of the native speakers and to comprehend any listening audio with native accent without difficulty. This paper proves that the students achieve good results in listening when they are offered a blended learning forum. Instead of tightened class schedule the freedom of working using blended learning provides a different learning perspective especially in listening.

**Keywords:** Blended learning, vocabulary, listening, online, face-face

**Introduction**

Traditional learning practices are not able to withstand the power of cutting edge technology. However, traditional style of teaching is diluted with the ground-breaking online teaching forms. In India, traditional way of learning has a long history. The kids of the Kings and Lords in ancient India went to learn Vedas and Upanishads from Teachers (Gurus) and they stayed and learnt all those from them under the name “Gurukulam”. Following that tradition, the teaching took another stance of cementing the minds of the Prince and Princess with Vedic principles, with the gurus coming to the palace and teaching them. Upon civilization, schools emerged in India, where only aristocratic persons could learn. Then following the unity in diversity, downtrodden students too got an opportunity to learn. Still the introduction of the computer, the cultural plurality prohibited the poor from accessing the rich source of knowledge. Now, overcoming all these oddities, the [Digital India](https://digitalindia.gov.in/) campaign has given provision for all the people to learn by going to school as well as through online.

In India, in rural down south Tamilnadu, the schools do not have many technology-enabled classrooms. They follow the chalk and talk method which is highly a traditional one. Though the schools lack provisions, the students are really good enough in accessing the internet using PC, laptop or mobile phones. However, there are two different ways in the usage of gadgets. Either, it could be used for academic purposes or it could mislead the students in their teens. Irrespective of all these, the students could be monitored while using technology for learning. Starting from [gurukulam](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gurukula) in India to computer and mobile usage nowadays in classrooms has invited a lot of modifications in the curriculum and learning styles.
In another stance, learning English is a nightmare for the students from rural background especially in Tamilnadu. In such cases, the students opting for higher Education in professional streams find themselves to be in wilderness while confronting an English speaking environment. As the professional college has a heterogeneous group, the toughest challenge for the English teachers is to address the highest and the lowest language proficiency students inside a single classroom. In all, the students with good language communication feel bored and will disturb the class, if they are not catered. Similarly, students with least proficiency will get bewildered at the second language only environment. Hence an optimized solution has to be arrived at taking into consideration the threshold limitation of both the ends. The objective of the teaching is to make both the ends meet. Hence an idealized environment is created on the basis of the usage of technology and face-face learning methodology which is universally acclaimed as blended learning.

Blended learning contributes effectively to the development of students to have better understanding of subjects. Listening for any student is stagnant only 20 min as far as the psychological research zone is concerned. In this context, this research paper provides a forum for the students to enhance their listening so as to equip them with comprehensive skills using the tools in blended learning. This paper has the blended learning as a prototype and further stereotype is generated for the ESL students, especially higher education students in down south India, to equip them with good learning skills and to answer effectively the listening modules of the native speakers as well as to comprehend any listening audio with native accent without difficulty.

The objective of learning is to develop an online as well as face-face forum to enhance students’ communication. The primary objective is the enhancement of listening skills thereby making the students familiarized with the foreign accent. To achieve the objective, the researchers have set the following hypothesis.

**Literature Survey**

Alpala et al. state that, “benefit that a Blended Course provides is the technological literacy students get through the use of virtual resources. Likewise, they can explore their topics in depth, look for information in English on the Internet, and reinforce their learning process through websites related to EFL learning with a wide range of exercises.” (166). Sarka et al. state that “Blended learning used in a foreign language teaching is an example of a very progressive and useful way.” (285). Bilgin states, “teaching English blending face-to-face teaching with an online LMS can be beneficial over solely in-class teaching, by providing an
extensive range of authentic materials as well as a more learner-centred medium of instruction, which can complement classroom-based activities. Similarly so many research works have been attempted on m-learning, apps usage and other forms of ICT usage in the classroom. This research is unique as it focuses on the untouched component of English Learning, with reference to listening, in the digital world. Much more input needs to be given for this receptive skill as it is the base for language acquisition among an ESL student. Hence the researchers have identified this gap which needs to be addressed with a suitable app or a tool in order to develop the language communicating ability among the ESL Students.

Need of the study

The students of engineering need to focus on the listening aspects of English language for securing placement. They need to comprehend what the other end says. Further, the listening to the native accent needs to be improved for better understanding of lessons. In all, when they opt for online courses, this listening skill plays a vital role. To understand the students’ mind set towards listening, a questionnaire on listening was designed by the researcher and it was validated by senior members. It was given with 5 point rating on listening. (Rating 5-Strongly Agree 4- Agree 3- Neutral 2- Average 1- Below Average)

The questionnaire is as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I like listening to English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I feel confident when listening to English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Listening to English is interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>You can understand the content and tone/pitch of the speaker</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>You presume the answers while listening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>You need to listen to the audio twice for every module</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>You are able to listen for the forty minutes continuously</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>You can answer the questions simultaneously while listening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Online listening test is easy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Your listening capacity is good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1

The results of the survey are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question No.</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Below Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2

From the survey, it is obvious that the students who opt for English language listening is very minimum and the number of interested students is plummeted. Further, the understanding level of accent of the speaker is also considerable low. In addition they need to listen to the audio twice for better results. Very minimum number of students agree with the listening modules continuously for forty minutes and in all, they feel relatively difficult to listen and answer the questions simultaneously. As a whole, students’ average listening comprehension level is moderate. Taking into account, the survey results, the researchers planned to device strategies for doing the listening task. As the students were in dire need of enhancing the listening skills blended learning methodology was adopted.

**Challenge for the Researchers**

- The students find difficult to listen for a long period of time.
- They have very minimum interest in listening.
- They are unable to comprehend the audio content.
- They have to access the gadgets.

The researchers analyzed the issues of the students and they identified new system of doing the tasks. They created interest among the students by using blended learning. They were
advised not to presume the answers and in addition they were given with three sets of IELTS online listening tests for learning the same.

**Research Hypothesis**

There is a significant improvement in the listening skill of the students after using blended learning.

**Null Hypothesis**

There is no significant improvement in the listening skill of the students after using blended learning.

**Tool Used**

The researchers have utilized an online IELTS listening tasks as the practicing material. In the website https://www.ieltsbuddy.com/ielts-listening-test.html, three sets of listening tasks are available. Each set has four sections. Audio is enabled online and the students can take up the tasks as many times as possible. They can check the answers. They have to practice all the sections in all the three tasks. In this method, the students were motivated to take up the tests to move on to the next sections. These tasks rather improve the listening skill of the students as they are able to get familiarized with English language listening.

**Methodology adopted**

One section of students with 63 was selected for the study. The students were given with a question paper comprised of listening modules with 40 questions. The students were given B2 CEFR level questions taken from the following websites to identify their level of competency.

- [https://www.examenglish.com/B2/b2_listening_leisure.htm](https://www.examenglish.com/B2/b2_listening_leisure.htm)
- [https://www.examenglish.com/B2/b2_listening_tourism.htm](https://www.examenglish.com/B2/b2_listening_tourism.htm)
- [https://www.examenglish.com/B2/b2_listening_health.htm](https://www.examenglish.com/B2/b2_listening_health.htm)
The students were provided with individual head sets and the audios were played for those questions. The scores attained by the students are given in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>0-10</th>
<th>11-20</th>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B2 Pre-Test</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

As the students are highly interested in the usage of computers for language learning, the researcher has made use of the sections available in the Online IELTS listening test practice, a comprehensive web-based learning and assessment system which is highly developed with the objective of building students’ language skills and subject knowledge. This module is given as a study tool for all the students. In the usage of this the students are individualized with self-paced learning style. It is a system of blended learning solution which offers effective web and computer-based learning forum which is further characterized with Effective Knowledge building and management, Immersive self-learning experiences, Meaningful assessments for better learning outcomes, Closing the gap in learner abilities.

Such a tool is used to for testing purpose both inside the classroom as well as outside. While using, the students completed identify their level of listening. They proceeded to use the tool thenceforth. The students were instructed to use the tool anywhere using their laptop or mobile. Further, they could contact the teacher for assistance. In addition, the students were informed to use the audio as many times as possible. Further, the students were motivated to use headsets to avoid digression. The students were motivated to use exercises available in the tasks, for getting promoted to the next sections. The students were interested to listen to various audio tasks and started to answer the questions available in the same. This web tool is used as a student-centric one which motivates them to take up the tasks at their leisure hours. The tool is used as a medium for language learning. Similarly, listening app like English Listening Step by Step – IELTS Listening could also be used. The objective of the research is to make the technology enabled learning forum for enhancement of listening.

The students can take up online mode. In addition, they can do at their own convenient timings. This requires gadgets and headsets. After completing three sets of tasks with a minimum of 12 tasks the students were given with a B2 level of question with 40 questions once again. The questions were taken from the following websites.

The scores attained in each test are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>0-10</th>
<th>11-20</th>
<th>21-30</th>
<th>31-40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B2 Pre-Test</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2-Post-Test</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
The percentages of students who have secured marks are analyzed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>in 0-10</th>
<th>in 11-20</th>
<th>in 21-30</th>
<th>in 31-40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2 Pre-Test</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2-Post-Test</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5
From the results it is obvious that the students who have scored between 31 and 40 have risen from 0 to 22. Similarly the students who have secured between 21 and 30 have considerably risen from 13-30. Positively, the students who secured between 11 and 20 have reasonably got reduced from 54-35. In addition, the students who secured between 0 and 10 have got reduced from 33-13. From the scores, it is very clear that the results have demonstrated a degree of development in the listening skills among the students.

A questionnaire given to analyze the usage of blended learning is highlighted below. They were asked to rate in 5 point scale.

Questionnaire on Blended Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Online learning is a useful learning method</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Tasks were quiet interesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. More confident to answer questions on listening
4. I can take up any online listening test to test my proficiency
5. I am able to apply the knowledge gained on other relevant tasks
6. Sufficient resources are available in this blended learning
7. I would like to take these like blended learning
8. I am highly satisfied with the usage of blended learning
9. Online and face to face class work enhance each other
10. Blended Learning provides a greater range of opportunities to explore, discuss and work together using online or offline resources
11. Blended Learning helps to meet the needs of diversified students’ from various academic, social and cultural backgrounds
12. Blended Learning helps to manage my time better.
13. The online components effectively helped me to use what I learnt in the face-to-face sessions
14. The face-to-face sessions effectively helped me to use what I learnt using the online components
15. This blended learning is user-friendly

Table 6
The results for the above questionnaire were taken.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>5 – Strongly Agree</th>
<th>4 – Agree</th>
<th>3 – Neutral</th>
<th>2 - Disagree</th>
<th>1 – Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the survey, it is clear that the scores secured in each of the questions represent the effectiveness in the usage of the blended learning. For the modern generation if learning is done with the usage of machinery and in blended style it reaches them very easily. The interest created in them will be high. In all, an overview of the usage of the gadgets will encourage the youngsters to have active participation in and out of the classroom.

**Limitations of the study**

The following are the limitations which every teacher comes across while using machinery learning in a blended forum. It needs good internet connectivity for doing the tasks. Further, gadgets are highly needed. The students will have the provision of misusing the learning materials to answer the questions. They type the answers in random and submit them to get answers. The teacher has to be aware of the students’ misusage and has to be vigilant over it.

**Positives of the study**

Students are able to access freely the sections anytime, anywhere. No forced environment was created. Self-motivation helped them to develop themselves. Impact of
technology has given a powerful upliftment in their listening skill. The students begin to have a liking towards listening.

**Conclusion**

From the research paper, we can arrive at a conclusion that teacher for younger generations has to change consistently the teaching style to retain their attention. A teacher with diehard practices could not come up with innovative strategies. Updated methods of teaching style has to be introduced in the schools and colleges. This research paper aiming at the usage of machinery in language acquisition proves the hypothesis that “There is a significant improvement in the listening skill of the students while using blended learning”. In addition, the tool used has helped the researchers to prove the hypothesis effectively. The tool used has many benefits to access the students’ scores. The objective of the study is to impart machinized learning among the students with the usage of any one of the tools available for language equipment. The core objective is to incorporate blended learning teaching style in curriculum. Effectively, the listening skill of the students has got considerably increased and they have created interest in listening. The pedagogy of using listening tasks at home for enhancing listening skills using any website or learning tools available in the internet and the sequential application of the equipped skill in an online test will make them to gain confidence to answer. The students must be assigned with the website link and they have to submit the same to the teachers as screen shorts for evaluation and monitoring. The enhancement has to be done at home and application has to be tested under supervision of the course teacher. This blended learning style enhances the students listening tendency. This research paper has proved that the blended learning style enhances the listening skill of the students by creating interest among them with the usage of a learning tool. The future researchers can work on the usage of the blended learning for the enhancement of other three skills – speaking, reading and writing. In addition, they could be informed to use the Google classroom platform as a discussion forum for the students to enhance interest among the members. Other applications like Padlet and Word Press could be used among the students in the classroom for better understanding of the concepts.
References


EFL Students’ Attitude on Mendeley-Based Instruction for Scientific Writing in Indonesian Higher Education

Andi Hudriati
Universitas Muslim Indonesia
andihudriati@yahoo.com

Rusdiah
Universitas Muslim Indonesia
rusdiah.salam@gmail.com

Muli Umiaty Noer
Universitas Muslim Indonesia
muliumiatynoer@yahoo.com

Muhammad Arham
Universitas Muslim Indonesia
muhammadarhambasri@gmail.com

Bio-profile:
Dra. Andi Hudriati, M.Hum. is a senior lecturer and a head of the school of English Literature, Universitas Muslim Indonesia. Her research concentrates on English language teaching and language policy.

Dr. Rusdiah, M.Hum. is a senior lecturer and a deputy Dean on academic affairs, Faculty of Language and Arts, Universitas Muslim Indonesia. Her research interest deals with the area of language teaching and literature.

Dra. Muli Umiaty Noer, M.Hum. is The Director of Foreign Language Academy, Universitas Muslim Indonesia. Her research deals with English language teaching and English Literature.
**Muhammad Arham, S.Pd.,M.Pd.** is a junior lecturer and journal manager as well as editor of an online ELT academic journal, from Universitas Muslim Indonesia. His study focuses on ELT, Multilingual Education, Curriculum Development and ICT in ELT.

**Abstract**

This paper reports a study on Mendeley-based instruction for scientific writing in Indonesian higher education. It particularly focuses on examining the students’ attitude on scientific writing through the use of Mendeley Reference Manager in their scientific writing classroom practices. The study employs a survey research utilizing Survey Monkey in collecting data in the defining process on how the 100 students perceive their academic writing and how they translate into their classroom writing practice using Mendeley-based instruction for their scientific writing classroom activities. The research result demonstrates that there were marked differences in the way the students view their academic writing using Mendeley-based instruction for their scientific writing classroom activities. From the students’ perspectives, there were three categories identified in the analysis: (1) Well Equipped Mendeley (WEM); (2) Fairly Equipped Mendeley (FEM); and (3) Lowly Equipped Mendeley (LEM). The WEM students tend to have a better academic writing in their study on scientific writing. The FEM students displayed their academic writing with some difficulties in their writing practices emerged from their academic writing. The LEM students, on the other hand, found it very challenging during their study in scientific writing classes. What is evident is that the more students are equipped with knowledge on Mendeley-based instruction, the better their academic writing performance is.

**Keywords:** Mendeley-based Instruction, Higher Education, Academic Writing

**Introduction**

Academic honesty comprises the fundamental aspect for enriching academic integrity. The continual uncertainty by teachers in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) country is that the lack of writing ability by the students in academic writing might lead them to academic dishonesty. A changing attitude appeared to be central to develop confidence and self-reliance in becoming literate in two languages (Basri, Garner, & Akil, 2018). Teachers may have taught academic writing skills and students may have passed the writing courses, but some students might remain poor in academic writing skills. Teachers expect to improve the students’ writing skills, but they continually apply the established rating to assess students’ writing project.
Hence, what teachers expect from their students is different from what the students might hope from their teachers.

The main objective of academic writing is to avoid academic dishonesty by developing the honor codes (McCabe & Trevino, 1993). Academic writing skill subjects entail students to engage in academic writing intensively. Students are not only projected to get ahead of writing project course and thesis writing, but they are also prepared to implement their academic writing skills in getting published in well-known national or international publications. The publications’ policy for students is supposed to facilitate further study or better career for students as well as for the reputation of their university. An increased expectation for the academic writing quality in the university level requires the writing honesty as the quality indicator that might lead the students to be aware of the issue of academic integrity.

Indonesian higher education experienced many failures in academic dishonesty due to inappropriate citation. There were many undergraduate theses that can prove students’ low consciousness to cite resources properly and supervisors’ poor mind-set on the consequence of inappropriate citation (Yugianingrum, 2008). This acute problem may have warned the students’ study completion. Therefore, teachers required to consider the appropriate citation demand in enriching the students’ academic integrity. There were many theses’ authors violated by the citation style convention, lack of citing skill, low supervisors’ awareness in directing the students to cite properly, and low universities’ control. This might exacerbate the academic dishonesty.

Universities in Indonesia have begun in an attempt to promote their profile by reducing any form of plagiarism as a move to an era of Internationalization (Abduh, Rosmaladewi, & Basri, 2018). However not all universities in Indonesia are committed to combat the academic dishonesty (Cahyono, 2009). Academic dishonesty in Indonesia stays alive as the consequence of students are required to follow the thesis format, but lack of the regulation to fight plagiarism (Octoberlina, 2009). However, this was responded by the Ministry of Education (Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, 2010) by issuing the Minister of National Education Regulation of the Republic of Indonesia on the effort of Plagiarism Prevention and Anticipation in Indonesian Higher Education. Indeed, this regulation is projected to deter plagiarism incidences in Indonesian Higher Education. However, misunderstandings on the culture and inconsistencies on the lecturers’ plagiarism understanding restrain the creative thinking of students as well as their academic writing skills (Adiningrum, 2011).

Thus, students are required to be accustomed to getting published under the supervision of lecturers to promote the culture of academic honesty in academic writing. This is in line with
the policy of the Directorate of Indonesian Higher Education that requires students to get published in a local journal for bachelor’s degree, national journal for master’s degree, and international journal for doctorate degree (DIKTI, 2012). However, the students’ uncertainty knowledge on academic dishonesty need more consideration on teaching and educating the students to paraphrase and quote properly to develop academic writing skills (Manalu, 2013). Ignoring paraphrasing, citing and quoting properly as fundamental skills in academic writing might lead students to be engaged in academic dishonesty.

The presence of Mendeley as the open source of reference and citation manager that can highlight the quoted sentences or paragraph and listing the automatic references at the end page of students’ writing is expected to lead students improve their academic writing skills. Introducing the use of Mendeley is also expected to avoid the incidences in academic writing that might trap the students in the issue of inappropriate citation and quotation (Patak & Akib, 2012, 2015). In addition, Mendeley is also a social network for author and researcher to share ideas scholarly and conduct research collaboratively (Patak & Akib, 2012). Finally, Mendeley software is just a tool that can help students to cite and quote properly, the academic honesty needs more serious attention by lecturers to supervise the students’ writing and provide meaningful feedback.

This study stems on the responses from students on the use Mendeley reference management software in academic writing. Hence, this study aims at exploring the attitude of university students on Mendeley-based instruction for scientific writing classroom practices.

Method

This study implemented survey research, which is projected to find data for determining the unambiguous group’s characteristics (Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). The researchers explored the responses from students on the use of Mendeley reference management software in academic writing. The survey research is often conducted to assess the perception of respondents in a specific or global scope. Nowadays survey research is commonly used by a variety of groups to find out the characteristics of respondents on a certain topic or issue.

The researchers made the statements on the survey based on the default features of Mendeley Reference Manager Software (Mendeley, 2015). The items in the survey were divided into six (6) categories that consists of (1) Reference Manager, (2) Red & Annotate, (3) Add & Organize, (4) Collaborate, (5) Backup, Sync, & Mobile, and (6) Network & Discover.
The survey was transferred to survey monkey (Patak, 2015). The survey was conducted in the period of the 21st of September to the 19th of November, 2017.

All the respondents in this study were students of Universitas Muslim Indonesia and are members of Indonesian Mendeley Community. There were 100 members filling out the online survey posted in a Facebook group of Indonesian Mendeley Community. The respondents were chosen due to the limitation of courses that required reference managers to be utilized. Hence 5 classes were chosen as a sample which was taken from 5 different majors each in “academic writing” course which acts as a compulsory course within the university.

The data in this study were analyzed based on the summary provided by the survey monkey. The researchers analyzed the data through categorical analysis. The researchers provided the description on respondents’ attitude based on six categories; (1) Reference Manager, (2) Red & Annotate, (3) Add & Organize, (4) Collaborate, (5) Backup, Sync, & Mobile, and (6) Network & Discover. The data analysis focused on the majority responses towards the level of difficulty for each item.

Results and Discussions

The analysis in this study was divided into six categories. These categories are (1) Reference Manager, (2) Red & Annotate, (3) Add & Organize, (4) Collaborate, (5) Backup, Sync, & Mobile, and (6) Network & Discover. The researchers provided the description of each item on each category in the following sections. After conducting the survey research on students’ perception towards Mendeley-based instruction in academic writing, the researchers analyzed the result based on the six categories.

Reference Manager

Figure 1 below indicated that there were 2 respondents skipped this category. This category consisted of 5 options. These options are quick and simple installation, citation styles for thousands of journals, create bibliographies instantly, flexible formatting, and collaborate on bibliographies.
Figure 1 above indicated that there were no respondents chose “very difficult” and “difficult”, 6 respondents chose “moderate”, 34 respondents chose “easy”, and 57 respondents chose “very easy” on option quick and simple installation. This was similar to option create bibliographies instantly in that there were no respondents who chose “very difficult” and “difficult”, 8 respondents chose “moderate”, 32 respondents chose “easy”, and 56 respondents chose “very easy”. There was no respondents chose “very difficult”, only 1 respondents chose “difficult”, 10 respondents chose “moderate”, 33 respondents chose “easy”, and 53 respondents chose “very easy” on citation styles for thousands of journals option. There was only 1 respondent chose “very difficult”, 5 respondents chose “difficult”, 23 respondents chose “moderate”, 34 respondents chose “easy”, and 33 respondents chose “very easy” on option of flexible formatting. There were no respondents who chose “very difficult”, 13 respondents chose “difficult”, 21 respondents chose “moderate”, 35 respondents chose “easy”, and 26 respondents chose “very easy” on collaborate on bibliographies option.
Read and Annotate

Figure 2 below indicated that 98 respondents gave responses. There were 2 respondents skipped this category. This category consisted of item save time navigating PDFs, annotate and highlight, share annotations with others, and save and print annotations.

![Graph showing the distribution of responses](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Very Difficult</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Easy</th>
<th>Very Easy</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Weighted Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Save time navigating PDFs</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>1.02%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>30.61%</td>
<td>61.22%</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annotate and highlight</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.13%</td>
<td>13.64%</td>
<td>29.17%</td>
<td>54.17%</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share annotations with others</td>
<td>2.08%</td>
<td>16.40%</td>
<td>19.59%</td>
<td>31.96%</td>
<td>29.00%</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save and print annotations</td>
<td>6.19%</td>
<td>7.22%</td>
<td>23.71%</td>
<td>35.85%</td>
<td>27.64%</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 above showed that there was no respondents chose “very difficult”, 1 respondents chose “difficult”, 7 respondents chose “moderate”, 30 respondents chose “easy”, and 60 respondents chose “very easy”. This is similar to item annotate and highlight that there was no respondents chose “very difficult”, while 3 respondents chose “difficult”, 13 respondents chose “moderate”, 28 respondents chose “easy”, and 52 respondents chose “very easy”. Interestingly, item share annotation with others and save and print annotation performed the same weighted average by 3.71. However, they were different from each level of difficulty. There were 2 respondents chose “very difficult”, 16 respondents chose “difficult”, 19 respondents chose “moderate”, 31 respondents chose “easy”, and 29 respondents chose “very easy” on item of share annotations with others. Save and print annotations performed higher number of respondents chose “very difficult”, 6 compared to 2 respondents on item of
share annotation with others, whereas less number of respondents chose “difficult” on *save and print annotations* compared to 16 respondents on *share annotation with others*. However, number of respondents chose “moderate” and “easy” were higher on save and print annotations, 23 and 34 compared to 19 and 31 respondents respectively, whereas less number of respondents chose “very easy” on *save and print annotations* compared to respondents on *share annotations with others* item.

**Add and Organize**

Figure 3 below performed that there were 98 respondents gave their responses, while 2 others skipped this category. This category consisted of items organized PDFs, easily sorted, comprehensive search, and intuitive navigation. The Figure 3 below showed that there were no respondents chose “very difficult” and “difficult” on organized PDFs and easily sorted item.

![Graph showing responses to Add & Organize](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Very Difficult</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Easy</th>
<th>Very Easy</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Weighted Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organized PDFs</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>8.16%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.61%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily sorted</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>5.19%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32.99%</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive search</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>3.09%</td>
<td>21.65%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.74%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intuitive navigation</td>
<td>4.03%</td>
<td>7.22%</td>
<td>27.84%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>38.18%</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Figure 3 above showed that only 1 item (intuitive navigation) was chosen by only 1 respondent. Item of *organized PDFs and easily sorted* showed the similarity that there was no respondents choosing “very difficult” and “difficult”; however, they selected “moderate”,

86
“easy”, and “very easy”. There were higher number of respondents choosing “moderate” and “very easy” on organized PDFs item, 8 and 60 respectively compared to 6 respondents choosing “moderate” and 59 “very easy” on easily sorted, while there were 32 respondents who chose “easy” on easily sorted item compared to 30 respondents choosing “easy” on organized PDFs item. The 3 respondents chose “difficult”, 21 “moderate”, 24 “easy”, and 49 students on “very easy” for comprehensive search, whereas 1 respondent chose “very difficult”, 7 respondents chose “difficult”, 27 chose “moderate”, 38 respondents chose “easy”, and 24 respondents chose “very easy” on item intuitive navigation.

Collaborate

Figure 4 below showed that there were 98 respondents gave their responses in this category meaning that 2 other respondents skipped it. This category consisted of team plans, share papers and collaborate, communication made easy, and all your ideas in real-time items.

![Collaborate Graph](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Difficult</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Easy</th>
<th>Very Easy</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Weighted Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team plans</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.16%</td>
<td>24.49%</td>
<td>37.76%</td>
<td>29.59%</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share papers and collaborate</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.31%</td>
<td>14.43%</td>
<td>26.62%</td>
<td>54.64%</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication made easy</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.19%</td>
<td>22.68%</td>
<td>22.68%</td>
<td>48.46%</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All your ideas in real-time</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>5.15%</td>
<td>30.80%</td>
<td>34.02%</td>
<td>23.71%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4 above showed that only 1 item (save all your ideas in real-time) was chosen by only 1 respondent. There were no respondents who chose “very difficult”, 8 respondents chose “difficult”, 24 respondents chose “moderate”, 37 respondents chose “easy”, and 29
respondents chose “very easy” on item team plans. Share papers and collaborate item showed that there was no respondents chose “very difficult”, 10 respondents chose “difficult”, 14 respondents chose “moderate”, 20 respondents chose “easy”, and 53 respondents chose “very easy”. Item communication made easy showed that there was no respondent who chose “very difficult”, 6 respondents chose “difficult”, 22 respondents “moderate” and “easy”, and 47 respondents chose “very easy”. Item of all your ideas in real-time showed that 1 respondent chose “very difficult”, 5 respondents chose “difficult”, 35 respondents chose “moderate”, 33 respondents chose “easy”, and 23 respondents chose “very easy”.

Backup, Sync, & Mobile

Figure 5 below showed that 96 respondents gave their responses from 100 total respondents. Thus, 4 respondents skipped this category. This category consisted of secure, synchronized and accessible, across multiple computers, on any operating system, on the web, and on iPhone/iPad (free!) items.
Figure 5 above showed that there was no respondent chose “very difficult” for all items. Item of secure synchronized and accessible showed that there were 2 respondents who chose “difficult”, 11 respondents chose “moderate”, 28 respondents chose “easy” and 55 respondents chose “very easy”. Across multiple computers showed that there were no respondents who chose “very difficult”, 1 respondent chose “difficult”, 10 respondents chose “moderate”, 24 respondents chose “easy”, and 60 respondents chose “very easy”. Items of on any operating system and on the web had similarities that there were no respondents chose “very difficult” and “difficult”, 14 respondents chose “moderate”, whereas 24 respondents chose “easy” on item of on any operating system compared to 25 respondents on item on the web and 53 respondents chose “very easy” on the item of on the web while 57 respondents chose item of on any operating system. There were no respondents who chose “very difficult” on the item of on iPhone/iPad (free!), 8 respondents chose “difficult”, 27 respondents chose “moderate”, 25 respondents chose “easy”, and 35 respondents chose “very easy”.

**Network and Discover**

Figure 6 below showed the same number of responses as the Figure 5 above. There were 96 respondents gave their responses meaning that 4 respondents skipped this category. The items in this category consisted of search millions of papers, public groups, build an online presence, and discover new collaborators.
Figure 6 above indicated that there were no respondents chose “very difficult” and “difficult” on item search millions of papers; the majority of the respondents (58 respondents) chose “very easy”, 30 respondents chose “easy”, and 8 respondents chose “moderate”. For item public groups, there were no respondents chose “very difficult”, 1 respondent chose “difficult”, 24 respondents chose “moderate”, 41 respondents chose “easy”, and 29 respondents chose “very easy”. Similar to item public groups, there were no respondents chose “very difficult” on item build on online presence and 24 respondents chose “moderate” on two other items, build an online presence and discover new collaborators. Figure 7 above showed that there were 9 respondents chose “difficult”, 34 respondents chose “easy”, and 27 respondents chose “very easy” on the item of build an online presence. For item discover new collaborators, there was 1 respondent chose “very difficult”, 10 respondents chose “difficult”, 22 respondent chose “easy”, and 38 respondents chose “very difficult”. From the 100 respondents as total number of participants in this study, there were 92 respondents completed all the items in all categorys as in Figure 6.

The data on Figure 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and Figure 6 showed that most of the respondents chose “easy” and “very easy” on all categories in the features of Mendeley based on the weighted average. Based on the weight of 1 for “very difficult”, 2 for “difficult”, 3 for “moderate”, 4 for “easy”, and 5 for “very easy”, the majority of the respondents’ weighted average were higher than 3.5 and almost 5 proved that the features of Mendeley were in a level of “easy” and “very easy” for the Indonesian students to employ in their academic writing. Indeed, the highest percentages of respondents’ choices were in a level of “very easy”.

The categories of Mendeley proved that the majority of respondents (58.76%) chose “very easy” on quick and simple installation item as in Figure 1. The category of read and annotate for item of save time navigating PDFs showed that 61.22% respondents chose “very easy” as in Figure 2. Similarly, category of add & organize, item of Organized PDFs as Figure
3 proved that 61.22% chose “very easy”. The category of collaborate for item share papers and collaborate showed that 54.64% chose “very easy” as in Figure 4. Back up, sync & mobile category for across multiple computers item showed that 63.16% respondents chose “very easy” as in Figure 5. Finally, there were 60.42% chose “very easy” on item of search millions of papers as in Figure 6 for the category of network & discover.

**Discussions**

In this section, it will present the data summary comprising the six default features of the MCM as in Table 1 below.

**Table 1. Data summary of the default features of MCM**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Default Features of MCM</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Weighted Average</th>
<th>Total Weighted Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reference Manager</td>
<td>Quick and Simple installation</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Citation styles for thousands of journals</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create bibliographies instantly</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flexible formatting</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collaborate on Bibliographies</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read &amp; Annotate</td>
<td>Save time navigating PDFs</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annotate and highlight</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Share annotations with others</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Save and print annotations</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Add &amp; Organize</td>
<td>Organized PDFs</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Easily sorted</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehensive search</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intuitive navigation</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborate</td>
<td>Team plans</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature</td>
<td>Weighted Average</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share papers and collaborate</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication made easy</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All your ideas in real-time</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure synchronized and accessible</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Across multiple computers</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On any operating system</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the web</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On iPhone/iPad (free!)</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search millions of papers</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public groups</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build an online presence</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discover new collaborators</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backup, sync &amp; mobile</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indonesian HE students faced no difficulties for the first category which consisted of five features in their scientific writing classroom activities. As seen from Table 1 which revealed total weighted average of 4.24. Despite that, findings revealed that two of the features namely flexible formatting and collaborate on bibliographies was a bit challenging for the HE students among other five items. This is due to students’ background with unfamiliarity of software collaborations and MCM software layouts. Nevertheless, students showed great enthusiasm when they started to cite using MCM in their writing practices.

As for the second category consisting of five items, the Indonesian students showed a small struggle using MCM in writing contrast to the first category. This was proven by the total weighted average of 4.07 shown in Table 1. The two distinct items which was considered more challenging in the second category were share annotations and print annotations.

Based on the results, the third category was considered much easier than the first and second category. To the Indonesian students, it was easier for them to use during their scientific writing classroom activities. It is shown from Table 1 that the total weighted average was 4.28.
And only intuitive navigation was revealed to be a bit difficult than the other four items within the third category.

From the data in Table 1, the fourth category was found to be the most challenging feature of the MCM during their study. This is evident from the total weighted average of 3.99 shown in Table 1 which are much lower the previous categories. However, two items within this feature namely ‘share papers and collaborate’ and ‘communication made easy’ were considered light in difficulty as the weighted average of 4.2 and 4.13 respectively. This is due to the layout of the online collaboration site similar to that of social media sites such as Facebook, hence they found it to be more user friendly.

In direct contrast to the fourth category, the fifth category with the feature of back up, sync & mobile was the least challenging feature to use during their study. It was proved by the total weighted average of 4.344. And only one of the five items in the fifth category “on iPhone/iPad (free!)” was shown to be confusing to students since the majority of Indonesian use android-based phones thus even if they knew about it, they would not be interested with the app.

The sixth category seemed to be steady for the students during their study, which consisted of four features. Data shows that two them were much easier and the other two were quite challenging for the students to comprehend. This is evident from Table 1 revealing features such as search millions of papers, public groups, build an online presence, and discover new collaborators possessing 4.52, 4.03, 3.84, and 3.91 respectively.

Overall, the HE students had statistically showed dissimilar attitudes utilizing the Reference Manager Software during their scientific writing classroom activity and these varying attitudes influenced their works in Academic Writing. The Mendeley-based instruction employed in an academic writing classes seemed to play a part in the process of scientific writing during their classroom activity which further supported by Angelil-Carter (2000) with the importance of reference management stating accurate referencing is not just an optional extra in an academic essay, something to be added on at the end of the process, when the main text is complete, but it is, rather, an integral and constitutive component, since knowing who said what and when and where it was said is essential to understanding the nature of knowledge as something constructed, debated and contested.

**Conclusion**

The research result demonstrates that there were marked differences in the way the students perceive Mendeley-based instruction for their scientific writing classroom practices.
From the students’ perspectives, there were three categories identified in the analysis: (1) Well Equipped Mendeley (WEM); (2) Fairly Equipped Mendeley (FEM); and (3) Lowly Equipped Mendeley (LEM). The WEM students tend to have a better academic writing in their study on scientific writing. The FEM students displayed their academic writing with some difficulties in their writing practices emerged from their academic writing. The LEM students, on the other hand, found it very challenging during their study in scientific writing classes. What is evident is that the more equipped knowledge of the students is on Mendeley-based instruction, the better their academic writing performance are. On a global context, the implication of this study promotes a scholarly understanding on the academic writing of EFL students in a university context using Mendeley-based instruction, a means of preventing plagiarism and raising plagiarism awareness which leads to an increase in academic writing skill in Higher Education as stated by (Erkaya, 2009) that one of the most prevalent cases in EFL student plagiarism is the lack of knowledge about writing research papers. And further supported by Moody (2007) in that the use of information sources is a central, vital aspect of academic writing, not a burdensome convention to which teachers and students must pay lip service before moving on to more important concerns. In addition, this study has underlined the significance of the framework of scientific writing to the level of somewhat sophisticated, predominantly when the academic writing having convergent scripts are highly appreciated and the students are in a nurturing and supportive environment in Indonesian higher education context.

References
Basri, M., & Paramma, M. A. (2019). EFL Students’ Perspective on the Usefulness of ICT based Learning in Indonesian Higher Education. ELT WORLDWIDE, 6(2), 105–120.
Comparative Study. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 12(3).


Comparative Study in Indonesian and English: Identifying Linguistic Units of Comparison

Akmal Hamsa

akmalhamsa@gmail.com

Universitas Negeri Makassar

Sukardi Weda

Universitas Negeri Makassar

Sukardi.weda@unm.ac.id

Bio-Profiles:

Akmal Hamsa is a senior lecturer at the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM). He completed his doctoral degree (Dr.) from Universitas Negeri Malang (UM) in 2009. He can be reached at akmalhamsa@gmail.com

Sukardi Weda is deputy dean of student affairs, Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests include Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, English, L2 motivation, study anxiety, self-efficacy belief, learning strategies, phonology, education, management, social and cultural issues, etc. He has a Ph.D in Linguistics: English Language Studies (ELS) from Hasanuddin University in 2005. He has written more than a hundred articles in Linguistics, English, Education, management, social-issues, and politics. He can be reached at sukardi.weda@unm.ac.id

Abstract

The syntax section centres on an area of linguistic comparison which has proven to be very prolific in the last 40 years (Willems, et al., 2003, p. 4). Comparative study in two languages, either from different family or from the same family is interesting in Industrial Revolution (IR) 4.0. This is because by knowing the construction pattern of two languages from different area
or nation, someone can get some benefits. He can maintain good communication to speakers of the language and he can analyze the linguistic unit of the language. This study aimed at exploring the comparison of Indonesian and English linguistic units. Those units include word class, phrase, clause, and sentence construction. The results of the study show that Indonesian and English has the same clause and sentence pattern (Subject + Verb + Object) and they have different construction in noun phrase, in Indonesian, the modifiers of the phrase follow the head while in English, the modifiers of the phrase precede the head (noun).

**Keywords:** Comparative study, linguistic unit, Indonesian, English

**Introduction**

One of the most important issues in the realm of second language acquisition (SLA) and second language (L2) learning is the comparative study (Saud & Weda, 2019, p. 177). Saud and Weda therefore add that today researches on comparative study have become trend in linguistics and language studies. Many scholars and researchers focus their studies on comparative study, either the comparison from the same origin (Hawkins, 1986; Zanuttini, 1997; Roberts, 1993) or the language from different origin (Saud & Weda, 2019; Benmamoun, 2000; Brustad, 2000; Roberts, 2005; Hawkins, 2018).

There are some linguists who focus their studies on comparative studies in the world in a variety of unit of comparison (Ding, 2016; Los et al., 2012; and Dimmendaal, 2011). Ding (2016) focused her study on some characteristics of Southern Min (Hokkien), with special reference to lexical borrowing in the variety spoken in Southeast Asia. Ding also provides description of Hokkien, a five-level scale for language functionality is then proposed, distinguishing vernacular language, lingua franca, ethnic language, inner language, and private language. Los et al. (2012) reported their study on analytical challenges on the morphosyntax of Dutch and English. Dimmendaal (2011) focuses his study on Historical Linguistics and the Comparative Study of African Languages.

English as Indo European language and Indonesian as Austronesian language family have the same construction in clause and sentence, but they have different construction in some units, especially in noun phrase.

Examples:

| Table 1. Indonesian and English Sentences |
Table 2. Indonesian and English Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian Phrase</th>
<th>English Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saya membaca buku.</td>
<td>I read a book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dia minum secangkir teh.</td>
<td>He drinks a cup of tea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dia pergi ke Jakarta.</td>
<td>He goes to Jakarta</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Review of the Literature**

*a. Syntax*

Syntax is the part of grammar that represents a speaker’s knowledge of sentences and their structure (Fromkin, et al, 2007, p. 116). Fromkin, et al then mentions that the rules of syntax combine words into phrases and phrases into sentences. Among other things, the rules specify the correct word order for a language. For example, English is a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) language. Indonesian as Austronesian language family is also a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO).

1) **Sentence**

A sentence is a group of words which is constructed by some constituents, subject (S), predicate (P), and object (O) or noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), noun phrase (NP). Sentence has function, role, and category.

a) **Function**

In a sentence, there are some phrases and clauses which made of a group of words.

Examples:

- There are *some beautiful girls* in the classroom. (Noun phrase)
- I do not know *where Smith lives*. (Noun clause)

b) **Role**

Phrase and clause in a sentence can function as a subject, predicate, and object.

Examples:

- *Some handsome boys* sit in front row. (Noun phrase functions as subject of a sentence.)
- Jana is *a beautiful girl* in my classroom. (Noun phrase functions as an object of a sentence.)
- Nobody knows *where Sue lives*. (Clause functions as an object of a sentence).
- *Our lecturer cancelled the final exam* disappoints us. (Clause functions as a subject of a sentence.)

*hat the museum cancelled the lecture* disappoints me.

c) **Category**

A family of expressions that can substitute for one another without loss of grammaticality is called syntactic category (Fromkin, et al, 2007, p. 125). Fromkin, et al adds that there are five syntactic categories. The categories are noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), Adjective phrase (AdjP), prepositional phrase (PP), and adverbial phrase (AdvP). Syntactic categories include both phrasal categories such as NP, VP, AdjP, PP, and AdvP, as well as lexical categories such as noun (N), verb (V), preposition (P), adjective (Adj), and adverb (Adv).

2) **Clause**

A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb (Azar, 1999, p. 239). A clause is perhaps most simply defined as a "potential sentence." For example, the word komm "come" and the phrase er geht weg "he's going away" are both clauses. Both can also occur as complete sentences: Komm! "Come!"; Er geht weg "He's going away." On the other hand, each of them can also occur as part of a compound sentence: Komm und setz ' dich! "Come and sit down"; Er geht weg, aber ich bleibe "He's going away, but I'm staying." In this case they are both still clauses; but they are no longer sentences, because they are part of still larger constructions (Kufner, 1962, p. 8). Similarly, Crystal (2007, p. 49) mention that clause is a term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit of grammatical organizations smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases, words, or morphemes. The traditional classification is into ‘main’ and ‘subordinate’ (or ‘dependent’) clauses, e.g. *the man arrived after the rain started* (Crystal, 2007, p. 49).

a) **Noun Clause (NC)**

The underlined words are noun clauses. These examples are obtained from Azar (1999, p. 239 – 240).

I know *where Sue lives*.

I listened to *what he said*.

I heard *what he said*.

I don’t know *where she lives*.

I couldn’t hear *what he said*. 

99
Do you know *when they arrived?*

b) Adjective Clause (AC)

The underlined words are noun clauses. These examples are obtained from Azar (1999, p. 268).

- I thanked the woman *who helped me.*
- I thanked the woman *that helped me.*
- The book *which is on the table* is mine.
- The book *that is on the table* is mine.
- The man *who(m) I saw* was Mr. Jones.
- The man *that I saw* was Mr. Jones.
- The man *Ø I saw* was Mr. Jones.

3) Phrase

Phrase is a term used in grammatical unit analysis which refers to a single element of structure containing more than one word, one word as a head and the other words as modifiers, and lacking the subject-predicate structure typical of clause (Crystal, 1987, p. 232). In English and any other languages, the phrase can be noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), Adjective phrase (AdjP), prepositional phrase (PP), and adverbial phrase (AdvP).

In noun phrase, the head of the phrase can be a noun, number (ordinal numbers: first, second, third, etc.; cardinal numbers: one, two, ten, etc.), and adjective (rich, poor, new, red, etc.).

Examples of **prepositional phrases** functioning as **adjective phrases** with explanations:

The man *in front of the house* is my uncle John.

The object of this prepositional phrase is "house". The preposition "in" is telling us the relationship between the house and the "man". Man is a noun, so this is an adjective phrase.

More examples of **adjective phrases**:

1. Please clean the car *in the garage.* (gives relationship between car and garage)
2. The girl *in the white shirt* is my daughter. (gives relationship between girl and white shirt)
3. Are the glasses *on the table* yours? (gives relationship between glasses and table)
4. The car *under the tree* is mine. (gives relationship between car and tree)
5. The song *after this one* is my favorite song! (gives relationship between song and one)
6) I want the red pen on that table. (gives relationship between pen and table)
7) The motorcycle behind the house belongs to Smith. (gives relationship between motorcycle and Smith)
8) I think the watch above the table has stopped working. (gives relationship between watch and table)

(\url{http://www.softschools.com/examples/grammar/the_adjective_phrase_examples/85/}).

Prepositional phrases, participial phrases, and infinitive phrases can all function as an adjective phrase in sentences. A prepositional phrase includes a preposition, its object, and any modifiers of the object. A participial phrase includes a participle, plus any modifiers and complements. An infinitive phrase includes an infinitive, plus any modifiers and complements and the examples of those types of adjective phrases are revealed in the following examples (\url{https://www.k12reader.com/term/adjective-phrase/}).

Prepositional phrase examples:
The house across the street is my uncle’s.
(Across the street is the prepositional phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun house.)
I have a scratch on my cheek.
(On my cheek is the prepositional phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun scratch.)
The light over the dining room is broken.
(over the dining room is the prepositional phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun pipe.)
We rescued the lion with the injured leg.
(With the injured leg is the prepositional phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun dog.)

Participial Phrase Examples:
Walking along the garden path, we looked the beautiful flowers and butterflies. (Walking along the garden path is the participial phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the pronoun we.)
Covered in mosquito bites, the campers fled to their tents.
(Covered in mosquito bites is the participial phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun campers.)

**Infinitive Phrases:**

Mysteries are excellent books **to read on stormy nights**.
(To read on stormy nights is the infinitive phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun books.)

Crab is my favorite food **to eat in Maryland**.
(To eat in Maryland is the infinitive phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun food.)

Wool is the best material **to wear in cold weather**.
(To wear in cold weather is the infinitive phrase. It functions as an adjective phrase, modifying the noun material.)

**English**

Adjective + Noun
New book
Red shirt
Noun + Noun
Sunday night

**Indonesian**

Noun + Adjective
Buku baru
Kemeja berwarna merah

**b. Foreign Language (FL) Acquisition and Second Language (L2) Learning**

As one of the interesting topics in SLA and language teaching, a number of studies have been conducted to show similarities and differences of the languages in terms of their syntactic and morphological variation form the same language origin and the different language origin (Saud & Weda, 2019, p. 177).

**c. Comparative Study**

The idea that LI and L2 development might be similar in nature was one of the starting points for the systematic investigation of L2 acquisition in the 1970s (Clahsen, 1990, p. 137).
Data Analysis

a. Phrase

1) Noun Phrase (NP)

Table 3. Indonesian and English Noun Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rumah baru</td>
<td>new house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tas saya</td>
<td>my bag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gunung yang indah</td>
<td>beautiful mountain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gadis kecil</td>
<td>little girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seorang siswa yang pintar</td>
<td>a clever student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orang kaya</td>
<td>a rich people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 reveals that the noun phrase construction in Indonesian is the head precedes the modifiers while noun phrase in English is the modifiers precede the head.

2) Verb Phrase (VP)

Table 4. Indonesian and English Verb Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mencari</td>
<td>look for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telah menemukan</td>
<td>have found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedang mencari</td>
<td>is looking for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telah bekerja</td>
<td>has worked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akan belajar</td>
<td>will study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that verb phrase construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the linking verbs or modals precede the head (V) and particles follow the head (V).

3) Adjective Phrase (AdjP)

Table 5. Indonesian and English Adjective Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pasangan pengantin muda</td>
<td>young married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 illustrates that adjective phrase construction in Indonesian and English is different, where in Indonesian adjective phrases, the adjective phrase follows the noun while in English, the adjective phrase precedes the noun.

4) Prepositional Phrase (PP)

Table 6. Indonesian and English Prepositional Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>di kebun</td>
<td>in the garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di rumah</td>
<td>at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bersama dengan kolega saya</td>
<td>together with my colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di taman</td>
<td>on the park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diantara kita</td>
<td>between us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that prepositional phrase construction function as adjective phrase in Indonesian and English is the same, in which preposition precedes the head of the prepositional phrase.

5) Adverbial Phrase (AdvP)

Table 7. Indonesian and English Adverbial Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sangat lambat</td>
<td>extremely slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cukup cepat</td>
<td>quickly enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terlalu banyak</td>
<td>too much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hanya sementara</td>
<td>only temporarily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sangat hati-hati</td>
<td>so carefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sangat terlambat</td>
<td>very late</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7 reveals that adverbial phrase construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the modifier precedes the head (adverb) but in some circumstances, the construction is different, example: cukup cepat in Indonesian and its equivalent quickly enough in English.

b. Clause

1) Noun Clause (NC)

Table 8. Indonesian and English Noun Clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saya tidak tahu berapa umurnya.</td>
<td>I don’t know how old she is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohon beritahu saya dimana Anda tinggal.</td>
<td>Please tell me where do you live.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saya tidak ingat berapa harganya.</td>
<td>I can’t remember how much it costs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saya tahu siapa ayng dating ke pesta itu.</td>
<td>I know who is coming to the party.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows that the noun clause construction in Indonesian and English is the same, in which the constituent order of the noun clause is SVO.

2) Adjective Clause (AC)

Table 9. Indonesian and English Adjective Clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saya melihat gadis yang menutup jendela itu.</td>
<td>I saw the girl who closed the window.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gadis yang memakai rok merah cantik.</td>
<td>The girl who wears the red skirt is beautiful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orang yang duduk di baris paling depan berasal dari Thailand.</td>
<td>The man who sits in the front row is from Thailand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novel yang saya baca menarik.</td>
<td>The novel which I read was interesting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orang yang kami temui minggu lalu sangat bersahabat.</td>
<td>The man whom we met last week was friendly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 reveals that the adjective clause construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the adjective clause construction is SVO.

c. Sentence

Simple Sentence
Table 10. Indonesian and English Simple Sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smith menunggu bus.</td>
<td>Smith waits the bus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anna membaca buku.</td>
<td>Anna is reading a book.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John belajar sejarah.</td>
<td>John studied history.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bapak saya telah membaca surat kabat.</td>
<td>My father has read a newspaper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saya akan pergi ke London.</td>
<td>I will go to London.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 illustrates that the simple sentence construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the sentence construction is SVO.

Compound Sentence

Table 11. Indonesian and English Compound Sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joe menunggu kereta api, tetapi kereta api dating terlambat.</td>
<td>Joe waited for the train, but the train was late.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saya mencari Mary dan Samantha di stasiun bis, tetapi mereka tiba di stasiun sebelum tengah hari dan meninggalkan bis sebelum saya tiba.</td>
<td>I looked for Mary and Samantha at the bus station, but they arrived at the station before noon and left on the bus station before I arrived.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary dan Samantha tiba di stasiun bis sebelum tengah hari, dan mereka meninggalkan bis sebelum saya tiba.</td>
<td>Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, and they left on the bus before I arrived.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary dan Samantha meninggalkan bis sebelum saya tiba, sehingga saya tidak melihat mereka di stasiun bis.</td>
<td>Mary and Samantha left on the bus before I arrived, so I did not see them at the bus station.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: English compound sentences are obtained from:
[https://www2.ivcc.edu/rambo/eng1001/sentences.htm](https://www2.ivcc.edu/rambo/eng1001/sentences.htm)

Table 11 shows that the compound sentence construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the sentence construction is SVO.

Complex Sentence
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Karena Mary dan Samantha tiba di stasiun bis sebelum tengah hari, saya tidak melihat mereka di stasiun bis.</td>
<td>Because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, I did not see them at the station.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atau:</td>
<td>Or:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saya tidak melihat mereka di stasiun bis karena Mary dan Samantha tiba di stasiun bis sebelum tengah hari.</td>
<td>I did not see them at the station because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sementara dia menunggu di stasiun kereta api, Joe menyadari bahwa kereta api terlambat.</td>
<td>While he waited at the train station, Joe realized that the train was late.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atau:</td>
<td>Or:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joe menyadari bahwa kereta api terlambat sementara dia menunggu di stasiun kereta api.</td>
<td>Joe realized that the train was late while he waited at the train station.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setelah mereka meninggalkan bis, Mary dan Samantha menyadari bahwa Joe menunggu di stasiun kereta api.</td>
<td>After they left on the bus, Mary and Samantha realized that Joe was waiting at the train station.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atau:</td>
<td>Or:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary dan Samantha menyadari bahwa Joe menunggu kereta api setelah mereka meninggalkan bis.</td>
<td>Mary and Samantha realized that Joe was waiting at the train station after they left on the bus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: English complex sentences are obtained from: [https://www2.ivcc.edu/rambo/eng1001/sentences.htm](https://www2.ivcc.edu/rambo/eng1001/sentences.htm)
Table 12 reveals that the complex sentence construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the sentence construction is SVO.

**Conclusion**

To sum up, the present study concludes that:

Firstly, Indonesian and English have the same construction in clause (noun clause and adjective clause) and sentence (simple sentence, compound sentence, and complex sentence).

Secondly, Indonesian and English have the different construction in noun phrase. Noun phrase construction in Indonesian is the head precedes the modifiers while noun phrase in English is the modifiers precede the head.

Thirdly, the verb phrase construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the linking verbs or modals precede the head (V) and particles follow the head (V).

Fourthly, adjective phrase construction in Indonesian and English is different, where in Indonesian adjective phrases, the adjective phrase follows the noun while in English, the adjective phrase precedes the noun.

Fifthly, prepositional phrase construction function as adjective phrase in Indonesian and English is the same, in which preposition precedes the head of the prepositional phrase.

Lastly, adverbial phrase construction in Indonesian and English is the same, where the modifier precedes the head (adverb) but in some circumstances, the construction is different, example: **cukup cepat** in Indonesian and its equivalent **quickly enough** in English.

**Pedagogical Implication of the Study**

The pedagogical implications of the study are that the linguists or researchers have potential studies on comparative study in Indonesian as Austronesian language family and English as Indo European language family, especially in identifying linguistic units of comparison.

**References**


Contrastive Analysis of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English Syntax

Kembong Daeng  
*Universitas Negeri Makassar*  
kembongdaeng@unm.ac.id  

Sukardi Weda  
*Universitas Negeri Makassar*  
sukardi.weda@unm.ac.id

Bio-Profiles:

**Dr. Kembong Daeng** is an associate professor at the Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM). She completed her undergraduate degree in 1988 from IKIP Ujung Pandang. She completed her master’s degree in 1996 from Hasanuddin University, and her doctoral degree (Dr.) from Universitas Negeri Makassar in 2013. Her interests are linguistics, literature, culture, and education. She can be reached at kembongdaeng@unm.ac.id.

**Sukardi Weda** is the Deputy Dean of Students Affairs, Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests include Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, English, L2 motivation, study anxiety, self-efficacy belief, learning strategies, phonology, education, management, social and cultural issues, etc. He has a Ph.D in Linguistics: English Language Studies (ELS) from Hasanuddin University in 2005. He has written more than a hundred articles in Linguistics, English, Education, management, social-issues, and politics. He can be reached at sukardi.weda@unm.ac.id

Abstract

This present study aimed at identifying the contrastive properties of syntax of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English. This study focuses its investigation on syntactic variation in Makassarese and English specifically the phrase, clause, and sentence in the three languages. Makassarese is a local language in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia.
Indonesian language or Bahasa Indonesia is a national language used as a means of instruction in schools and universities and becomes formal language in all formal settings, and English is an international language (EIL) taught as a mandatory subject at schools and universities and becomes a foreign language in Indonesian curriculum. The research design was qualitative approach and the data were obtained from newspaper, textbook, and spoken language. The phrase, clause, and sentences from the three languages were analyzed based on a comparative study paradigm/CSP (Saud & Weda, 2019). The results of the study reveal that Makassarese Indonesian and English have the same sentence structure (S+V+O) but in some circumstances, Makassere has its own sentence pattern.

**Keywords:** Contrastive analysis, syntax, Makassarese, Indonesian, English

**Introduction**

Indonesia is called the language giant, because there are hundreds of local and indigenous languages and some foreign languages taught at schools and universities. These languages used according to their functions and position as outlined in the national language politics in Indonesia. The number of indigenous languages in Indonesia today can be conservatively estimated to be nearly 500 (Steinhauer, 1994). Makassarese is used in some areas in southern part of Sulawesi province. Makassarese is one of the languages in Austronesian great family used by Makassar people who live in South Sulawesi Indonesia (Weda, 2017, p. 2). Makassarese is under the Malayo-Polynesian subgroup (https://www.ethnologue.com/language/mak).

Makassarese is a language of South Sulawesi spoken by up to 2 million people (Jukes, nd). Jukes therefore adds that Makassarese is (morphologically) ergative, and grammatical relations are signified by pronominal clitics — some writers refer to this as verbal agreement, but given that the clitics are not restricted to appearing on verbs this term does not seem especially apt. Local languages have also a vital role in certain communities where it is used as a means of communication at home and becomes important medium for two or more people from the same ethnic group and they use the local language even in the workplace.

Indonesian is used as a national language and becomes a means of instruction at schools and higher education, and it is used as language of commerce and technology. **Bahasa Indonesia** (Indonesian language) is a national language for the Republic of Indonesia which unites 27 cultural backgrounds (Yusuf, 1992).
English as a foreign language becomes important in Indonesia because English is a compulsory subject at schools and higher education. English is assumed as a basic requirement to participate in the international arena as an academician and scholar (Weda & Sakti, 2018).

Preserving local languages, prioritizing Indonesian, and mastering foreign languages become a slogan that has been formulated by the Language Development Agency in Indonesia. The formula contains deep meaning and must be realized considering that Indonesia is one of the countries called the language giant.

It cannot be denied that in the era of globalization it was found that the use of language that was not good and correct was due to a code mixing between Indonesian and local languages, and Indonesian and English as a foreign language in maintaining communication. This is caused by a lack of understanding of the characteristics of the three languages. Makassarese, Indonesian, and English are three languages used in Indonesia as a means of communication. These three languages influence each other and therefore interference will occur if the language users do not have good understanding about the comparison of the structure of those languages.

One of the interesting language phenomena to be studied in this present study is the syntactic features of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English as a foreign language in Indonesia. This article therefore addresses three questions as follows:

1. How is the phrase structure comparison of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English?
2. How is the clause structure comparison of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English?
3. How is the sentence structure comparison of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English?

Review of Literature

Comparative study is one of the interesting topics in linguistics and applied linguistics. Saud & Weda (2019, p. 177) mention that one of the most important issues in the realm of second language acquisition (SLA) and second language (L2) learning is the comparative study. In keeping with this, Crystal (1987, p. 58) points out that a comparative study is a term used in linguistics, in which the main focus is to make comparison of the characteristics of different languages (dialects, varieties, registers, etc.).

Keshavarz (2012, p. 5) mentions that another type of comparative studies, which is currently becoming main focus of linguistic studies, is contrastive linguistics or contrastive analysis. Keshavarz adds that contrastive analysis (CA) is the systematic study of a pair of
languages in order to identify their structural differences and similarities, usually for translation and teaching purposes.

Contrastive analysis is one of the most interesting topics in linguistics and applied linguistics. One of the vital topics of discussion in contrastive analysis is syntax. Minimally, syntax describes the selection and order of words that make well-formed sentences and it does so in as general a manner as possible so as to being out similarities among different sentences of the same language and of different languages and render them explainable (Moracsik, 2006, p. 25).

Many researchers and linguists have focused their study on contrastive analysis and comparative studies in the languages from different origins (Andrusenko, 2015; Zhang, 2014; Willems, et al, 2003; Chesterman, 1998; Polyakov, et al, 2018; Daulet, et al, 2018; & Domokos, 2016).

Adrusenko (2015) focuses her study on the contrastive analysis on Spanish and Arabic. Her quantitative analyses showed that the overall use of hedges in Spanish research articles is higher than in the Arabic ones. The results could have a significant impact on the area of teaching and learning Arabic as a second language in Spanish context.

Zhang (2014) focuses her study on the contrastive analysis on sadness expressions in English and Chinese. She focuses on the question of whether the concept of sadness is universal by comparing and contrasting English sadness expressions and their Chinese counterparts in terms of certain structural categories proposed in the field of corpus linguistics. It bases its claims mainly on colligations, collocations, semantic associations and paraphrases, focusing on identifying what elements are common to both languages and what elements are specific to English or Chinese.

First, Second, and Foreign Language Acquisition

In his recent textbook, Klein (1986) as cited in Clahsen (1990, p. 135) distinguishes among five "theories of second language acquisition": (a) the identity hypothesis, which claims that first language (LI) acquisition and L2 acquisition are largely similar; (b) the contrastive hypothesis, which says that L2 acquisition is determined in major ways by the structure of the learner's first language; (c) the monitor theory, which compares tutored and unguided L2 acquisition and makes claims about possible ways to manipulate L2 development; (d) the theory of learner varieties, which points out that L2 learners construct linguistic systems with a particular structure (so-called interlanguages); (e) the pidginization theory, which claims that there are similarities between pidgins and L2 learner varieties.
The idea that LI and L2 development might be similar in nature was one of the starting points for the systematic investigation of L2 acquisition in the 1970s (Clahsen (1990, p. 137).

Research Method

This research is classified as a qualitative research that leads to linguistic studies by comparing syntactic aspects in three languages, namely Makassarese as a local language in South Sulawesi Indonesia, Indonesian language as a national language, and English as an international language taught in schools and university in Indonesia as a mandatory subject. The research data were analyzed using descriptive methods with contrastive analysis techniques (CAT) to describe the comparison of the syntactic aspects of the three languages. The key instrument of this research is the researchers themselves because they have good understanding and mastery of the three languages analyzed. Sources of research data are oral data and written data. The research data are phrases, clauses, and sentences.

Data Analysis and Discussion

There are three focuses of the study, namely the comparison of structures: (1) Makassarese, Indonesian, and English phrases, (2) Makassarese, Indonesian, and English clauses, and (3) Makassarese, Indonesian, and English sentences.

Phrase

Phrase is one of the syntactic units that functions as a filler of syntactic functions. Unity or phrase structure unit of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English is a linguistic aspect that must be understood because the three languages are used as a communication tool by people in their activities.

Phrases or groups of words are syntactic units larger than words and smaller than clauses and sentences (Daeng, 2015, p. 9). Crystal (2008, p. 367) argues that clause is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to a single element of structure typically containing more than one word, and lacking the subject–predicate structure typical of clauses); abbreviated as P in such combinations as NP (= noun phrase), PP (= prepositional phrase), etc. Traditionally, it is seen as part of a structural hierarchy, falling between clause and word, several types being distinguished, e.g. ‘adverb phrase’ (e.g. very slowly . . .), ‘adjectival phrase’ (e.g. the house, old and derelict, . . .), ‘prepositional phrase’ (e.g. in the morning, . . .).
**Types of Phrase Based on Their Word Classes**

Phrase as a construction is formed by its constituents. The relationship between one constituent and the other constituents shows a relationship between alignment and misalignment. As a syntactic unit, the phrase has potential to fill functions of a sentence (subject, predicate, object, or description) (Daeng, 2015, p.10).

There are six types of phrase based on their word classes. They are noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), adjective phrase (Adj. P), adverbial phrase (Adv.P), numeral phrase (Num.P), and prepositional phrase (PP).

**Noun Phrase (NP) Structure**

NP $\rightarrow$ N + N

Noun phrase (NP) which is formed by noun group with noun will give new meaning (Daeng, 2015, p. 27 - 32), e.g.:

1) *kurungang* jangang (Indonesian: ‘kurungan ayam,’ English: ‘chicken cage’)
2) *kadera* bassi (Indonesian: ‘kursi besi,’ English: ‘iron chair’)
3) *buku* jukuk (Indonesian: ‘tulang ikan,’ English: ‘fish bone’)

NP $\rightarrow$ N + Adj.

Noun phrase (NP) with noun as its central element and adjective is its attributes, e.g.:

1) *jangang* garring (Indonesian: ‘ayam yang sakit,’ English: ‘sick chicken’)
2) *ballak* lompoa (Indonesian: ‘rumah yang besar,’ English: ‘big house’)
3) *baine* gakga (Indonesian: ‘perempuan yang cantik,’ English: ‘pretty girl’)

**Verb Phrase (VP) Structure**

FV $\rightarrow$ V + Pronoun Marker

Verb phrase which is formed by verb and pronoun marker in Makassarese can be seen in the examples below:

1) *ammalliak* (Indonesian: ‘saya membeli,’ English: I buy’)
2) *akbaluki* (Indonesian: ‘dia menjual,’ English: She sells’)
3) *anggallei* (Indonesian: ‘dia mengambil,’ English: She takes’)

116
The central element of these phrases is verb ammalli (buy), akbaluk (sell), and anngalle followed by pronoun marker: ak, ki, and i. These pronoun marker becomes subject in a construction.

Verb Phrase $\rightarrow$ V + V

Verb phrase which is formed by verb with verb can be seen in the following examples:
1) annganre ammenteng (Indonesian: ‘makan berdiri,’ English: ‘eat stand up’)
2) annganre mannginung (Indonesian: ‘makan dan minum,’ English: ‘eat and drink’)
3) assembayang ammempo (Indonesian: ‘shalat duduk,’ English: ‘sitting prayer’)

The central elements of these phrases are annganre, assembayang, followed by verb: ammenteng, mannginung, and ammempo.

Verb Phrase $\rightarrow$ V + Adj.

Verb phrase which is formed by verb with adjective can be seen in the following examples.
1) akkana mabajik (Indonesian: ‘berkata santun,’ English: ‘say politely’)
2) assulengka bokdong (Indonesian: ‘duduk bersila,’ English: ‘sitting cross legged’)
3) akbicara rakmasak (Indonesian: ‘berbicara kotor,’ English: ‘dirty talk’)

The phrase constituents in the word can be seen in the Table 1 and see the constructions and constituents forming the phrase.

Table 1. Noun Phrase and Its Constituents in Makassarese

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Constituents</th>
<th>Constituents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Words</td>
<td>Words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaluku lolo</td>
<td>kaluku</td>
<td>lolo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ballak lompo</td>
<td>ballak</td>
<td>lompo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jai dudu</td>
<td>jai</td>
<td>dudu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lammorok dalle</td>
<td>lammorok</td>
<td>dalle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanre bari</td>
<td>kanre</td>
<td>bari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jangang pallaki</td>
<td>jangang</td>
<td>pallaki</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 reveals that the noun phrase construction in Makassarese is the head precedes the modifier.

Table 2. Noun Phrase and Its Constituents in Indonesian
Table 2 shows that the noun phrase structure in Indonesian is the same with Makassarese in which the head of the noun phrase precedes the modifier.

Table 3. Phrase and Its Constituents in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrase</th>
<th>Constituents</th>
<th>Constituents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Words</td>
<td>Words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>young coconut</td>
<td>young</td>
<td>coconut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big house</td>
<td>big</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>too much</td>
<td>too</td>
<td>much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheap fortune</td>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>fortune</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spoiled rice</td>
<td>spoiled</td>
<td>rice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fighting chicken</td>
<td>fighting</td>
<td>chicken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 illustrates that the noun phrase structure in English is different with Makassarese and Indonesian. In Makassarese and Indonesian, the head precedes the modifier while in English, the head follows the modifier.

Table 4. Phrase Comparison in Makassarese, Indonesian, and English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Makassarese</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>erokak anangganre</td>
<td>saya mau makan</td>
<td>I want to eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mau-saya makan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahasa Indonesia</td>
<td>Bahasa Inggris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lekbakmak appilajaran</td>
<td>I have learnt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selesai-sudah saya belajar</td>
<td>tomorrow he will come</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nanti besok dia datang</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ayamnya bertelur</td>
<td>his chicken lays eggs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saya berdekan rumah</td>
<td>I am close to the house</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>singampik ballakak</td>
<td>kemarin pagi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>berdekan rumah-saya</td>
<td>yesterday morning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dia sudah lama sakit</td>
<td>he has been sick for a long time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sepuluh ekor ayam</td>
<td>ten chickens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sangat cantik</td>
<td>very beautiful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dia belum datang</td>
<td>he has not come</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dia sakit kepala</td>
<td>he has a headache</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>belum-ia datang</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sangat cantiknya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenapi battu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>datang ulunna</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sakit-ia kepalanya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data above show that the phrase construction in Makassarese and Indonesian is different. Phrase construction in Makassarese and English is also different, but Indonesian and English have the same phrase construction in which the head follows the modifier.

**Clause**

Syntactic units that are larger than words and phrases, but smaller than sentences are called clauses (Daeng, 2015, p. 37). As a syntactic unit, clause is a very interesting topic in linguistics. There are some linguists and scholars who give definitions about the clause. A clause is a group of words that contains a verb (and usually other components too). A clause may form part of a sentence or it may be a complete sentence in itself (English Oxford Living Dictionaries). A term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit of grammatical organization smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases, words or morphemes A term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit of grammatical organization smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases, words or morphemes (Crystal, 2008, p. 78).

Jukes (2013) mentions that in Makassarese, intransitive verbal predicates are headed by intransitive verbs. These may be unambiguously intransitive as with (1) and (2), intransitive readings of ambitransitive verbs as with (3), or intransitive verbs which include inherent objects such as (4):

**Verbal Predicates:**

(1) *Tinroi I Ali*

|tinro | =i | I | Ali
|sleep | =3 ABS | PERS | Ali

Ali is sleeping.

(2) *A’jappai Balandaiyya*

|aC- jappa | =i | balanda | =a
|INTR walk | =3ABS | Dutch | = DEF

The Dutchman is walking.

(3) *Angnganreak*

|aN(N)- kanre | =a’
|TR- eat | =1ABS

I am eating.
Intransitive verbs are typically marked with a verb prefix, usually aC– but a small set of basic verbs such as tinro ‘sleep’ do not require these (Jukes, 2013).

**Adjectival Predicates:**

Adjectives may function directly as either attributes or predicates in Makassarese (Juke, 2013). Let’s see the following examples (4) and (5).

4) *Bambangngi alloa*

bambang =i     allo =a
hot      =3ABS day =DEF
The day is hot.

5) *Pongorok–dudui anjo taua*

pongorok dudu =i   anjo tau =a
mad     very =3 ABS that person =DEF
That person is really crazy.

**Nominal Predicates:**

Nominals may function as predicates directly without use of a copula or other morphosyntactic device (Jukes, 2013). Jukes adds that clitics are placed directly on the predicate. Jukes adds that nominal predicates generally assert (or question) the identity of S. See example (6) and (7) below:

6) *guruak*

guru =ak
teacher =1ABS
I am a teacher.

7) *Atangkui anjo taua*

Ata ≡ngku =i anjo tau ≡a
Servant ≡1.POSS =3ABS that person ≡DEF
That man is my slave.

**Numeral predicates:**

An alternative to predicate possession formed with the existential verb nia’ is a predicate headed by a numeral (Jukes, 2013). See example (8) below:

8) *Ruai bainenna*

rua =i baine ≡nna
He has two wives (lit. ‘two (are) his wives).

**Locative predicates:**

In some clauses the only candidate for predicate head is a locative adverb or prepositional phrase (Jukes, 2013.). See example (9) and (10) below.

(9) *ri ballaknai*

| ri  | ballak | ≡na | =i |
| PREP | house | ≡3.POSS | =3ABS |

He’s at home

(10) *Anrinnimak!*

| Anrinni | =ma | =ak |
| Here | =PFV | =1ABS |

Here I am!

The absolutive marking clitics serves as a pointer to the subject in the intransitive sentence. Example:

Tinroi andikku.

*tinro -i andikku*

sleep -i my younger brother/sister

sleep -i  refers to andikku as a subject of a sentence.

My younger brother/sister sleeps.

Furthermore, the clitics marking the person serves as an indication of objects in dual transitive sentences.

Example:

Naballiangngi  baju datona.

*Naballiangng -i baju datona*

Na- functions as a subject of a sentence.

He buys shirt his grandfather.

Nasareak doi ammakku.

*Nasare -ak doi ammakku*

Na- functions as a subject of a sentence.
My mother gives me money.

Pronoun in Makassarese

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Clitics</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proclitics</td>
<td>Enclitics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nakke</td>
<td>ku-</td>
<td>-ak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kau</td>
<td>nu-</td>
<td>-ko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>katte</td>
<td>ki-</td>
<td>-ki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ia</td>
<td>na-</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples:

ku kanre
ku- → refers to the subject of a sentence.
I eat.

Angnganreak
Angnganre
-ak → refers to the subject of a sentence.
I eat.

Nualle
Nu- → refers to the subject of a sentence.
You take it.

Angngalleko
-ko refers to the subject of a sentence
You take it.

Ballaknu
-nu → refers to the subject of a sentence
Katte *kisare*

Anda berikan

ki- ➔ refers to the subject of a sentence

\textit{kisara}

naal\(\text{le}\)

na ➔ refers to the subject of the verb.

He takes

\textbf{Allei}

-\(i\) ➔ refers to the subject of the verb.

I take

\textbf{Ballana}

Na- ➔ refers to the subject of the verb.

His house

\textbf{Table 5. Clause Comparison in Makassarese, Indonesian, and English}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Makassarese</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Nasareak doek ammakku ....}</td>
<td>Ibu saya memberi uang kepada saya....</td>
<td>My mother gave me money …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dia-beri-saya uang ibu saya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Lekbappi annganre taua nampa}</td>
<td>Setelah kami makan baru....</td>
<td>After we eat then…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selesai-sudah makan orang baru...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Tenai battu agangku ka ....}</td>
<td>Teman saya tidak datang karena....</td>
<td>My friend didn’t come because …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tidak-ia datang temanku karena...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\textit{Kucinikji anjo taua, mingka}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 reveals that the clause construction of Makassarese is VOS, while Indonesian and English have the same clause construction, SVO.

**Sentence**

Table 6. Sentence Comparison in Makassarese, Indonesian, and English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Makassarese</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ku-lihat-saja ia itu orang, tetapi</td>
<td>Saya melihat orang itu datang, tetapi....</td>
<td>I saw that person coming, but …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kammami anjo kasiakna punna....</td>
<td>Demikianlah rasanya kalau....</td>
<td>So it feels like if …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demikianlah itu rasanya kalau...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larroi antu ri nakke ka ...</td>
<td>Dia marahi saya karena....</td>
<td>He scolded me because …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marah-ia itu di saya karena</td>
<td>Engkau tidak akan selamat jika....</td>
<td>You will not survive if …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ajarilah saya semoga....</td>
<td>Teach me hopefully …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tena antu nusalamak punna....</td>
<td>Meskipun dia dimarahi oleh ayahnya, tertawa juga sebab....</td>
<td>Even though he was scolded by his father, laughing too because …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tidak itu engkau selamat jika....</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajar Tongak barang....</td>
<td>Ajarilah saya semoga....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajar juga-saya semoga....</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mannantu nikalarroi ri manggena, ammakkalak tonji...</td>
<td>Meski-itu dimarahi-ia di bapaknya, tertawa juga sebab....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meski-itu di bapaknya, tertawa juga sebab....</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakalakbiriki ruwayya tau towanu ka....</td>
<td>Hormatilah-ia kedua orang tuamu karena....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hormatilah-ia kedua orang tuamu karena....</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

125
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appilajaranak apparek kanrejawa.</th>
<th>Saya sedang belajar membuat kue.</th>
<th>I am studying to make cake.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belajar-saya membuat kue</td>
<td>Saya tidak mau berbohong kepada sesama manusia.</td>
<td>I do not want to lie to all human beings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teak nakke akballe-balle ri parangku tau.</td>
<td>Si Amir tidak masuk kuliah kemarin karena sakit.</td>
<td>Amir did not go to college yesterday because of illness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tidak mau-saya saya berbohong di sesamaku manusia.</td>
<td>Kakek menyuruh saya mengambil air minum.</td>
<td>Grandfather told me to take drinking water.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Amirik tena nabattu akkulia ri subanngi ka garringi.</td>
<td>Siapa lagi yang ingin engkau dengarkan kalau bukan orang tuamu dan gurumu?</td>
<td>Who else do you want to listen to if it is not your parents and your teacher?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si Amir tidak dia-datang berkuliah di kemarin karena sakit-ia</td>
<td>Siapa lagi yang ingin engkau dengarkan kalau bukan orang tuamu dan gurumu?</td>
<td>Who else do you want to listen to if it is not your parents and your teacher?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasuroak datokku anngalle jeknek inung.</td>
<td>Mengapa engkau tega menyakiti perasaan orang tuamu?</td>
<td>Why do you have the heart to hurt your parents' feelings?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dia-suruh-saya kakek-saya mengambil air minum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inaipi erok nupilanngeri punna teyai tau towanu siagang gurunnu?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siapa lagi yang ingin engkau dengarkan kalau bukan orang tuamu dan gurumu?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anngapa nuerok kamma ampakrisi nyawana tau towanu?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mengapa engkau-ingin sekali menyakiti hati orang tuamu?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What do you think about the person's problems?

Take care of your tongue because the tongue is sharper than the sword!

Don't take the goods if it is not yours!

Get used to doing good deeds on earth!

Table 6 reveals that the sentence construction of Makassarese is VOS, while Indonesian and English have the same clause construction, SVO.

**Conclusion**

This present study is an endeavor to identify the comparison and contrast of Makassarese, Indonesian, and English syntax. The study therefore gives some conclusions to the proposed research questions as previously stated.

Firstly, the noun phrase construction of Makassarese and Indonesian is the same while noun phrase construction in English is different. Noun phrase construction in Makassarese and Indonesian is the head precedes the modifier, while noun phrase construction in English is modifier precedes the head.
Secondly, the clause construction of Makassarese is different with Indonesian and English. the clause construction of Makassarese is VOS, while Indonesian and English have the same clause construction, SVO.

Lastly, the sentence construction of Makassarese is different with Indonesian and English. the sentence construction of Makassarese is VOS, while Indonesian and English have the same clause construction, SVO.

**Pedagogical Implication of the Study**

The pedagogical implications of the study are that the linguists or language practitioners, especially in Makassarese, Indonesian, and English can learn much about the contrastive analysis.

**References**


Self-Recording Videos to Improve Academic English-Speaking Competence

Sebastianus Menggo
Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, Indonesia

I Made Suasta
Universitas Udayana, Denpasar, Indonesia

Ni Nyoman Padmadewi
Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Sebastianus Menggo is an English lecturer at Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng. Jalan A. Yani No. 10, Ruteng, Flores, Indonesia. He obtained his Master Degree in English education in 2013 from Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja, Indonesia and his Doctorate in Linguistics from Universitas Udayana, Denpasar, Indonesia in 2019. E-mail: sebastian.pradana@gmail.com

I Made Suasta is a Professor in Sociolinguistics at Universitas Udayana. Jalan P. Nias No.13, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. He received his Master in Applied Linguistics from Sidney University in 1988 and his Doctorate in Linguistics from La Trobe University in 1996. E-mail: madesuasta@yahoo.co.id

Ni Nyoman Padmadewi is a Professor in sociolinguistics at Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha. Jalan Udayana No. 11, Singaraja, Bali, Indonesia. She received her Master in English Education from Macquarie University in 1993 and her Doctorate in Sociolinguistics from Universitas Udayana in 2005. E-mail: nym.padmadewi@undiksha.ac.id

Abstract

Video has been widely accepted as an effective medium for enhancing learners’ speaking achievement. It provides linguistic and paralinguistic resources, autonomous learning, authentic language inputs and promotes cooperative learning and task-based learning in the
speaking process. However, the use of self-recording videos has not been strongly supported by recent research findings. The fact that self-recording video provides comprehensive linguistic resources has made us more aware of the role of paralinguistic use in oral communication, promoted students’ self-esteem and motivation, reduced students’ inhibition and anxiety in academic English-speaking, and encouraged the consciousness of ICT literacy in both teacher and student. The aims of this study are to analyse the effect of self-recording videos use in improving students’ academic English-speaking competence and disclose the extent of the impacts of self-recording videos on students’ affective factors in the learning process. This is a quasi-experimental study with pre-test and post-test designs that was conducted during September–December 2018. The population of the research was 146 students from five classes who enrolled in an English-speaking course and two speaking lecturers at the English department of Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, Flores. A total of 66 students at this college were selected as sample by using the random sampling technique. An English speaking rubric, questionnaire, and interview were used to collect data; those data were then analysed using a software program, namely, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0 for Windows, which was followed by qualitative interpretation. Data from the questionnaire deployed numerical calculation of the percentage, while data from the interview were presented qualitatively, as they relied on respondents’ responses. Findings of the study revealed that self-recording videos have a significant effect on students’ academic English-speaking competence (mean score result of post-test = 75.81), promotes students’ self-esteem (94.11%) and motivation (97%), reduces English speaking inhibition (85.29%), and lessens students’ anxiety (88.23%). English speaking practitioners are suggested to select self-recording videos in boosting students to be a competent English speaker, independent English learner, and act responsibility.

**Keywords:** academic English-speaking competence, affective factors, self-recording videos, teaching

**Introduction**

Speaking academic English has a vital role in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning environment because it requires learners to employ their linguistic and non-linguistic competence in real communication. Linguistic and non-linguistic competencies aid learners to be qualified English speakers. The achievement of academic English-speaking competence is indicated by how well a learner is able to convey information clearly and acceptably to his or
her interlocutor, both verbally and non-verbally (Imaniah & Dewi, 2017). Imaniah and Dewi further recommend that to achieve linguistic competence, learners are strongly advised to master the following linguistic aspects: lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics, phonetics, phonology, and sundry other language functions such as emotive, informative, referential, phatic, and conative registers.

A number of multimedia technologies have been introduced recently in speaking classes so that students can practice their English in and outside class extensively. An English teacher is used to select suitable media that can enable students to achieve academic English-speaking competence. Media is anything which is used to help to teach language learners (Tomlinson, 2017). The types of media which can be used to facilitate students’ communication in the target language include video recordings, DVDs, CDs, YouTube, radio and TV programs, websites, visuals, English books, and songs. The implementation of appropriate media is believed to be helpful in enhancing students’ use of academic language.

Video can (1) promote students’ autonomy and proactivity in the learning process; (2) enrich classroom activities and hold students’ attention; and (3) provide comprehensive linguistic resources such as pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, intercultural communication, and topical knowledge (Wang, 2015). This aligns with research findings conducted by Göktürk (2016), who claims that video recording is useful for both teachers and students. It helps in the improvement of learners’ speaking competence, including their fluency, their elaboration of ideas, and vocabulary development. Teachers can evaluate their own teaching, noting aspects that they had overlooked.

Video recording makes the learning process more interactive and interesting, encourages learners’ involvement, and promotes self-paced student learning (Prema & Kumar, 2018). Video is also an essential tool in EFL teaching to promote the development of real English communication and activation of new knowledge (Pitarch, 2018). Pitarch further claimed that video-based learning not only helps learners to develop their speaking skills but also their listening, reading and writing skills, as well as providing students with new vocabulary and grammar structures.

Video recording also has numerous impacts on students’ English-speaking competence, such as fluency improvement and building up students’ new knowledge based on their individual learning needs. Video can be used flexibly in time and place and students are more expressive on video because it can be recorded without supervision. The technology is also accessible, as students are permitted to employ their mobile phones, which increases students’ autonomy and engages them more in their own learning (Amirnejad, 2015). Moreover,
McNulty (2012) found that video-based language learning contributed significantly to the development of pronunciation, vocabulary, listening skills, translating skills, and self-evaluation of those skills. It also increased students’ motivation and stimulated students to practice their English.

Previous research about the utilisation of video recording has been conducted by Hakim (2016) and Muslem and Abbas (2017). They claim that the use of video in teaching speaking aids students and teachers. Students are more aware of their linguistic shortcomings in phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Meanwhile, teachers can reflect on the strengths and the weaknesses of their teaching to become more qualified as English teachers.

Previous research presents convincing evidence that video recording is a good choice to improve students’ speaking competence by offering a comprehensible input of English as it is used in real contexts, and also to enable teachers to evaluate weaknesses related to classroom management, techniques and strategies, media, and the like (Irawati, 2016; Kavoshian & Ketabi, 2016). However, the concept and the impact of self-recording videos in teaching academic English-speaking have not been strongly supported by recent research findings.

There is an assumption that self-recording can improve students’ academic English-speaking competence, facilitate self-evaluation, promote cooperative learning, and improve students’ English speaking motivation (Kim, 2014; Kirkgöz, 2011). In this paper, the concept and the impact of self-recording videos to improve academic English-speaking competence and promote positive attitudes towards language learning are strongly supported.

Some studies have provided evidence that self-recording can improve students’ academic English-speaking competence, and encourage students psychologically, i.e. by reducing anxiety and improving self-confidence in speaking English. For example, Knoll (2014) found that video-based learning could improve students’ linguistic and non-linguistic competence, facilitate critical reflections for teachers and students, provide an opportunity for collaborative assessment among students, and activate students’ listening skills. Self-modelling on video was believed to be an effective tool for language acquisition, enabling students to analyse errors, manage their own time (students can select the appropriate time when to speak and record it), and act responsibility through producing the English-speaking videos. It also promotes project-based learning (Ozkan, 2013).

Self-recording encourages ICT literacy in both teachers and students in the application of relevant technologies in the learning process, such as communication labs, speech recognition software, YouTube, TeacherTube, and video. These technologies promote fun and enjoyable learning, motivating students and helping them to enhance their language
learning in a fruitful way. Moreover, these tools help students learn at their own pace and promote autonomy (Bahadorfar & Omidvar, 2014).

Taking the above into consideration, it is obvious that there is a need for the research in this study, which differs from and expands upon previous researches. The purpose of this study was to analyse the effect of self-recording videos on academic English-speaking competence. To achieve this, the researchers formulated the research questions as follows:

1. Does self-recording on video have a significant effect on students’ academic English-speaking competence?
2. Does the use of self-recorded video impact on students’ affective factors in the process of learning how to speak academic English?

**Review of Literature**

*Self-recording on video*

One of the prime aims of media applied to language learning and teaching is to facilitate learners to achieve language competence. In terms of academic English-speaking competence, self-recording is strongly recommended. It is viewed as self-directed learning where students are asked to record their own speaking performance (Allen, 1983). When necessary, some classmates may be asked to help the orator (speaker) to record his/her speaking activities in-class or out-of-class, although self-recording can be done alone (Masip-Álvarez et al., 2013). The relevant technological tools for recording students’ speaking activities are smart phones, handycams, mobile phones, laptops (Skype), etc. (Hariry, 2015).

The use of self-recorded video is worthwhile for both teachers and students. Teachers can reflect on their own teaching in relation to the linguistic weaknesses of learners and prioritise accordingly. Meanwhile, learners can monitor their own authentic performances, self-observe linguistic and non-linguistic usages, and become critical English speakers (Savaş, 2012). Hence, self-recording has been widely accepted as a more powerful and more comprehensible form than other media in second and foreign language learning. This argument is strengthened by Bajrami and Ismaili (2016), who claimed that the use of self-recording on video has multiple positive effects, such as enhancing listening comprehension; speaking competence (pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar); non-verbal expression; and stimulation of students’ autonomy, involvement and motivation. Similarly, Çakir (2006) reported that video-recording provides authentic language inputs; contextualises the paralinguistic habits students have learnt, including facial expression, dress, gesture, and posture; and develops communication strategies for pre-communication, ‘whilst’, and post-communication phases.
The following procedures are designed to enable students to record themselves delivering a speech outdoors: (1) students are asked to think about a certain speaking issue or problem; (2) each student is asked to deliver an official speech on that issue; (3) students choose their own topics; (4) each student delivers an official speech in 3–5 minutes; (5) the speech must be recorded using appropriate technologies; (6) a recording is played in the class and the students evaluate together weaknesses in speaking dimensions such as grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, pronunciation, and task appropriateness; and (7) students deliver their official speech following the usual steps, namely greetings, self-introduction, topic introduction, body of the speech, conclusion, expectation from the speed, and closing remarks.

**Self-recording and Affective Factors**

The aim of using self-recorded videos in academic English-speaking courses is not only to achieve academic speaking outcomes but also to increase students’ affective factors. An affective factor is an emotional side of human behaviour and it may be juxtaposed with cognitive sides (Brown, 2007). The affective factors related to speaking are self-esteem, motivation, inhibition, and anxiety. Self-esteem is the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the achievement of speaking competence (Ahour & Hassanzadeh, 2015). Ahour and Hassanzadeh further claim that learners with a high degree of self-esteem highly respect themselves and believe in their own speaking. Consequently, they try hard to do their best in the various speaking exercises and assignments given to them.

ESL/EFL learners should be motivated to be brave in speaking in order to improve their competence because motivation has a vital role in affecting learners’ language achievement (Kitjaroonchai & Kitjaroonchai, 2012). Students who are more motivated have a clear plan, work harder, and learn faster in achieving their goals (Liu, 2007). Too much anxiety and lack of desire in speaking activities contribute toward inhibition in speaking English (Abedini & Chalak, 2017). Students’ language deficiencies when speaking in second/foreign languages make them more vulnerable to anxiety. Anxiety is a state in which an individual feels uneasy, doubtful, frustrated or apprehensive about a certain matter (Scovel, 1978). Accordingly, speaking practitioners are expected to employ self-recording to reduce nervousness and increase their self-confidence, self-efficacy and other affective factors that reduce inhibition in speaking English.
The Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education of the Republic Indonesia has legalised Indonesian qualification frameworks which aim to manage Indonesian qualification standards for higher education throughout Indonesia. The Indonesian qualification framework has categorised speaking courses into three types: informal, formal, and speaking for academic purposes (Kemenristekdikti, 2012). They have further prescribed that the learning outcome for informal speaking courses is that students are able to speak English at pre-intermediate level in informal interaction settings and that formal speaking courses should encourage students to be able to speak English in formal interaction settings. Finally, speaking for academic purposes course students are expected to speak English at an advanced level fluently, accurately, and acceptably. This research focuses only on speaking for academic purposes.

Speaking competence is necessary in the English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) context. One of the most important goals, or learning outcomes, of teaching English is to enable learners to use English for communicative purposes, including speaking academic English. In recent years, academic speaking competence has assumed a vital role for fresh graduates, enabling them to function effectively in the workplace, cope better with the communication problems they encounter in their lives, and develop satisfying communication and collaborative skills with persons of diverse backgrounds (Deveci & Nunn, 2016; Riemer, 2007). Consequently, each student is encouraged to be a competent English speaker. To be competent, students must be able to utilise his or her linguistic and non-linguistic competencies in speaking. Speaking academic English is viewed as an activity requiring the integration of many subsystems of language. All these subsystems should be combined by a speaker, making speaking a second or foreign language a formidable task for language learners (Lazaraton, 2001).

According to Lazaraton, subsystems include linguistic competence, which is understood to mean knowledge of language codes (phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics); discourse competence, which highlights the knowledge of how to produce oral texts in the modes of speaking respectively; and sociolinguistic competence, which involves the knowledge of sociocultural rules of use, i.e. knowing how to use and respond to language appropriately. The appropriateness depends upon the setting of the communication, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating. Being appropriate also depends upon knowing what the taboos of the other culture are, what forms of politeness are used in each case, what the politically correct terms would be for something, and how a specific attitude (authority, friendliness, courtesy, irony, etc.) is expressed; strategic competence is the ability to recognise and repair communication breakdowns before, during, or after they occur.
Harmer (2007) noted that as speaking is often face-to-face and interactive, speakers can use paralinguistic (or non-language) features, such as changing their tone of voice, giving added emphasis, whispering and shouting, or speaking more or less quickly. They can use gestures and expressions to modify their meaning. Therefore, all subsystems of language should be mastered by an English speaker. Speaking is complex and involves certain skills and several types of knowledge (Thornbury, 2005). Linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge should be performed equally by a competent English speaker.

**Speaking Types**

An interactive type of speaking was assessed in this research. This type highlights the length and complexity of the interaction, which sometimes includes multiple participants. Interaction can be transactional (to exchange specific information) or interpersonal (to maintain social relationships) (Brown, 2004). Brown further affirms that before assessing students’ speaking achievements, it is necessary to determine basic speaking types, namely (1) imitative, which emphasises the accuracy of pronunciation or phonological aspects in which students are only required to imitate a word, phrase or possibly a sentence; (2) intensive, in which understanding of meaning is needed to respond to certain tasks but interaction with interlocutors is minimal (for example, reading aloud and dialogue completion); (3) responsive, which focuses on interaction and comprehension but only for short conversations, making simple requests, asking and giving opinions and greetings; (4) interactive; and (5) extensive, which means monologues, including speeches, personal oral presentations and story-telling, in which the language style is frequently more deliberative and formal and interaction with interlocutors is limited.

**Speaking Assessment**

Assessing students’ performance in speaking is an essential part of language learning and teaching. When a teacher allocates an opportunity for students to demonstrate their English-speaking competence, it is necessary to create a rubric that could help the speaking assessor (the teacher) efficiently determine the level of performance students have achieved in relation to what the speaking exam was attempting to measure. There are six aspects of evaluation in speaking competence (Brown, 2004), namely (1) grammar, which means that utterances produced by students are grammatically precise, with few errors, and carry appropriate meaning; (2) vocabulary, which means that students produce a variety of words and phrases, with no wrong words or terms, which are easy to connect with exact meanings;
(3) comprehension, which encourages students to be able to paraphrase, pinpoint the objective of the conversation, and be academically competent; (4) fluency, which means that communication is smooth and effortless, with no repetition, pauses, or choppiness, and that performance is very close to that of a native speaker; (5) pronunciation which focuses on articulation, intonation, rhythm, stress, and ease of understanding; and (6) task which encourages students to produce simple utterances, that are straightforward, and correctly understood by interlocutors.

**Methods**

**Design**

This is a quasi-experimental study with a pre-test and post-test design. This design was chosen due to the researchers’ wish to compare the academic English-speaking achievement results of two groups. These two groups were chosen randomly, and one group used self-recording while the other did not (Creswell, 2008).

**Population and Sample**

The population of the research included 146 students from five classes who were enrolled in English speaking courses and two speaking lecturers from the English departments of Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, East Nusa Tenggara province, in the eastern part of Indonesia. The eastern part of Indonesia was chosen due to its academic English-speaking problems and proximity to the researchers to allow application of the treatments, distribution of questionnaires, and undertaking in-depth interviews as needed. Sixty-six students (two classes) and two speaking lecturers from this university were selected as the sample using a random sampling technique.

**Instruments**

Tests, questionnaires, and interviews were used to collect data. A test was used to examine research question 1 which referred to the speaking analysis scoring rubric proposed by Brown (2004). Each student was given an opportunity to perform in the classroom based upon the following procedures: (1) each student was asked to take part in a lottery of speaking topics (students had prepared four topics on the one theme); (2) each student was asked to deliver a speech on that topic in 3–5 minutes; (3) the speech was recorded using appropriate technologies; (4) speaking lecturers acting as assessors were asked to rate each student’s speaking performance using a rubric that consisted of six components of academic English
speaking competence: grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, pronunciation, and task, where each component included an indicator, a weighting, a score, and a descriptor; and (5) assessors gave constructive inputs related to the weaknesses in speaking at the post activity section. The pre-test was given to the sample before the treatment in September 2018 using the same speaking analysis scoring rubric. The speaking themes were the same in the pre-test and post-test, but the topics were different, with one theme consisting of four topics. The post-test was given after the treatment during eight meetings from October–December 2018.

A questionnaire was used to investigate research question 2, which focuses on the question of how far self-recording impacts students’ affective factors when speaking academic English. All the questions in the questionnaire were researchers-made and then checked by five experts for relevance and content validity before the questionnaire was distributed to respondents. Five experts intended, were taken from Udayana University, Denpasar, Indonesia (three experts) and two experts were chosen from Ganesha Education University, Singaraja, Indonesia. The questionnaire used the five-point Likert scale and covered 10 items in the closed-ended question form. The scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), with the higher scores showing higher connection. The data from the rubric and questionnaires were then re-validated through in-depth interviews using the 10-item list of questions as a guideline. In-depth interviews were undertaken with one speaking lecturer and 33 students after getting the results of the questionnaire analysis.

Data Analysis Procedure

Data were collected through three procedures: (1) the scoring rubric was given to the two speaking lecturers to adjust aspects of the speaking evaluation; (2) the questionnaire, which took 30 minutes to complete, was distributed to all respondents simultaneously; (3) in-depth interviews were conducted about one and a half hours after the questionnaires were distributed and recorded on tape in order to have accurate data for analysis. In addition, the in-depth interviews were completed one day after the questionnaire was distributed. The lecturers and students were divided into four groups and were seated in a face-to-face seating arrangement; the researchers asked each question from the interview list. Lecturers and students could freely answer what they knew about the impacts of using self-recording. Respondents voluntarily responded to questions.

Data Analysis
The data analysis method used in this research was a t-test preceded by assumption tests, i.e. a distribution normality test and a group homogeneity variance test with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software program 16.0 for Windows, followed by qualitative interpretation. Data from the questionnaires used percentage calculations; data from the in-depth interviews were presented qualitatively, as they relied on respondents’ responses.

Findings

Research question 1: Does self-recording on video have a significant effect on students’ academic English-speaking competence?

This research was preceded by a pre-test of academic English-speaking competence using an analytical scoring rubric for both experimental and control groups. The pre-test result for these groups are presented in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Stand. Dev.</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>62.3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data obtained from the pre-test result indicates that two groups were equivalent. There was no significant difference in their mean score. This is proven by the result of the normality test and group homogeneity variance data, namely experimental group ($p = .073$) and control group ($p = .080$). Thus, the pre-test data showed that students’ academic English-speaking competence was normally distributed. The homogeneity variance data test ($p = .151$) showed that the two groups had homogeneity variance.

After the self-recordings, a post-test was given by using a speaking analysis scoring rubric covering six aspects of speaking, i.e. grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, pronunciation and task. The post-test results from these two groups are presented in the table.
Data from Table 2 above were subjected to a normality of data distribution test and group homogeneity variance test. The results of the normality test of the students’ academic English-speaking competence can be seen in the following table.

### TABLE 3
Data Normality Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Tests of Normality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov(^a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic English-speaking competence</td>
<td>Experimenta l</td>
<td>.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Lilliefors Significance Correction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data from the students’ academic English-speaking competence for the experimental and control groups reported significance values of \( p = .158, ns \) and \( p = .095, ns \) indicating that the sample data from the population was normally distributed. The result of the homogeneity variance test data can be better understood from the following table.
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>.261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Design: Intercept + group

Data obtained from Table 4 above shows a significance value of \( p = .261 \) which means the groups had variance homogeneity.

Hypothesis test: t-test

The implementation of the self-recording by the experimental group had a significant effect. It has been evidenced by the mean scores of the post-test of the two groups (Table 3). Furthermore, it can be seen from the average gain scores from the results of the pre-test and post-test which can be shown in the table below.

### TABLE 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ideal score</td>
<td>Minimum score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based upon data presented in Table 5 above, it can be concluded that the average gain score for the experimental group was higher than the average gain score for the control group. The comparison between the two groups can be better understood from the figure below.
The data from Figure 1 above show the average gain score for the experimental group was higher than for the control group. The result of the average gain score for each student of the two groups can be seen in detail in the figure below.

Moreover, the normality test of the average gain score was $p = .981$ for the experimental group and $p = .261$ for the control group. This means that the data for these groups was normally distributed. The homogeneity test of the average gain score was $p = .089$. Assumptions tests were followed by t-tests. The result of the t-tests can be seen in the table below.
Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>t-test for equality of means</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>3.903</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>3.903</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 above shows that $t_{ob} = 7.806$ whereas $t_{cv} = 1.999$. Based upon the predetermined criteria, this result indicates that there is a significant difference in the academic English-speaking competence of students who taught using self-recording and those taught without using self-recording; in other words, the treatment given to the experimental group succeeded.

Research question 2: Does the use of self-recorded video impact on students’ affective factors in the process of learning how to speak academic English?

The use of self-recording not only effects to students’ academic English-speaking competence but also impacts affective factors, such as self-esteem, English speaking motivation, inhibition, and anxiety. Each of these factors can be better understood from the following figure.

![FIGURE 3](image)

Affective Factors

Discussion
The post-test data indicate some valuable findings for consideration. Comparing the pre-test and post-test results of the treatment group, the students’ average academic English-speaking competence has improved. Individual scores of the treatment group also indicated this improvement (Figure 2). These findings are in line with research conducted by Guo (2013). Guo claimed that the use of a video recording helps to improve students’ speaking including their pronunciation (volume, intonation and articulation), comprehension (introduction of topic, organisation of ideas, supporting evidence and summary), and non-verbal communication (facial expression, body language, gestures, eye contact). Those components are interrelated in supporting the achievement of the students’ academic English-speaking competence. Similarly, Khotimah (2018) found that video recording is an effective way to promote students’ pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, writing, autonomous learning, self-confidence, and creative insights.

In addition, the interview results strongly indicate that self-recording is the most important factor for improving students’ speaking competence in terms of pronunciation. Students were able to produce the appropriate sounds of segmental (vowels and consonants) and suprasegmental features (intonation, rhythm, word stress and sentence stress). These pronunciation features are crucial for helping students to achieve success in communication (Shah, Othman, & Senom, 2017). These authors further affirm that intelligible pronunciation has a vital role in speaking performance. Without adequate pronunciation skills, a person’s speaking performance may be severely hampered, and this in turn may give rise to speech that lacks intelligibility, leading to glitches in conversation and to strain on the part of interlocutors. It is therefore recommended that self-recording should be a mandatory feature of English language learning.

However, grammar was the aspect of speaking competence which remained steady with no improvement before and after self-recording. Thirty-three participants showed difficulties with grammar in their conversation. Students did not use appropriate forms in the following aspects when speaking: word categories, word formation, gerunds, tenses (simple prefect, past perfect and future perfect), plurality, relative clauses and conditionals. This data was reaffirmed by their lecturer who said that a self-recording was useful in increasing students’ speaking ability, but it was useless for grammar. However, students need to improve their grammar because it can help them to develop a habit of thinking logically and clearly. A speaker who knows the rules of a language will be able to communicate in that language in a smooth and skilful way (Alhaysony & Alhaisoni, 2017). Grammar rules allow learners to deepen their reading comprehension, increase their sense of self satisfaction, enjoy English
activities, and encourage them to follow up the process of learning English (Akbari, 2014). In addition, grammar is the heart of a language; its role is important and therefore it is necessary to speak English grammatically to help students to have a formidable command of the English language (Saaristo, 2015).

In addition, the use of self-recording also impacts students’ affective factors as shown in Figure 3. First, questionnaire data indicated that the use of self-recording had a positive effect (94.11%), increasing students’ self-esteem in speaking tasks. This was a finding from the results of interviews with 33 students and one speaking lecturer who affirmed that the implementation of self-recording was the best stimulant for students to increase their self-esteem in the development of speaking competence. This finding is strengthened by research conducted by Kalanzadeh, Mahnegar, Hassannejad and Bakhtiarvand (2013) who reported that there is a significant correlation between students’ self-esteem and their oral performance. They further claim that if students have higher self-esteem, they would be more inclined to involve themselves in conversations and other speaking activities in or outside class. Similarly, Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs (2003) reported that high self-esteem makes students more willing to speak up in groups or personal exercises and criticise the group’s speaking activities. Hence, ESL/EFL teachers have to focus on boosting self-esteem to optimise language learning outcomes.

The second, students’ English speaking motivation increased up to 97%. The questionnaire and interview results showed that the use of self-recording affects students’ English-speaking motivation. Motivation has a formidable role for language learners (Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015). This aligns with the research findings of Genc and Aydin (2017) and Weda, Samad, Pata and Fitriani (2018) who claimed that motivation is one of the most important components affecting students’ academic performance. It contributes to learners’ attitudes and it must be kept in mind in the learning process.

Third, the most significant obstacle encountered by the English lecturers in the informal and formal speaking courses was learners’ inhibition to speak in English. Inhibition had a negative effect on the achievement of students’ speaking competence (Jannah & Fitriati, 2016), who noted that students are afraid of making mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, and ashamed due to wrong choices in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Similarly, Leong & Ahmadi (2017) reported that inhibition is a prime barrier to the oral performance of English speakers. But, this phenomenon was different when a self-recording was implemented in the academic English-speaking course. This media usage reduced the student’s inhibition to speak English by up to 85%. Each student was obliged to record his/her speaking assignments, which
were then played back and assessed together (by lecturers and peers) in academic English-speaking classes. This technique provides rehearsal opportunities for students to use language knowledge and provide feedback for both teachers and students. The more students have opportunities to activate the various elements of language they have stored in their brains, the more automatic is their use of these elements (Harmer, 2007).

Fourth, the use of self-recording in the academic-speaking course has been effective in lessening student’s anxiety by 88%. It is widely accepted that anxiety is one of the factors that affects students’ communication performance. This is strongly supported by Aghajani and Amanzadeh, (2017) who reported that anxiety plays an extremely important role in disturbing students’ speaking performance. One of the most important affective factors in learning a foreign language is foreign language anxiety. The effects of anxiety on foreign language learning have been extensively reported not only in speech performance but also social psychology and educational psychology (Wu, 2010).

As stated, affective factors contribute towards students’ academic English-speaking competence. These factors are interrelated. More importantly, it is the teachers’ duty to create a less threatening classroom atmosphere, employ appropriate media, such as self-recording, motivate students to speak English, and strengthen students’ confidence and efficacy. More motivated students tend to be more successful language learners.

Conclusions

This study examines the use of self-recording on video in teaching speaking. First, self-recording enables students to enhance their English speaking competence which is measured by grammatical accuracy, the use of appropriate vocabulary, paraphrasing, fluency, pronunciation, and task completion. Second, paralinguistic features of oral communication should be integrated into speaking performance; these include facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice, word stress, and communication strategies. Third, self-recording encourages students to be both responsible for and capable of self-assessment in their own English speaking learning. Fourth, it promotes students’ self-esteem, motivation, and reduces their inhibition and anxiety in English speaking. Undoubtedly, the use of self-recording on video stimulates interest among learners and transforms the speaking learning process into a favourite subject. And fifth, self-recording increases students’ listening comprehension and teachers’ awareness of up to date media approaches in stimulating students to reduce the speaking aspects that hamper the achievement of academic English-speaking competence.
Although the findings of the current studies are partially conclusive, further research is required to cover the limitation of this study, particularly the use of relevant digital media in measuring students’ speaking achievement such as speech recognition software. The findings of self-recording videos to improve academic English-speaking competence are limited to only data collected from speaking tests, questionnaire, and interview guide rather than in-depth interviews and FGD. It is, therefore, recommended that further researches are strongly suggested to employ other methods of data collection such as in-depth interviews and FGD in getting a more comprehensive result.

Acknowledgments
This research was purely sponsored by the Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP). The researchers would like to gratefully acknowledge the LPDP for the grant given to undertake this research. (Grand ID Number from LPDP: 20161141111532).

References


Multicultural Education Approach: Perspectives of Learners on Resolving University Student Conflicts in South Sulawesi

Muli Umiaty Noer
Rusdiah
Andi Hudriati

Universitas Muslim Indonesia

Bio-profiles:

Dra. Muli Umiaty Noer, M.Hum. is the Director of Foreign Language Academy, Universitas Muslim Indonesia. Her research deals with English language teaching and literature.

Dr. Rusdiah, M.Hum. is a senior lecturer and a deputy Dean on academic affairs, Faculty of Language and Arts, Universitas Muslim Indonesia. Her research interest deals with the area of language teaching and literature.

Dra. Andi Hudriati Akrab, M.Pd. is a senior lecturer and a head of the school of English Literature, Universitas Muslim Indonesia. Her research concentrates on English language teaching and language policy.

Abstract

Student conflicts have become a common phenomenon around the globe, especially in Indonesia today with the major causes due to political and cultural reasons. Makassar is considered one of the prone to conflict areas in which students tend to behave aggressively during protests causing conflicts with local law enforcements and heavy traffic jams disrupting the public. Furthermore, internal conflicts within campus between students have been reported to happen occasionally due to cultural conflicts or misunderstandings. Such conflicts may destroy campus academic life as these conflicts damage a university profile. This study aims at investigating the student conflicts happening at a conflict prone university in South Sulawesi and the the institutions’ effort in overcoming students these conflicts. This research applied qualitative approach by using in-depth interview, focused group discussion (FGD) to acquire
the data. The obtained data are analyzed qualitatively adopted from the framework developed by Miles and Huberman (1994) which consists of: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. The result of the data demonstrated that most of the students’ conflicts were dealing with inequality, lack of intercultural understanding, and a very limited space for ethnic and individual expressions as part of academic society. And the institution have repeatedly attempted to reduce these conflicts through interpersonal communication with individuals and communities, general campus-wide lecture on multicultural society, and annual and monthly campus-wide activities to foster students’ solidarity. The lack of peace education induced within the curriculum is a major concern in many institutions of Indonesia. Hence, this issue leads to potentially open a space for employing multicultural education as peace education model to resolve university students’ conflicts, particularly in Indonesia.

**Keywords:** multicultural education, conflict management, conflict resolution, higher education.

**Introduction**

Every year most high school students are admitted into Universities to continue their study. It is a place where they gain certain skills needed to pursue their intended career. These new applicants are chosen equally and with no concern to racial, ethnic, and religion backgrounds. Thus, the composition of the students’ campus life are largely diverse and conflicts may sometimes arise with students of different cultural backgrounds. Students in Higher Education would their own social networks, hangouts and engagements which are sometimes left unsupervised by the universities. This may lead to disruptive indoctrination that may arise within campus life due to conflicts. On one hand there are conflicts between students and on another are conflicts between students and university management which worsen when left unchecked.

Universities are places where conflict is a part of the campus life and is essential to the universities as an organization. Conflicts can be dangerous to institutions since it not only threaten campus functioning, but could also affect other educational and social problems which include abuse of office, disagreement, quarrels, hostility and violent fights which may have a negative impact on the successful running of the university. Even though campus life is in essence about discussing and debating ideas, there are some that are disruptive and sometimes lead to violent conflicts among students themselves and with the university. Higher education has constantly attempt to resolve these disputes through mediation and other alternative
methods. In recent years especially in Indonesia, conventional methods of conflict resolution have been questioned in a multicultural setting.

In South Sulawesi, prior research has mentioned that there were more or less 35 students’ conflicts occurred with the four biggest universities in Makassar since 1990 to 2008 (Jumadi, 2009). The attitudes of students opposite the academic principles and values of democracy where students should be an agent of social changes and problem solver, but not problem makers. The violent attitude values and identities are seen as social phenomena that are inseparable from human's lives, especially in the multicultural community. To solve these is how to control and overcome the conflicts wisely so they will not result in the disintegration of the nation.

**Managing Conflicts Through Multicultural Education.**

According to Bambang, multicultural education that is integrated into the educational institutions is one strategic step to provide knowledge and understanding to the community to some extent on the context of multiculturalism, to be applied in the day to day life. "From the differences, we respect the unity. Rudito (2008) emphasizes on the importance of multiculturalism that is to understand how several cultures can live and interact side by side.

The resolution of cross-cultural conflict begins with identifying whether cultural issues are involved. There are three ways of cross-cultural conflict resolution, as Williams (1994) proposal as follows: 

- **first:** Probing for the multicultural dimension. The resolution process should start from the parties' acknowledgment that their conflict contains a cultural dimension.
- Next, there should be willingness on all sides to deal with all conflict dimensions including the cultural one. Third, systematic phased work on the conflict is needed. Williams identified four phases: (1) the parties describe what they find offensive in each other's behavior; (2) they get an understanding of the other party's cultural perceptions; (3) they learn how the problem would be handled in the culture of the opponent; (4) they develop conflict solutions. Resolution of the conflict is particularly complicated if the conflict arose not just out of misunderstanding of the other's behavior, but because of incompatible values.

- **The Second,** Learning about other cultures. People can prevent cross-cultural conflicts by learning about cultures that they come in contact with. This knowledge can be obtained through training programs, general reading, talking to people from different cultures, and learning from past experiences. Important aspects of cultural education are understanding your own culture and developing cultural awareness by acquiring a broad knowledge of values and beliefs of other cultures, rather than looking at them through the prism of cultural stereotypes.
The Third is altering organizational practices and procedures. Often the organizational structure reflects the norms of just one culture and inherits the cultural conflict. In such cases, structural change becomes necessary to make the system more sensitive to cultural norms of other people (Williams, 1994; pp. 2-6).

Thus, this study aims to find out the factors causing university students conflicts in Makassar and the efforts that have been done by the university to manage these conflicts.

Method
A case study was employed as the tool for this study. The scope of a case study can be a single unit or multiple sites depending on what is defined as unit of analysis (Yin 1994). This study analyzes conflict management and resolving conflicts of university students to further promote the role of peace education through multicultural education embedded within the curriculum.

The data collected from Universitas Muslim Indonesia in South Sulawesi, representing the Moslem and South Sulawesi cultures and values. This study collected the data from 40 students and are activists from the university.

The data were collected through open-ended questionnaire design. The questionnaire survey is used to obtain information of students’ view in the causes of conflicts in higher education and the institutions’ effort in reducing the conflicts. To ensure the reliability of the questionnaires, they have an introduction that describes the purpose of study (Williamson et al. 1977, cited in Jazadi 2003, p. 75). They begin with few interesting, ‘non-threatening’ question because it may reduce the likelihood of the subject completing the questionnaire (Burns 1991, pp. 293-294). The questionnaires should be easy to understand and straightforward (McKernan 1996. p. 127; Wellington 2000, p. 105). The questionnaire design would be pre-testing to minimize potential misunderstanding and to ensure reliability (Anderson 1990, pp. 215-216; Burns 1991, p. 299).

Semi structured interview is more controlled by interviewer, flexible, and not completely pre-determined (Wellington 2000, p. 75). Semi structured interview is used to gain an in-depth understanding of students’ conflicts by the university’s perspective and how the university manage the conflicts. Theorists define triangulation as the use of “two or more methods to collect data about the same phenomenon in order to enhance the soundness of the findings” (Gall et al. 2005, p. 312; Yin 1994, p. 91; Burns 1991, p. 248). The data were analyzed by using systemic representational analysis (see Gall, et al. 2005). Hence, a study model in the form of multicultural education was taught in
several lecturers and through Focus Group Discussion (FGD) the students were observed to find out further their opinions, standings and solutions to the problem.

Most of the respondents in the research have studied at the university for more than two years. Only a few very of them are very senior students. While the number of females’ students less than the number of males, which shows the number of female activists’ participation in the students unions.

They come from different course majors as most of them come from social sciences English literature faculty. Students regularly attend the college which shows that they are still active students at the university. Most of the respondents graduated from public high schools; on the other hand, there were equal number of students graduated from both Islamic boarding and vocational high schools.

It is interesting to note that the students’ conflicts at the university level in South Sulawesi province may not be a very difficult problem to solve, because the majority of the students believes that the conflicts are manageable and resolvable and seem to be interested discussing the conflicts through FGD after they have learnt Multicultural Education.

Findings and Discussion

Students ‘views of the factors that cause conflict in higher education

There were several factors causing students’ conflicts ranging from discriminative policies, unequal treatment, cultural misunderstanding, inappropriate language use, as more detail information shown in table, 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Factors causing students conflicts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One of the students mentioned one of the reasons of prolonged conflict with government:

“One prime example of conflict with the government was when they raised the petrol prices which many could not afford to expend. We know that that will lead to price increase in other sectors which the poor people unable to cope with”.

The students would always start with peaceful demonstrations and would end with violence not only with the police officers but also with the locals. They were not quite patient when the authority could not accept their opinions and protests. These students (activists) believed that they were protesting for the public to seek justice in discriminate or destructive policies as one student wrote:

“We (students) are the only ones brave enough to face the government when things get out of hand. We stand for the public so that they (government) would heed our plight and fix the problem”.

South Sulawesi is home to many cultures and beliefs. University students studying in Makassar come from all sorts of cultural backgrounds. Hence, a multicultural campus life was inevitable. Conflicts may arise in a multicultural setting due to misunderstandings and sometimes these conflicts would become larger as time goes on. A simple language misunderstanding that are negative to some students can cause conflict in a larger scale and even get into ethnic conflicts. Similarly, ethnic conflicts outside might influence campus life and bring the conflicts into the university. The lack of mutual respect have become an issue for these multicultural students. One particularly alarming case is the senior students’ influence on active fresh students inciting them to be aggressive towards issues formed on and off campus as students mention:

“Sometimes we are helpless in dealing with this issue where seniors and alumni come to the campus and preach us about taking action against injustice in the government and/or university. Indeed, injustice must be dealt with but should be done appropriately and should only take severe but controlled action when the issue is still not resolved or ignored”.

158
**Efforts done by the university in resolving students’ conflict**

There have been attempts done by the university to overcome the conflicts at the university level. Establishing prior learning contract before their studies began is one such attempt. Another were setting up a very strict academic rules to reduce the conflicts and prohibiting students active on campus overnight to prevent the rise of the conflicts. Table 3 below are the results from the interview after analyzing and coding the data:

Table 2: Efforts by university to overcome conflicts

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strict Academic policy and lecturing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Prohibiting students staying in campus at night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Campus-wide general lectures of cultures, tradition and values that promotes unity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gathering activities to raise the university’s solidarity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Facilitate meeting between the two conflicted parties in an attempt to create a win-win solution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The institution has done several attempts to minimize every conflicts that may arise within campus life such as promoting students to learn other cultures, ethnics and even religions. In addition, most institutions haven’t yet initiated a sustainable program to resolve and transform conflict into peace, harmony, respecting diversity and acknowledging the similarities.

One such attempt is preventing external influence to disturb campus life as noted by an interviewee:

“We believe that by prohibiting students staying in campus at night, they would not be influenced by external factors since these students are left unsupervised at night. Because sometimes, certain disruptive groups would influence these students to spread their customs within campus and this is what we try to avoid by issuing this policy”.

159
The diversity of students’ backgrounds such as family, races, gender, religion, economic backgrounds, needed to be free of prejudice in Indonesia. Students who are prone to conflicts should be needed to put into an environment where they can learn other cultures and traditions to avoid misunderstanding which cause conflicts rather than moving to warnings or even expulsions. The table above shows the importance of the institutions’ understanding and actions taken to resolve these conflicts. According to Newstorm and Davis (2002) prolonged interpersonal conflicts lead to deterioration of cooperation and team work, at personal level some people may feel defeated while the self-image of others will decline and personal stress level will rise. Thus, the university constantly attempts at decreasing these conflicts to provide students with the best learning environment.

“We have often conduct campus-wide general lecturers for all the students discussing issues related cultures, peace and solving conflicts. Also, there’s always university-funded activities or gatherings to develop mutual cooperation with student organizations and benefit every student within the campus, interacting with all majors of the university”.

Another interviewee mentioned:

“Well for students who are in conflict, sometimes we see certain communities are in conflict within campus and we try to resolve them as peacefully as possible before it escalates by gathering them in a room to talk out the issue. These things need to be fixed as fast as possible since it may cause chaos if left unchecked.”

The university’s attempts at decreasing conflicts within the campus has been limited to change in policies, one-day lectures, and campus events to foster students’ solidarity. There has yet been any attempt at inducing conflict resolution through the curriculum and implement it within the core lectures. Therefore, it is necessary to devise a model of multicultural education as part of the education that is concerned with multicultural society who are victims and prone to be discriminated against and well as assaults because of their unique cultural characteristics (ethnic, racial, linguistic, gender, etc.); which includes studying key concepts such as prejudice, identity, conflicts, and alienation, and modifying teaching practices and policies to reflect an appreciation for ethnic diversity (Banks, 2006).
Discussions

One of the key goals of Multicultural education according to Davidman, L., & Davidman, P.T. (1997) is the development of a society that values Cultural Pluralism which in essence can be seen in Indonesia’s constitution “bhineka tunggal ika” or unity in diversity. It is evident that Multicultural education should be implemented in all forms of education and levels to foster a society respecting cultural diversity and to expand the knowledge of Indonesia’s various cultural and ethnic groups resulting in the acceptance of other groups regardless of cultural differences. The presence of multicultural education embedded within the university curricula would provide a means to resolve internal conflicts in due time.

The present reality of conflicts happening in Indonesia invigorate the importance of multicultural education as the need for people of varying backgrounds to have a better understanding of one another has implications for the current issue and for future generations. Lecturers should be prepared to teach units that fully address the variety of cultures within Indonesia and the world and implemented to the curriculum (Arham & Hudriati, 2018). These units should discuss the food, music, history, stories, clothing and belief systems of these cultures using age-appropriate curriculum. Initial phase of multicultural education may begin by sharing about the cultures, races, and ethnicities already present in the classroom. Furthermore, the curriculum of multicultural education should include subjects such as: tolerance, themes of ethno-cultural differences, and religion; the backwards of discrimination and sectarianism; conflict resolution and mediation; human beings; democracy and plurality; universal humanity and other subjects that are relevant. Hence. To further accommodate the ongoing issue of students conflict in HE institutions, a study model of conflict resolution which is based on multicultural education should be implemented.

Conclusion

Unity in Diversity (Bhineka Tunggal Ika) can only be maintained if diversity, human rights, social justice, and alternative lifestyles for all people, it is necessary for a quality education and includes all efforts to make the full range of cultures available to students; it views a culturally pluralistic society as a positive force and welcomes differences as vehicles for better understanding the global society are done systematically not only in formally but also informally.

Indonesia is home to many cultural diversities, and higher education is where these diversities gather and study. A multicultural university should be aware that conflicts are prone
to happen anytime due to miscommunication or misunderstanding. Universities which has a track record of student conflicts should attempt to resolve these conflicts through multicultural education. The universality of education allows different people from various places to benefit and utilizing multicultural education may create unity despite differences. Incorporating the ethnic diversity in the classroom into the curriculum should not single students out as different but contribute to the whole classroom's understanding of the diversity present in our world.

References
Avruch, W, (2003). Integrating Ideas, culture, ethnicity, Multiculturalism, into Conflict Resolution and ADS Practice, George Mason University, USA.


---

**Perceived Offensiveness of Swear Words Across Genders**

**Annie Mae C. Berowa**  
*Mindanao State University, Main Campus*  
annieberowa@yahoo.com.ph

**Jennibelle R. Ella**  
* Colegio de San Juan de Letran Calamba*  
jennibelle.ella@gmail.com
Bio-Profiles:

Annie Mae C. Berowa is a faculty member at the English Department of the College of Social Sciences and Humanities, Mindanao State University in Marawi City.

Jennibelle R. Ella is an Instructor at the English and Education Cluster, School of Education, Arts, and Sciences of Colegio de San Juan de Letran Calamba. She finished her BA Communication Arts and MPAf (Education Management) at the University of the Philippines Los Banos. She earned her PhD in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University-Manila.

Rochelle Irene G. Lucas is an Associate Professor at the Department of English and Applied Linguistics and former Vice Dean of the Br. Andrew Gonzalez FSC College of Education, De La Salle University-Manila. She has published and presented papers on psycholinguistics, bilingualism, language learning in children, motivation, alternative assessment and discourse analysis. Currently, she is the Immediate Past President of the Linguistics Society of the Philippines (LSP) and the Secretary of the Comparative Education Society of the Philippines (CESP). She is also Board Member of the Philippine Social Science Council (PSSC) and the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL).

Abstract

Swear words are usually associated with taboo spheres like sex, excretory functions, and religion (Fagersten, 2012). These words are identified as offensive, inappropriate and unacceptable in particular contexts, and those who swear are perceived to be anti-social, untrustworthy and incompetent (Cavazza & Guidetti, 2014). The use of swear words is considered masculine while women, in general, face double scrutiny for using vulgar language that are traditionally spoken by men (Lakoff, 1973). Thus, this study was conducted to determine the offensiveness of swear words as perceived by male and female university students in the Philippines based on the word-list rating task and on the same-gender and mixed-gender hypothetical recorded dialogue interactions. Through the use of survey and interviews, it was found that generally, swear words are inherently offensive and that...
is perceived to be the most offensive. In addition, female participants show higher offensiveness ratings as compared to their male counterparts. Thus, the findings support the assertion made by Jay (1992) that females are more offended by swear words as compared to males as this could be brought by the desires of men and women to present themselves that is consistent with the expected behavior for their position in the society.

**Key words:** language, gender, language behavior, language and society

**Introduction**

Lakoff (1973) argued that there are unique and gender-based characteristics of language use which differentiate men from women. Gender biases in language have been illustrated in different forms all over the world (Clemente & Temporal, 2019). For one, men are expected to know how to swear and to tell and appreciate inappropriate jokes while women on the other hand, are expected to speak appropriately, to use euphemism, and to avoid offensive expressions (Lakoff, 2004). These views promote the persistence of long-held public perception that swearing is more acceptable for males than for females (Spolsky, Shafer and Kaye, 2011).

Swear words, also termed as epithets, profanity, curse words, bad words, dirty words, cuss words, expletives, four-letter words, obscenities, blasphemy, rude language, taboo language, vulgar language or bawdy language, are usually associated with taboo spheres like sex, excretory functions, and religion (Fagersten, 2012). These words are identified as offensive, inappropriate and unacceptable in specific social contexts, and those who swear are perceived to be anti-social, untrustworthy and incompetent (Cavazza and Guidetti, 2014). However, Berowa (2019) emphasizes that swearing should not be always perceived to be undesirable as it also provides a number of communicative functions like expressing strong emotions, intensifying and solidarity building.

Stapleton (2003) stressed that women are discouraged to use swear words because of traditional cultural expectations about how they should behave. Since swear words are perceived to be forceful and aggressive, women who would employ such terms would be seen to have deviated from cultural stereotypes and expectations of femininity in which women are expected to be respectful, polite, sensitive and nurturing to the needs and feelings of others. It is also added that the prohibition for women to swear stemmed from fear of being negatively evaluated by others as compared to their male counterpart.
This claim is evident among Filipino men and women. Tajolosa (2012) clarified that while Filipino men and women have displayed a remarkable change in their lexical choices over time, differences between men and women could still be observed in the use of cathartic expressions, swear words, or cuss words. Both men and women utter cathartic expressions or swear words, although, not surprisingly, men utter those words more or less twice as many as women do.

Men would use the swear words in a more spontaneous, intense, and explicit manner, which is perceived to be more offensive compared to women. On the other hand, Filipino women, perhaps because of cultural expectation of femininity, would use the swear words less explicitly and incorporate hedges to soften the insult or the derogatory remark.

Different investigations in relation to swearing and gender phenomenon around the globe have provided inconsistent results as to the perception among gender groups in relation to the offensiveness of swear words. The current study was conducted to determine the perceptions of men and women as regards the offensiveness and inappropriateness of swear words in general in same-gender and mixed-gender situations among university students in the Philippines.

**Swear Words**

Swearing indicates the use of words that are potentially offensive, objectionable, unacceptable or inappropriate in a particular social context (Fagersten, 2012). Moreover, swear words are highly contextual although different context have various words that are considered as bad, foul, vulgar or profane. Jay (2009) posits that swear words in English mainly place reference on sex such as cunt and blowjob and on those that are reflective of blasphemy or profanity such as Jesus Christ and goddamn. Additionally, these taboo words include disgusting objects and scatological referents such as douche bag, crap, and shit, and animal term such as ass, bitch and pig. Moreover, swearing extends from racial, gender and ethnic slurs such as dago, fag, and nigger to physical, psychological or social insults such as lard ass, wimp and retard. The lists of swear words also include references such as bastard and son of a bitch; substandard vulgar reference such as on the rag and fart face; and offensive slang such as tit run and cluster fuck.

In the Philippine context, Laureta (2015) was able to provide an inclusive list of swear words used by Filipinos from various ethno-linguistic groups. Aside from the commonly used English terms such as bull shit, or shit, there are sixteen (16) other frequently used swear words that include hudas, the term to mean a traitor; while putang ina can be interpreted literally as
“your mother is a whore” which can be considered as an equivalent term to “son of a bitch or son of a whore” in English. Such words are used to show anger, shock, frustration, joy or surprise. In addition, lintik is used to wish someone to be struck by lightning while ulol can refer to rabid street dogs. However, ulol is often used to describe someone who is acting crazy. Gago and tarantado are also considered as swear words in the Philippine context that illustrates someone who is foolish. Additionally, bwisit means someone is a nuisance or someone that brings bad luck. Another word is the Filipino term burat, which communicates annoyance to an unfortunate situation or a douche-y person.

Included in the list is the term kupal which means a jerk, while leche refers to someone or something annoying. Furthermore, ungas means ignorant; punyeta as an expression of agitation or disappointment, and hinayupak to mean someone acting in an inhumane manner. Pucha has the English equivalent dammit to express regret. Pesteng yawa, or yawa in Visayan language, is used to describe someone or something that causes trouble. Peste in Tagalog means parasite, while yawa in Cebuano is devil. And the last word identified is the pakshet, or fuck and shit in English, which is used to express any emotion that may suggest disappointment or anger.

For several decades, research on gender and the use of strong words has achieved great attention mainly because the use of cuss words demonstrate “power relationship and power play” (Medriano & De Vera, 2019, p. 9). Such interest is reflected in the investigations that aimed to gather evidences to further explain the link between swearing and the identified variables in various contexts particularly the gender factor. Specifically, researchers tried to discover the words which are considered to be very offensive among university students, and how male and female differ in their views as to the offense of swear words create.

**Gender and offensiveness of swear words**

Research on swearing such as that of Beer-Fagersten (2007) showed that the word nigger as the most offensiveness word as reported by college students in University of Florida, followed by cunt, motherfucker, bitch and fuck. The findings also indicated that the average ratings provided by female participants were higher as compared to male participants. For Jay and Janchewitz (2008) who examined the effects of gender on the offensiveness ratings based on the written hypothetical situations, they found that female participants found swear words to be more offensive than men. Furthermore, the authors expressed that women seem that they rarely use swear words, and if they do, they tend to choose the less offensive. Additionally, Spolsky et al. (2011) looked into the ratings of the offensiveness of the words in the context of television programs. The result suggests the words which were rated to be the most offensive
in all television contexts were motherfucker, cunt, fuck, cocksucker, goddamn. Moreover, they found that women, along with those conservatives and those who go to church regularly, found the profanities to be truly offensive.

More recent studies reflected different findings as compared to the previous investigation. In the Philippines, Tajolosa (2012) investigated the topic preference, taboo words and euphemisms among 215 male and female students from private and public universities. It was a corpus-based study in which the data came from the written responses made by the participants. It was found that putang ina was the most popular swear word used by male and female participants from private universities while shit was the most preferred by both male and female students from the state universities. In addition, all of the participants perceive putang ina mo as the most offensive word that they can say to anyone.

In 2015, Uhlman carried out another research on the offensiveness of swear words but this time, in the context of all female participants. The results showed that the words damn and hell were found to be the least offensive while cunt was found to be the most offensive. Women in this study did not perceive swear words to be very offensive in general.

**The Current Study**

The diverse findings of the previous investigations as to the offensiveness of swear words in relation to gender encouraged the researchers to revisit this linguistic phenomenon in the context of the Philippines. Although a number of studies have already examined the effects of gender variable among university students, there is a limited research that examines the same-gender and mixed-gender situations and how the gender of the one who swears influence the offensiveness ratings. Additionally, interviews were employed to provide deeper understanding of swearing and gender phenomenon. The current research would not only provide additional literature with regard to the topic which is very rare in the Philippine context but it would also attempt to illustrate the current status of swearing norms in relation to gender in the contemporary society. Specifically, the study tried to answer the following questions.

1. What are the swear words found to be offensive and not offensive by male and female participants?
2. What are the degrees of offensiveness of the swear words used in the different conversational interactions as perceived by the participants?
3. How offensive are the swear words in same-gender and mixed-gender situations:
   a. Male and male (swearer);
   b. Female and female (swearer);
c. Male (swearer) and female; and
d. Male and female (swearer)?

**Research Framework**

Every aspect of people’s lives is actually connected with cultural values and materials that are reflected in our use of language (Saud & Abduh, 2018). In line with this, the current study examines the perceived degree of offensiveness of swear words across gender. This investigation is anchored on the Social Construction Theory of Gender that as a process, gender creates social differences that characterize a woman and a man (Lorber, 1994). Throughout their lives, men and women learn, see, act and react based on what are expected from them, thus simultaneously create and preserve the gender order.

Since gender is socially influenced, those characteristics and attributes, which are believed as feminine and masculine, are perceived to be acceptable as set as the norm of a particular community (Talbot, 1998). These traits that are socially constructed characteristics are also mirrored in the use of language. Thus, the Deficit Approach provides that male language is stronger, more powerful and more desirable while women’s language (WL) appears to be indirect and powerless (Coates, 2004). Therefore, the use of swear words is considered masculine while women, in general, face double scrutiny for using inappropriate language and for using profanities traditionally spoken by men (Lakoff, 1973). It has been suggested that one reason for the differences in usage are due to men’s and women’s attempts to present themselves as congruent with the expected behavior for their position in society (Jay, 1992).

Although it is already assumed that swear words are offensive, gender variable plays an important role as to their perceived degree of offensiveness. Thus, the present paper examined how male and female participants perceive the offensiveness of swear words based on the list provided and on the same-gender and mixed-gender recorded dialogue conversations.

**Methodology**

**Research Setting and Participants of the Study**

The study was conducted at a private provincial college in Luzon. Participants were selected based on the following criteria: 1) they are college male or female; 2) they are 16 years old and above; and 3) they are enrolled in summer classes. A total of 116 students from School of Education, Arts, and Sciences (SEAS), School of Tourism and Hotel and Restaurant Management (STHRM), School of Business Management and Accountancy (SBMA), and School of Engineering (SE) enrolled in English and Mathematics courses during the summer.
classes were recruited. They were composed of 62 males and 54 females. Majority of them were 19 years old and in their third year in college.

**Research Instruments**

The study utilized both the survey and the interview to bring forth a comprehensive description of the perceived degree of offensiveness of swear words among male and female undergraduate students in the chosen locale. In determining the offensiveness of the swear words across gender, the questionnaire developed by Beer-Fagersten (2007) was modified to make it appropriate in the Philippine context. The questionnaire had thirty-four (34) items and was divided into three parts: 1) the respondents’ personal information; 2) the word listings, and; 3) the dialogues. The first part contained the information about the respondents’ year level, age, and sex. Moreover, the second part included a list of sixteen words void of context, such as *hudas, putang-ina, lintik, ulol, gago, tarantado, buwisit, burat, kupal, leche, ungas, punyeta, hinayupak, pestengyawa, and pakshet* commonly used in the Philippine context based on the list provided by Laureta in 2015. In this section, the researchers avoided using the term swear words, so that the students would not have a preconceived notion that the word list contains profanity. Finally, the third part was another rating task that had swearing utterances in 12 dialogues. Notably, the swear words found/heard in the dialogues were similar to the word list introduced in the second part (i.e., *putang-ina, hinayupak, kupal, etc.*). The researchers also provided recorded dialogues where three situations for each of the four groupings (i.e., male-male dialogue, female-female dialogue, male swearer in mixed gender, and female swearer in mixed gender) were presented. The respondents listened to the recorded dialogues first before rating each swear word using the same offensiveness scale introduced in the second part (i.e., 1 - not offensive; 5 - very offensive). Some swear words like *lintik, punyeta, and putang-ina* were intentionally repeated in the succeeding dialogues in order to find out whether there would be a difference in the perception and offensiveness ratings.

Moreover, the interview was conducted to supplement and validate the data from the survey and provide depth in the discussion of the phenomenon. Based on the structure developed by Baudin and Paramasivam (2015), the interview guide contained fifteen open-ended questions that intended to elicit more informative responses toward their perceptions about the use of swear words by male and female. Interestingly, the interview questions were modified in order to address the offensiveness of swear words in same-gender and mixed-gender conversational interactions, which were not included in the original source.

**Data Collection Procedure**
Following the protocol in collecting data, the researchers sought the permission of the school's research director through a formal letter. The researchers then met with the student respondents and explained the aim of the study. The students were told that their participation was voluntary, and they would not be forced in any way to finish answering the items in the questionnaire if in the process they would find the item/s unacceptable in terms of their held values and beliefs. All respondents, in turn, gave their full consent as participants of the study.

Prior to the first rating task, the respondents were instructed to consider the words in the list solely from their perspective. Thus, questions and requests for elaboration of such words that could have provided context, which in turn, could also have influenced their ratings were completely discouraged. Subsequently, to measure the degree of offensiveness of the words, the students were asked to rate each word using an offensiveness scale of 1-5, with 1 - not offensive and 5 - very offensive.

In the second rating task, the respondents listened to the dialogues first before rating the swear words. This was done to make them fully understand the context in which the swear words were used. To provide the appropriate setting and interlocutor details, two males and two females who recently graduated from the same school were interviewed beforehand about the college male and female speech styles and possible situations that make them consciously or unconsciously use swear words. The information shared during the interview became the guide in developing and informing the dialogues for male and female swearers in different social interaction situations. Accordingly, two males and two females were requested to record the dialogues one afternoon at a quiet corner of a coffee shop near the campus a few days before the administration of the survey.

For a clearer perspective of the swearing phenomenon, a follow-up interview was also conducted. The participants were invited after the survey to explain their answers and to possibly give an alternative perspective regarding swearing. However, only ten participants - five males and five females volunteered. Using the structured interview guide with open-ended questions adapted from Baudin and Paramasivam (2015), the researchers were able to obtain richer data by allowing the participants to share their knowledge about swearing; discuss various situations where swear words are used and become a part of their spontaneous speech; cite instances when they perceived them to be offensive, less offensive, or not offensive; and to identify who among the male and female swear more. The participants’ responses were audio-recorded to enable the researchers to review portions that may contain details that could significantly lend support to the survey results. In terms of length, the interview lasted for four minutes on the average per participant.
Method of Analysis

To answer the question as to what swear words were found offensive and not offensive by male and female participants, frequency count was utilized to identify the categories. Mean and standard deviation were also used to analyze the word ratings. To establish the degrees of offensiveness of the swear words used in the different conversational interactions and in same-gender and mixed-gender situations, frequency count, mean, and standard deviation were likewise employed. The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed, analyzed, and categorized to sufficiently describe swearing as a linguistic as well as a social phenomenon among college students.

Rating tasks were performed by the participants to find out the offensiveness of the swear words in the context of this present study. The data from the questionnaire were tabulated and computed to determine the mean scores and standard deviation. In addition, interviews were conducted to determine the veracity of the quantitative data gathered.

Results and Discussion

Offensiveness ratings of swear words by male and female participants

The results of the rating task illustrated that some swear words seem to be more offensive than the others.

Table 1

Over-all offensiveness ratings by male and female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swear Words</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hudas</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-ina</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lintik</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulol</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gago</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarantado</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bwisit</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burat</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kupal</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leche</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Among the 16 swear words on the rating task list, the word *putang ina* gained the highest offensive mean score (M= 4.11, SD=1.15) as presented in Table 1. The overall perception of the participants reported that *putang ina* is offensive. This finding seems to be consistent to the claim made by Tajolosa (2012) that *putang ina* is the most offensive word that can be said to anyone in the Philippines. The word is considered as a derogatory expression since it has an extremely negative undertone that pertains to sexual immorality. Such word is believed to provoke the feeling of hostility and anger of anybody who is labeled with such term as illustrated by the answers of the participants.

The result is further corroborated by the responses of the participants to the interview:

**Interviewer:** What are the common swear words that you hear?

**M3:** Mostly po Maam, putang ina, kang ina, ganun po.
(Mostly po maam, putang ina, kang ina, like those po.)

**Interviewer:** How do you find those words that you mentioned?

**M3:** Offensive po. Nakakagalit. Syempre maam, yung ego nung isang tao natatamaan talaga if sabihan ng ganun.
(Offensive po. It provokes anger. Of course maam, it really hits the ego of the person if he/she will be called as such.)

As described by M3 (Male 3) participant, the word *putang ina*, with its variant *tang ina*, is offensive as it hits the ego of the person to whom the word is used. Another participant...
described the use of the same word to be offensive since it communicates that the speaker is very angry to the person in which the word is intended.

**F1:** *I find P.I. *po to be offensive because *po parang galit na galit yung tao sa akin if sabihan ako ng ganun.*

(I find P.I. (*putang ina*) to be offensive because *po* it seems that the person is very angry at me if I will be called as such.)

The responses made by these research participants show that the word *putang ina* is found to be offensive since it communicates strong emotions. These perceptions are the negative outcomes of swearing as described by Jay (2009) in the form of emotional outburst of the speaker that reflects anger. What makes this expression of emotional state as offensive is that it comes in the form of insults or epithets that normally creates offense on the part of the hearer.

Furthermore, the results show that words like *tarantado* (M=3.65; SD=1.11), *punyeta* (M=3.59; SD=1.22), *hudas* (M=3.52; SD=1.22) and *burat* (M=3.48; SD=1.33) are also found to be offensive. The rest of the swear words included on the rating task list earned neutral offensiveness ratings.

Apart from the overall offensiveness rating results, the analysis also compared the mean ratings of male and female research participants. Female show higher offensives ratings toward swear words except for *bwisit* as compared to their male counterpart. Table 2 summarizes the mean scores and standard deviations for each swear word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swear Words</th>
<th>Male Mean</th>
<th>Male Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Female Mean</th>
<th>Female Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hudas</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-inan</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lintik</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulol</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Previous studies have established that females are more sensitive than males to the offensiveness of swear words (Beer-Fagersten, 2007; Jay & Janchewitz, 2008; Spolsky et al., 2011) and the ratings of the male and female participants in the current research are in accordance with the previous findings. Table 2 illustrates the word putang ina consistently gets the highest mean scores for both group of participants. However, females found the word to be extremely offensive (M=4.30; SD=.92) while males reported it to be offensive (M=3.95; SD=1.30). This perception of women toward putang ina mirrors the previous assertion made by Spolsky et al. (2011) that women are greatly insulted by those words that suggest that they are not sexually desirable or those that signify women as socially or morally condemned such as slut and bitch. The extreme offense that this word creates to women was further validated during the interviews:

**F5:** I find P.I. to be very offensive to kasi feeling ko ang dumi-dumi ko bilang babae.

(I find P.I. po to be very offensive because I feel that I am very sinful as a woman.)

**F1:** Yung putang ina kasi maam punong-puno ng kabastusan lalo na para sa mga babae.

(It’s putang ina because maam it is very rude especially for women.)
The answers of these female respondents show that as a woman, the word *putang ina* is very rude and the person who is called or labeled with such term is “very dirty” that may be equivalent to being immoral.

As previously explained, *putang ina* is literally interpreted as “*your mother is a whore*” where *puta* means prostitute and *ina* as mother which can also be an equivalent term to “*son-of-a-bitch or son-of-a-whore*” in English (Laureta, 2015). In the context of the Philippines, the term prostitutes immediately refer to women who personally provide sexual services in exchange of money. The prostituted women and prostitution are seen as social problems that go against the perceived morality and decency in the society.

In the Philippines, the socially and morally acceptable standards of behavior are anchored towards religious grounds given that the country is largely Roman Catholic (Joaquin, 2014) where women should maintain decency and purity. This could be the reason why female participants in this study showed extreme offense toward the use of *putang ina* as no woman of good reputation would like to be associated with this socially immoral expression. It has been suggested that one reason for the differences in usage of swear words are due to men’s and women’s attempts to present themselves as congruent with the expected behavior for their position in society (Jay, 1992). In this case, the female participants may have based their offensiveness ratings on what is expected from Filipino women.

As regards male participants, they provided quite similar standpoint as they have provided the word *putang ina* with the highest mean score although the scores are lower than the ratings provided by the females. This finding may be seen as different from Spolsky et al. (2011) who expressed that men tend to be insulted by words that indicate that they are inadequate sexually, outcasts socially or not being desirable such as *pussy, bastard* and *motherfucker*. But it appears that the perception toward *putang ina* as offensive is also associated with what is expected of women in the context of the Philippines as pointed out by one of the interviewees:

**Interviewer:** Please tell me what you know about swear words.

**M1:** Yung masasamang words po. Yung *putang ina, king ina, tang ina* po.
(Those bad words po. Those putang ina, kang ina, tang ina po.)
**Interviewer:** What is your perception about the use of these words?

**M1:** Nakakagalit po. Parang na-iimagine kona mama ko sinabihan.

(It evokes anger po. I can imagine my mother being labeled with those words.)

The participant as cited above provided that swear words like *putang ina*, along with its variant forms *king ina* and *tang ina*, creates anger to him since he can imagine his mother being labeled with such word. Since the word literally means that *your mother is a prostitute*, males possibly take offense as they also have mothers, or perhaps sisters, whom they do not want to be called with such derogatory word that is considered to be an extreme insult.

Although the reported offensiveness levels differ, it can be assumed that the word *putang ina* that connotes immoral sexual use of the physical body is the most offensive word for both male and female participants. The current finding shows consistency with other literature that *putang ina* is offensive among Filipinos (Tajolosa, 2012), and that both men and women are universally offended by swear words which are associated with sexual and immoral terms (Spolsky et al., 2011).

Still on the offensive ratings made by gender groups, females also described *punyeta* (M=3.98; SD=1.04) to be offensive along with *tarantado* (M=3.83; SD=1.22), *hudas* (M=3.80; SD=1.26), *gago* (M=3.54; SD=1.13), *hinayupak* (M=3.78; SD=1.19), *burat* (M=3.72; SD=1.32) and *kupal* (M=3.69; SD=1.16). Additionally, *bwisit* (M=2.57; SD=1.16) was rated to be somewhat offensive by the female participants while the rest of the words were found to be neutral.

On the other hand, male participants rated *tarantado* (M=3.48; SD=0.97) to be offensive while swear words considered to be somewhat offensive include *pakshet* (M=2.39; SD=1.19), *leche* (M=2.45; SD=1.08), *ulol* (M=2.44; SD=1.00) and *lintik* (M=2.29; SD=0.98). The rest are reported to be neutral. None of the two gender groups have reported that swear words are not offensive.

The results presented on Table 2 illustrates that women tend to provide higher offensiveness ratings to all the swear words as compared to their male counterparts. Generally, the results are in contrast to the findings found by Jacobi (2011) and Uhlman (2015) that gender groups do not differ on their offensiveness ratings. The findings of the present study tend to reinforce the idea that indeed, women are more sensitive in the use of swear words and find it more offensive as compared to males (Jay, 1992).

**Recorded dialogue conversations**

177
The second rating task of the questionnaire required the participants to consider the offensiveness of particular swear words as used in hypothetical social interaction situations. The recorded dialogues were printed on the questionnaire along with the gender of the speakers. Table 3 shows the rating results made by the participants.

Table 3

*Same-gender and mixed-gender overall offensiveness ratings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swear Words</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leche</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lintik</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bwisit</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punyeta</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lintik</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putcha</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ungas</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burat</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kupal</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinayupak</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-in a</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gago</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putcha</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-in a</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-in a</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pestengyawa</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulol</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punyeta</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As presented in Table 3, *punyeta* got the highest mean score (M=3.91; SD=1.08) among the swear words used in the same-gender and mixed-gender recorded conversation interactions which is described as offensive. As illustrated, *punyeta* has the equivalent meaning to the English term *asshole* which is used to express frustration or disappointments (Tagalog Profanity, 2017). Similarly, *putang ina* was also reported as offensive which got the second highest mean score rating (M=3.59; SD= 1.19). On the other hand, *lintik* (M=2.24; SD=1.15), *bwisit* (M=2.25; SD=1.17), *lintik* (M=2.42; SD=1.20), *putcha* (M=2.28; SD=1.24) and *putcha*...
(M=2.48; SD=1.11) were found to be somewhat offensive. The rest of the swear words used are reported to be neutral.

The results based on the offensiveness ratings in the dialogue interactions provide that generally, swear words are generally offensive and some words are judged consistently to be more profane than other words (Beer-Fagersten, 2007).

### Offensive ratings in same-gender and mixed-gender situations

The rating task based on the recorded conversation situations also indicates variations in the evaluation of swear words according to gender. Generally, females consistently provided higher offensiveness ratings than males did just like in an all-male conversation participants as reported in Table 4.

**Table 4**

**Offensiveness ratings in all-male conversation interactions (male as swearer)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swear Words</th>
<th>Male Mean</th>
<th>Male Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Female Mean</th>
<th>Female Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lintik</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putcha</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burat</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kupal</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang ina</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pesteng yawa</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulol</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As presented in Table 4, the male participants of this study generally provided neutral ratings toward the use of swear words except for *lintik* (M=2.32; SD=1.20) and *putcha* (M=2.29; SD=1.24) which are both interpreted as somewhat offensive. For females, they reported *kupal* (M=3.52; SD=0.99) and *putang ina* (M=3.41; SD=1.27) to be offensive while *burat*, *ulol* and *pesteng yawa* are found to be neutral. Additionally, *lintik* and *putcha* were viewed to be somewhat offensive.

The findings somehow demonstrates relatively low ratings as to the offensiveness of the swear words used where the interaction participants are all males. This may be associated
to that “macho effect” of swearing to men (Jay, 1992) as reinforced by the interview participants:

The result of the data are further supported by the responses to the interview:

**M3:** Actually, parang common na kasi sa boys po yung pag swear. 

Napakabihira ng maka-encounter ng lalaki na hindi nagmumura.

(Actually, it seems common for boys po to swear. It is very seldom to encounter a man who doesn’t swear.)

**M4:** It is normal for boys to swear po. Kasi anlakas makalalaki eh.

(It is normal for boys to swear po. Because it extremely boost masculinity eh.)

**M5:** Kasi it’s typical na makakarinig ako ng nagseswear na lalaki, so hindi siya offensive.

(Because it’s typical for me to hear a man swearing so it is not offensive.)

The answers made by the male respondents illustrate that swearing has become a normal linguistic phenomenon among males and the use of swear words appears to boost the idea of masculinity. The results sustain the long been claimed belief that swearing is chiefly part of the masculine behavior (Vingerhoets, Bylsma and Vlam, 2013). As this becomes normal among men, swearing tend to become just a passing expression especially when the conversation involves them only.

As Lakoff (2004) posited, men are expected to know how to swear and to tell and appreciate inappropriate jokes. On the other hand, women are expected to speak properly, and they usually use euphemism to replace off-color or insensitive expressions. Such beliefs allow the continuing persistence of public perception that swearing is more acceptable for males as compared to females (Spolsky et al., 2011).

On the other hand, women still find swear words as offensive even if the conversations involve only the males. This view likely supports the assertion of Spolsky et al. (2011) that females have generally negative attitude towards offensive language than males. The same trend is found in the rating results that involved all-female conversation participants. As shown in Table 5, higher offensiveness ratings were reported by females as compared to their male counterpart.

Table 5

*Offensiveness ratings in all-female interaction (female as swearer)*
As presented in Table 5, males find the use of swear words used in all-female conversations as somewhat offensive except for *ungas* (M=2.71; SD=1.11) which is neutral. On the other hand, females found the words *leche* (M=2.46; SD=1.04) and *lintik* (M=2.37; SD=1.15) to be somewhat offensive while *ungas* (M=2.38; SD=1.11) and *punyeta* (M=2.96; SD=1.15) to be neutral. Although the interpretations of the ratings do not greatly vary, it has been found that female participants consistently show to be more offended by the use of swear words than males. The aspect of emotional impact could have played a significant role in this kind of linguistic situation.

According to an interviewee, when it is a girl who swears, it does not provide the same degree of emotions as compared to how men utter the word:

**F5:** *If it’s a girl who swears po, hindi siya masyadong masakit, parang wala masyadong impact. Kapag lalaki, ang sakit-sakit sa tenga.*

(If it’s a girl who swears po, it doesn’t hurt that much, it seems that it doesn’t have too much impact. If it’s a boy, it extremely hurts the ears.)

The less emotional impact created by women in the use of swear words might be a reflection of the dominance of females’ linguistic femininity which is believed to be weak and powerless (Lakoff, 1973) in spite of using generally strong masculine word forms.

In the context of mixed-gender conversation interactions, it is very interesting to note that females are found to be extremely offended when an opposite sex swears in their presence as shown in Table 6.

Table 6

*Offensiveness ratings in all male-female interactions (male as swearer)*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punyeta</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinayupak</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putcha</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 presents differing interpretations of the word *punyeta* as used by a male speaker with a female listener. As shown, females find it extremely offensive (M=4.31; SD=0.86) while males perceive it as offensive (M=3.56; SD=1.13). It should be noted that the highest offensive mean rating is found in this context. The result supports the study of Salami and Awolowo (2006) who expressed that women’s language is more refined and more polite, thus, vulgar and profane words are not associated with them. While Key (1975) added that in order to ensure female’s femininity, her linguistic habit not only the prohibition of the use of swear words but also, swearing in the presence of opposite sex must be avoided. So it appears that there is this unwritten language rule that it is not appropriate for a man to swear in the presence of a woman. If this happens, it appears to be a violation of the cultural norm and creates extreme offense to women as illustrated by the following respondents:

**F2:** *Mas offensive kung galing sa lalaki kaysa sa galing sa kapwa ko babae.*

*Masakit po yun tapos parang hindi tama.*

(It is more offensive if it comes from a man as compared from fellow woman. It hurts and it doesn’t seem right.)

**F3:** *Parang ang sama ng lenggwahe maam. Ahhhhmm... Parang punong-puno ng kabastusan kapag mag bad words ang mga lalaki tapos babae po kasama.*

(It seems a bad language maam. Ahhhmm... It seems very rude for a man to swear in the presence of a woman.)

Although they could not exactly find the reasons why they feel as such, female interviewees expressed that it is truly offensive for a man to swear in their presence. They think that it is very offensive to hear it from the opposite sex as compared to hearing it from their
fellow females. They also added that swearing in such situation is not acceptable as it creates too much insult. This supports the idea expressed by Vingerhoets et al. (2013) that both men and women believe that it is very unlikely to swear in the presence of someone who belongs to other gender.

Additionally, the highest offensiveness rating reported in this mixed-gender conversation among all the offensiveness rating tasks could also be influenced by the word being uttered in the situation is putang ina. Since the expression has a sexual and immoral undertone that seemed to be thrown to a woman coming from a man, female research participants may have found it to be very coarse and rude.

In addition, hinayupak is perceived to be offensive by female participants whereas considered to be neutral for male participants. In addition, putcha is reported to be neutral by both genders.

As regards the offensiveness ratings in mixed-gender interactions where the female conversation participant swears, the results consistently provided higher ratings from the females as reflected in Table 7.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Swear Words</th>
<th>Male Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Female Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bwisit</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-inan</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gago</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putang-inan</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of putang ina among females in mixed-gender interactions is similarly perceived to be offensive by male and female participants as shown in Table 7. This finding has consistently supported the belief that putang ina is the most offensive swear word in the Philippines (Tajolosa, 2012). Additionally, the result suggests that putang ina, even if it comes from a female speaker, creates offense to the listener regardless of gender. Although, the reported rating may also be influenced by the context of the conversation since another putang
ina was rated as neutral only by both genders. The female research participants also perceived gago (M=3.56; SD=1.16) as offensive and bwisit (M=2.30; SD=1.19) as somewhat offensive which was similarly reported by males (M=2.21; SD=1.16). For males, gago (M=3.34; SD=1.19) is perceived to be neutral.

From the results presented, females consistently provided higher offensiveness ratings than males did. This may suggest that females, with whom swearing is traditionally not associated, are more sensitive to the possible offense that swearing might create or to the perceived inappropriateness in the use of swear words.

Conclusion

This study explores the perceived offensiveness of swear words across gender that aims to illustrate the current status of swearing norm in relation to gender in the contemporary context of the Philippines. This made use of survey questionnaire and interviews to discover the swear words found to be offensive by the research participants. It also examines same-gender and mixed-gender situations to determine how the gender of the swearer and of the interlocutors influences the offensiveness ratings.

Based on the results, it was found that putang ina is consistently perceived to be the most offensive swear word among Filipino university students. As illustrated from the responses made by the participants, the word is considered to be very offensive as it involves extremely negative undertone that pertains to sexual immorality. The word is believed to provoke individual’s feeling of hostility and anger when addressed with such term as Filipinos greatly value the concept of respect and dignity especially among women.

Moreover, females were more sensitive and were more offended as regards the use of swear words as compared to their male counterparts. As revealed by both gender groups in this study, swearing has become a common linguistic marker among boys/men. The uses of swear words have become a part of male’s identity and linguistic repertoire. In contrast, women appear to be more sensitive to swearing that could be brought by the long held belief that women should talk politely and should avoid the use of offensive and coarse language. Since women, generally, are not associated to swear words, the use of these words probably creates greater emotional impact and offense, which appears to be consistent to what is expected of them. However, this does not mean that males did not find swear words to be offensive. In fact, males in this study also displayed certain level of offensiveness.
In addition, all swear words are inherently offensive although some of these words are more offensive than the others regardless of the context. As found in this investigation, all the swear words in the rating tasks based on the list and also those which were used in the recorded dialogue were rated with various degrees of offensiveness by the students. Words like *putang ina* and *pumyeta* were consistently offensive while others were found to be just somewhat offensive like *pakshet* and *ungas*. The differences of the impact of these words could be attributed to their underlying meanings and context that determine the degree of offense.

Furthermore, the study found that it is extremely offensive for a man to swear in the presence of a woman. Since swearing involves words that are potentially offensive, it does not seem to be appropriate for a man to utter these words in the presence of women.

Finally, gender differences are again clearly evident where female appears to be more offended on the use of swear words than men. This may suggest that Filipinos in this contemporary society still hold on to the idea as expressed by Lober (1994) that individuals learn what is expected, see what is expected and act and react as expected to maintain gender order. Thus, individuals behave in the ways they learned to be acceptable for their gender status as defined by the socio-cultural norm. As regards swear words, women in the Philippine context are more offended than men. This may suggest that females in this case are just appropriating their reactions, as they need to present themselves in congruence with the expected attitude or behavior in the Philippine culture and norm.

**Pedagogical Implications**

Swearing has become a part of college students’ everyday language, although its frequency of use is more associated to males than females. The stereotypical structure that males have been accustomed to spontaneous swearing makes males appear to care less about the feelings of other people. Swear words, when used inappropriately, can trigger strong, negative emotions that may harm the relationships of the interlocutors or break a moral boundary. The current linguistic choice and view on the degree of offensiveness of swear words of the Filipino college students may have been likely influenced by their exposure to different languages, modern culture, and popularity of social media (Tajolosa, 2012). This linguistic phenomenon results in unfavorably labeling students with “low socio-intellectual status” (Valdesolo, 2016). To avoid this undue and harsh judgment and to repair what went amiss, both male and female students must be properly educated and be constantly reminded about the use of appropriate words, instead of swear words or vulgar language, both in the formal and informal settings so as not to sound offensive. As young adults, they should learn how to
creatively articulate their thoughts and express their feelings and emotions in ways that will show politeness. They must also realize that verbal fluency and mutual respect between interlocutors should not be undermined.

Language teachers, therefore, should expose students to situational activities where students can use various language functions and expressions for effective communication. By incorporating meaningful activities that mirror real life scenarios, students will have opportunities to increase their knowledge, awareness, and sensitivity about the use of offensive words towards others. They will develop a keen sense of control of language in social situations. Hence, they will be able to manage conflict and maintain good relations with others in the school or in the workplace.

References


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. The Asian EFL Journal, 23 (3.4), 5-21.
Deciphering Meaning in the Chabacano Speakers’ Illocutionary Acts

Eden G. Aquino
Zamboanga Chong Hua High School

Arnel R. Madrazo
Western Mindanao State University

Abstract
Drawn from Searle’s (1975) illocutionary speech acts, the present study analyzed the Chabacano college students’ conversation in an attempt to decipher the speakers’ true intention in their utterances. It is an exploratory qualitative study that involved 20 participants conversing about certain engaging social issues. The main objective was to describe and interpret the interlocutors’ utterances as they progress in an actual authentic conversation among friends. The corpus revealed that the rural cluster elicited more illocutionary acts in all categories: representatives, directives, expressives, commissives, verdictives, and declaratives. The findings would be indicative of the rural participants’ confidence and spontaneity in expressing their thoughts given that their knowledge of Chabacano accent, lexicon, semantics and syntax is still very much intact compared to the urban cluster.

**Keywords:** Chabacano speakers, Chabacano language, Zamboanga City, speech acts, illocutionary speech acts

**Introduction**

In the past, Zamboanga City had significant contacts with various peoples with distinct languages and cultures, for example the Dutch, the Chinese, the Spaniards, the Japanese and the Americans who all interacted with the natives and left them with diverse robust cultures. The Spaniards were the most remarkable among them. They gave the local townsfolk the gifts of religion and language. Consequently, the Zamboangueños saw the development of a *pidgin*, a mixture of native language like Hiligaynon, Bisaya, Tausug lexicon with some Spanish words that later transformed into a Chabacano Creole (Aquino & Madrazo, 2019; Barrios, 2006; Madrazo, 2019; Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012, 2018), a regional language with its own lexical, semantic and grammatical system which is cradle language to many Zamboangueños, and still remains as the city’s lingua franca.

People are drawn together in groups that have common values, norms and practices, and a common language that they use in everyday interactions. Linguists call these groups *Speech Communities*, referring to it as “a community sharing a knowledge of the rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech” (Shridhar 1996). When people talk to each other, they express themselves in different ways. This is because as members of a Speech Community, they have a variety of alternatives at hand for expressing the same idea. They also use certain techniques called Conversational Devices in conveying meaning or in assigning functions in utterances called Macro Speech Acts. The combination of these techniques and their meaning make up a speaker’s *Conversational Style*, that is, one’s way of saying things in a language.
Labov (1996) categorizes these styles as *casual speech* and *careful style*. They may also be classified as social or regional. They are reflected in the way people present an image of themselves during social interactions and in the measures they take to maintain face in order to avoid being embarrassed or of embarrassing someone else.

The study of what people say and how they say it in the conduct of interaction can lead to an understanding of how these interactions both influence and are influenced by the society in which they occur. Hence, this research was conducted in order to determine the Chabacano speakers’ true intentions in their utterance their their illocutionary acts were residents of either rural or urban areas of Zamboanga City, as they go into their day to day social interactions.

**Literature Review**

**Speech act theory**

When people speak to one another, they make use of sentences or utterances to express their feelings and ideas. Without sentences, one would find it hard to naturally and fluently express oneself in any language. In English basics, sentences may be classified in a number of ways. They may be classified according to their four (4) basic types: declarative, interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative; by their structure: simple, compound, complex, compound-complex; or by their clausal type: active-passive, dependent-independent, and so on. But what is more important than their structural classifications is the meaning that utterances intend to convey.

When we say something, we perform an act. It may be requesting, promising, condoling or countless others. These are called *speech acts*. A speech act is the basic unit in communication used to express meaning (Littlejohn & Foss 1996). It is a word, a phrase, or a sentence that expresses a proposition or intention. When a speaker speaks, he stresses his intention. When the listener understands the intention, then the speech act is successful.

Austin (1962) first came up with the Speech Act Theory when he proposed two kinds of utterances: *constative utterances* and *performative utterances*. *Constative utterances* are connected to everyday events and can be judged to be either true or false. Examples of these utterances are: “I had a busy day today”, “Have you called your mother?” and “Dinner’s ready!” (Wardhaugh, 2006).
Another kind of constative utterance is “ethical” propositions which can also be judged as either true or false. But the real purpose of these propositions is not their truth or falsity but to serve as guides to certain expected behavior. The following statements illustrate this: “God is love”, “Thou shalt not kill”, “Big boys don’t cry”, and “You must tell the truth”.

Still another type of such proposition is the “phatic” type. Statements like “How do you do?” and “You’re looking good today” both indicate that a person is willing to talk to another, and that the channel of communication is open between them.

On the other hand, performative utterances are those that do something in certain situations. Pronouncements such as “I baptize you Juan dela Cruz” is to baptize someone, most likely a child. To say “I do” is to find one married to someone. To hear someone say to you “I sentence you to five years in prison” is to find yourself convicted of a crime. Such utterances perform the acts of baptizing, marrying or sentencing (Wardhaugh 2006).

Drawing from the work of Austin, Searle (1975) expanded the notion of the Speech Act Theory by proposing three (3) different kinds of acts: utterance acts, propositional acts, and illocutionary acts. He later added a fourth kind, perlocutionary acts.

In the light of Austin and Searle’s theory, Littlejohn and Foss explain that when a person makes a statement like “I will pay you back”, he is performing at least three or four acts. The first is an utterance act (which Austin calls locutionary act), or the mere saying of the words. The second is a propositional act, because the speaker is convinced that he or she is telling the truth. The third is an illocutionary act, because the speaker is making a promise. And finally, a perlocutionary act, because the speaker wants the listener to do something about the proposition (Perhaps the speaker wants the listener to loan the former some money).

The primary concern of an Illocutionary Act is that the listener understands the speaker’s intention – to make a promise, a request, or whatever. In a perlocutionary act, the speaker expects the listener not only to understand the proposition but also to act on it.

This study focused on the aspects of the Illocutionary Acts in determining the Conversational Styles in Chabacano among college students of the Western Mindanao State University, Zamboanga City, who were rural and urban dwellers of Zamboanga City.

Illocutionary acts

An illocution is an act in which the speaker’s concern is that the listener understands the intention – to make a promise, a request, or whatever. Searle (1975) outlines five types of illocutionary acts.
1. **Directives** are illocutions that attempt to get the listener to do something. They are commands, requests, pleadings, entreaties, invitations, and so forth.

2. **Commissives** commit the speaker to a future act. They consist of such things as promising, vowing, pledging, contracting, and guaranteeing.

3. **Expressives** are acts that communicate some aspects of the speaker’s psychological state, such as thanking, congratulating, apologizing, condoling, and welcoming.

4. **Declaratives** are designed to create a proposition that, by its very assertion, makes it so. Examples include appointing, marrying, firing, and resigning.

5. **Verdictives** deliver a finding as to the value of a fact, and rate some entity or situation on a scale, i.e., assessing, ranking, estimating, and all other judgmental acts.

6. **Representatives** are said to be Illocutionary Acts that undertake to represent a state of affairs, for example, stating, claiming, hypothesizing, describing, predicting and telling, suggesting or assuming that something is the case.

Speakers usually try to convey meaning in their utterances. But the problem with this is that statements do not always carry the meaning the speaker wishes to convey. Assigning functions to sentences may pose problems in that the apparent sentence meaning does not always match the speaker’s intention. They sometimes express a different idea or sometimes even the opposite (as in sarcasm) (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; McKay & Hornberger 1996).

Hatch (1992) explains that syntactic forms alone cannot be used as a basis for interpreting speaker intent. The danger lies in the fact that the listener may assign a literal meaning to a statement.

Hatch (1992) further explains Illocutionary Acts and gives examples of each: Commissives can vary in strength. They may be strong or highly hedged. Examples: Perhaps we’ll see each other again. I swear to tell the truth. Representatives may vary in terms of how hedged or aggravated the statement may be. “You are partially correct” is not as strong as “You are right.” Declaratives, when made, bring a new state of being to things. The statement “I find you guilty of charged” changes the status of the accused from innocent to guilty. The statement “I now pronounce you man and wife” also changes the couple’s civil status. However, this is only possible when the persons making such pronouncements are duly authorized to do so, otherwise, no real change will take place. Statements of joy, disappointments, likes and dislikes can be found in all languages. But as in all forms of Illocutionary Acts, they vary in strength.
Speech act functions

Despite the problems posed by interpreting the intentions of the speaker, efforts have been made to assign functions to Speech Acts. Speech Acts can be divided into functions, which are further divided into sub-functions. Van Ek (1976) identified six (6) major functions of Speech Acts: 1. Exchange factual information; 2. Exchange intellectual information; 3. Exchange emotional attitudes; 4. Exchange moral attitudes; 5. Suasion, and; 6. Socializing.

Brown (1994) believes that van Ek’s functions of Speech Acts are common everyday acts which also fall under Halliday’s (1973) categories of functions. Halliday (1973, in Brown 1994) uses the term function to refer to the purpose of communication and proposes seven functions of language namely, the instrumental or “I need” function; the regulatory or “do this” function; the interactional function which allows the individual to interact with others; the personal function by which a person expresses himself in a language; the heuristic or “teach me” function; the imaginative or “let’s pretend” function, and; the informative function which lets people share information with each other.

Since Zamboangueños are known to be a conservative people, one cannot help but think how they present themselves in face-to-face interactions. This study intended to find this out among college students of the Western Mindanao State University.

Speech communities

Scholars have defined the term Speech Community in various ways. Shridhar (1996) defines it as “a community sharing a knowledge of the rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech” (p. 48). He stresses that communication is a skilled work and that individuals are versed in the norms and patterns of interaction in their societies. Others define a speech community as individuals sharing the same language, showing rules of speaking and interpretation of speech performance, and sharing sociocultural understandings and familiarity with speech (McKay and Hornberger, 1996).

Saville –Troike (2003) sees all these definitions narrowing down on the same idea shared rules for contextually appropriate use and interpretation of language.

Bolinger (1975) points out that society has a number of varieties of communities brought together by the desire of human beings to league themselves together for self-identification, security, gain, amusement, worship or other purposes that are held in common. Shridar believes that Bolinger’s definition means that there may be more than one speech community in one geographical area in multilingual communities, and that individuals can
simultaneously identify themselves with certain groups because of factors such as language, religion, or ethnicity. In monolingual communities, speakers will observe certain norms such as when to speak or interrupt a speaker, how to compliment or thank someone, how to make a request politely, and so on. Multilingual communities likewise observe these norms plus their considerations such as which language to use on what occasion and with whom.

Individuals also establish their own speech network. A speech network is the specific linkages of persons who interact with each other regularly or from time to time. A person may be linked to another because they work together or are engaged in the same sport but never meet in any other context. This relationship is called uniplex. Multiplex, relationships on the other hand, invoke interactions with others among different spheres. Thus, a workmate may also be gym buddy and someone you go to church with on Sundays. Several speech networks are found within a language field, the total range of communities sharing the same grammatical rules or linguistic variety. Speech networks are also found within a speech field, speech communities sharing the same rules of speaking.

Holmes (2001) stresses that people’s speech reflects the types of network they belong to. It is influenced by the people they interact with. When an individual mixes with people who belong to a homogenous group that individual will speak the way the other members of the group does, provided that he or she likes them and would want to belong to the group. Holmes maintains that parents notice this when their children’s speech resemble those of the other children in school and not those of the family; or when teen-age gang members exhibit a distinctive way of speaking. Such was the case of African American male gang members of New York, who used the vernacular form more as their involvement with the gang grew deeper. Holmes also believes that adults may change their speech forms as they move from one context to another to signify their affiliation with more than one network. A student for example may use a more standard form with friends at a university, and more local vernacular forms when she goes home.

Hymes (2010) posits that one may be a member of a speech community and may possess knowledge of grammatical rules (language field) but may not be aware of the rules of speaking of a particular language (language field). If that individual possesses both of this knowledge, then he or she is able to function communicatively in the language. Hymes finally sums up the notion of Speech Community in the following:
“One’s Speech community may be effectively, a single locality or portion of it, one’s language field will be delimited by one’s repertoire of patterns of speaking. One’s speech network is the effective union of these last two.” (Hymes 1972)

As members of a speech community, the participants in this study expressed the speech of their own social group. Rules of speaking also constitute a speaker’s style; therefore, this study intended to find out what rules of speaking these participants observed and if speakers from both rural and urban communities shared the same rules.

**The present study**

The participants in this study were college students of the Western Mindanao State University enrolled during the school year 2010 – 2011. Students whose first language was Chabacano, and who were residents of the following barangays: Sta. Maria, Pasonanca, Tetuan, Putik, La Paz, Talisayan, Culianan and Curuan, were chosen for the study. The scope of this study centered on the Conversational Styles in Chabacano among WMSU college students residing in either urban and rural communities of Zamboanga City. The description, analysis and interpretation of Conversational Styles were focused on the following categories: illocutionary speech acts devices.

**Objectives of the Study**

This study sought to describe, analyze and interpret the Conversational Styles in Chabacano among college students of the Western Mindanao State University who were residents of either urban or rural communities in Zamboanga City.

The specific aims of the study were the following:

1. To describe, analyze, and interpret the illocutionary speech acts among Chabacano-speaking college students of the Western Mindanao State University, residing in the following areas of Zamboanga City
   a. urban communities
   b. rural communities
2. To describe and analyze, possible difference in the use of illocutionary speech acts among Chabacano-speaking college students of the Western Mindanao State University residing in the following areas of Zamboanga City:
   a. urban communities
   b. rural communities

195
Method

Research design

This study made use of the Exploratory Qualitative Descriptive Research Design. Language data were gathered from the naturally occurring conversations of the participants, whose first language is Chabacano. The collected data formed the bases of description, analysis and interpretation of the Conversational Styles in Chabacano of speakers from both urban and rural communities of Zamboanga City.

Population and Sampling

For the purpose of generating representative data, four (4) urban barangays and four (4) rural barangays were chosen to compose the urban and rural clusters. These were: Urban Cluster – Sta. Maria, Pasonanca, Tetuan, Putik, and; Rural Cluster – La Paz, Talisayan, Culianan, and Curuan. This brought to eight (8) the total number of barangays for the study.

The participants in this study were college students of the Western Mindanao State University enrolled during the school year 2010 – 2011, and whose first language is Chabacano. Three (3) participants, composing one (1) group, were selected from each barangay using the Snowball Sampling Technique. This brought to twenty-four (24) the total number of participants representing the eight (8) barangays.

Research Instrument

The research instrument consisted of eight (8) topics which the team leader/moderator presented in the form of situations or personal experiences. The participants were expected to respond or react to these situations, thus, conversation would take place. The researcher took the role of an observer during the participants’ conversations in the school campus. Her observations were taken down as field notes while spoken utterances were recorded through audio and video recording.

Reliability and Validity

The research instrument was pilot tested on a group of students with similar characteristics as the participants in the study. Eight (8) situations were given for their discussion in order to determine which of them would elicit the highest number of Illocutionary Acts. In order to ensure the correctness of the analyses and interpretations of the data, the researcher sought the participants’ reactions and opinions after the fact. This was done only when certain phenomena in the data needed to be clarified. Similarly, the opinions of non-
participants were also solicited. These included three (3) language teachers of the Western Mindanao State University who had knowledge of the nuances of Chabacano.

**Data Gathering Procedure**

During the collection of data, eight (8) groups of students from both urban and rural barangays of Zamboanga City were observed during their natural conversations in school. The groups were observed one after the other on separate occasions during their free time in a designated area in the school campus.

Each group was composed of three (3) participants whose consent to be audio – video recorded was sought. This number allowed the observer to accurately capture their turn-taking moments and to closely and keenly observe their reactions on certain topics/issues raised or comments made by the other interlocutors.

First, the researcher went to the Dean of the College of Education, College of Social Sciences and College of Communications and Humanities to seek permission to conduct the research and to obtain the records of the students to determine their qualification for the study. The recommendations of subject teachers were also solicited for the same purpose. Then, a series of interviews was conducted to select the students who would act as the team leader/moderator of each group. The interviews were conducted in Chabacano and included some questions on the students’ use of the language, and an extemporaneous speech in Chabacano on a topic selected by the students. The students who were selected as team leaders also recruited two of their friends who also studied in the same university, lived in the same barangays as they, and whose first language was Chabacano. These students also went through the same interview as the team leaders/moderators. The students chosen for the study were asked to sign a consent form indicating their willingness to participate in the study, as well as the videotaping schedule most convenient to them.

Before the start of each recording session, the participants were briefed on certain guidelines of the activity. These included an assurance that their identity would be concealed in the report to protect their privacy. They were also encouraged to use Chabacano in the way they naturally spoke the language. They were also urged to use monikers during the entire conversation. Lastly, the discussion of the topics included anything the participants could think of spontaneously.

A team leader was assigned to act as moderator to ensure the spontaneous flow of the free – willing discussion.
The first ten (10) minutes of their conversation was not recorded. This served as an ice-breaker to allow the participants to feel relaxed and be more at ease during the succeeding minutes of their interaction.

The audio–video recording of the conversation started after ten (10) minutes and ended after thirty (30) minutes.

**Data Analysis Procedure**

Once the data were collected through audio and video recording, the tapes and videos were transcribed, translated and analyzed.

The data consisted of the utterances made by the participants and how these utterances were made. They were transcribed following the transcription code used in the study of Tannen (1984). Figure 7 shows the Key to Transcription Conventions. The utterances were also translated to English for better comprehension, especially by non-Chabacano readers. After its transcription, the utterances were validated by three (3) professors of the Western Mindanao State University who were experts in English and who were also Chabacano speakers, taking into account the speakers’ turn-taking moments. The number of turn units was analyzed following Cookes’ (1990) Basic Units of Analysis. These formed the bases for the interpretation of the data.

**Results and Discussion**

**The illocutionary acts among Chabacano-speaking college students**

Table 1.0 presents summary results of illocutionary speech acts among the Chabacano-speaking college students in Zamboanga City. It shows that the overall frequency of occurrence of illocutionary speech acts is 4,023. The highest frequency of occurrence is obtained by the rural cluster (La Paz, Talisayan, Culianan, & Curuan) with 1,392 (34.60%) occurrence on representatives. The La Paz group gets 400 (9.94%) occurrence, Talisayan 260 (6.46%), and Culianan 403 (10.02%). Still on representatives, the urban cluster garnered only 941 (23.39%) frequency of occurrence, the Sta. Maria group 309 (7.68%), Tetuan 157 (3.90%), Putik 160 (3.98%), and Pasonanca 315 (7.83%).

*Representatives* are said to be Illocutionary Acts that undertake to represent a state of affairs, for example, stating, claiming, hypothesizing, describing, predicting and telling, suggesting or assuming that something is the case (Searle 1975 in Traugott and Pratt, 1980). The corpus revealed several instances of Representatives. Consider the following transcripts:
Sample transcript

1) S1: Queber tu de aquel noche, bien alegria gat came na diamun casa, cay compleáño man dimio tata. *(smiles and raises eye brows)* Siempre, adentro de cuarenta’y seis año, ara lang came ya celebra, bien mucho gayot, ya mata came sinco bilog puerco. *(Points to five fingers).* [You know the other night, we were very happy at home because it was my dad’s birthday. Of course since it was our first time to celebrate his birthday in forty-six years, there was much food. We even slaughtered five pigs.] (Utterance 1, Student 1, Curuan)

34) S1: Aquel biejo-bieja, aquel maridable pati aquel kwan o *(counts with her fingers)* [The elderly couple and their whatchamacallit] (Utterance 34, Student 1, Curuan)

64) S2: Oo, na diamon boarding house, bisinos lang came, pilit lang gat el casa// [Yes, at our boarding house. We’re neighbors. Our houses are very close.] (Utterance 64, Student 2, Curuan)

16) S1: Cabar, dol rabiao gat comigo el kwan o, el tindera, aquel cay dos man maridable man aquel *(raises two fingers and points)* sila alla, mga biejo-bieja yall// [Then they seemed very mad at me, the uh, lady store keeper, since they were an elderly couple there] (Utterance 16, Student 1, Talisayan)

51) S1: Cabar, bien corre ba el jeep ba, después aga aga ba, ya sale ya desbia ba le aquel motor ba, el motor tamen bien corre gat el jeep ba! Bueno cay sabe maneja imbuenamente kwan o, el driver del jeep, ya puede le desbia conell// [And the jeep ran so fast that early morning. It appeared that it avoided a motorcycle. The motorcycle and the jeep both ran very fast. Fortunately, the driver knew how to drive very well, uh, he managed to avoid the] (Utterance 51, Student 1, Talisayan)

Utterance 1 above shows that Student 1 is telling or narrating his experience during the birthday celebration of his father the other night. Utterance 34 and 64 are examples of describing. Likewise, in utterance 16, Student 1 describes the saleslady. In Utterance 51 above, S1 narrates his experience in riding a jeep in the morning.

The second highest frequency is obtained by the rural cluster on directives with the frequency of 742 (18.44%), specifically, the La Paz group 164 (4.08%), Talisayan 175 (4.35%), Culianan 206 (5.12%) and Curuan 197 (4.90%). However, the urban cluster only got the frequency of 370 (9.20%), the Sta. Maria group 125 (3.11%), Tetuan 60 (1.49%), Putik 65 (1.62%), and Pasonanca 120 (2.98%).
Directives get the addressee to do something, i.e., requesting, commanding, pleading, inviting, questioning, daring, insisting and the like (Searle 1975 in Traugott and Pratt, 1980). The data in this present study show some examples of directives. Below are sample transcripts:

Sample transcript

61) S1: Entende gaha sila?// [Would they understand?] (Utterance 61, Student 1, Curuan)

4) S2: Cosa man daw?// [What is it?] (Utterance 4, Student 2, Talisayan)

28) S3: Cosa year ba quel?// [What year is he in?] (Utterance 28, Student 3, Talisayan)

67) S3: Yan saway era canila.// [You should have stopped them.] (Utterance 67, Student 3, Curuan)

81) S3: Pidi ya lang ka ano o, sorry, habla pasencia// [Just say “Sorry” and ask for forbearance.] (Utterance 81, Student 3, Curuan)

The intention of Student 1 in Utterance 61 is rhetorically stated and is more of asking that the neighbors have to understand since birthday only happens once a year. They have to understand the noise. In Utterance 4, Student 2 is simply asking what it is, while in utterance 28, Student 3 is plainly asking what year it is. Utterance 67 and 81 are examples of instructing others.

The third in rank is the illocutionary speech act expressives garnered by the rural cluster with the frequency of 175 (4.35%), specifically, La Paz 10 (0.24%), Talisayan 26 (0.64%), Culianan 71 (1.76%), Curuan 68 (1.69%). But, the urban cluster obtains only 106 (2.63%) frequency of occurrence on expressives, the Sta. Maria group 29 (0.72%), Tetuan 23 (0.57%), Putik 25 (0.62%) and Pasonanca 29 (0.72%).

Expressives express only the speaker’s psychological attitude toward some state of affairs like congratulating, thanking, deploring/expressing grief, condoling, welcoming, greeting and the like (Searle 1975 in Traugott and Pratt, 1980). Some sample transcripts are presented below:

Sample transcript

102) S2: Ay, Señor! (covers mouth)// [Oh, my God!] (Utterance 102, Student2, Curuan)

164) S1: Siempre, bien shock gat yo alla, nah! Paquilaya ya lang kame ara?// [Of course I was really shocked. What would happen to us now?] (Utterance 164, Student 1, Curuan)

247) S3: Sayang! paquilaya man camo man mirajan ulit?// [Too bad! How can you see each other again?] (Utterance 247, Student 3, Curuan)
57) S1: Nah, nusabe lang ka, **bien tiene gat yo miedo/** [Well, you just don’t know it. I was so scared.] (Utterance 32, Student 2, Talisayan)

73) S1: Ehh, todo ya lang!/ [Ow, there you go again!] (Utterance 73, Student 1, Talisayan)

Student 2 in Utterance 102 above expresses a great surprise. In utterance 164, Student 1 expresses an intense disbelief while Student 3, in utterance 247, makes an outpour of disappointment. Student 1, in utterance 57, expresses fear about the accident that may happen along the road when one rides a jeep, while in utterance 73 he is expressing dismay on certain unfavorable comment.

The fourth is **verdictives** obtained by still the rural cluster with the frequency of 171 (0.04%), the La Paz group 9 (0.22%), Talisayan 40 (0.99%), Culiannan 26 (0.65%), and Curuan 96 (2.39%). On the other hand, the urban cluster obtains a minimal frequency on **verdictives** with only 86 (2.14%) frequency of occurrence, specifically, the Sta. Maria group 28 (0.70%), Tetuan 13 (0.37%), Putik 15 (0.37%) and Pasonanca 30 (0.74%).

**Verdictives** deliver a finding as to value or fact, and rate some entity or situation on a scale, i.e., assessing, ranking, estimating, and all other judgmental acts (Searle 1975 in Traugott and Pratt, 1980). The corpus in the present study yields some utterances which can be considered as **verdictives**. Below are some examples:

**Sample transcript**

461) S2: Ay! Demoño gat ele o!/ [Oh! She’s really a devil!] (Utterance 461, Student 2, Curuan)

471) S1: Uy, quien ba quel, ta uwi yo, mareng daw se si Noynoy.// [Wow! Who was that I’ve heard, that Noynoy is gay?]

472) S3: Ay, mareng gat se deberasan// [Oh, he’s really gay.]

478) S3: Ansina, baka ta usa-usa lang se ele con mga mujer- mujer ansina, para man **hide** disuyo pagka-bakla,// [That’s it, maybe he’s just using women to hide his being gay.] (Utterance 461, Student 2, Curuan)

117) S1: Ta hace lang comigo loco,// [He’s just fooling me.] (Utterance 117, Student 1, Talisayan)

In Utterances 461, 472 and 478, the addressors are making derogatory or judgmental comments about others, such as in Utterance 472, in response to whether or not President Aquino is gay, Student 3 deliberately said with conviction that President Aquino is indeed gay. In Utterance 117, Student 1 suspects that her boyfriend is cheating on her.
The *commissives* yields a very small turnout with only 28 (0.70%) frequency of occurrence obtained by the *rural cluster* while the *urban cluster* gets only 10 (0.24%).

*Commissives* commit the speaker to doing something like promising, threatening, vowing (Searle 1975 in Traugott and Pratt, 1980). Consider the following sample transcripts below:

**Sample transcript**

580) S1: Ansina ya lang yo hace,// [That’s what I’ll do.](Utterance 580, Student 1, Curuan)

210) S1: Cuji lang man gat yo se conele, mira lang ba gat ba// [I will just catch him, just watch.] (Utterance 210, Student 1, Talisayan)

115) S1: Ay, dol quiere ya yo man break conele ara, (with a sad face & tone)// [Oh! I feel like breaking up with him now.] (Utterance 115, Student 1, Talisayan)

Utterance 580 above could be an example of Commissives wherein Student 1 here is in a way, committing to do something in the future. In utterance 210, Student 1 sounds like threatening her partner. The same is true in utterance 115; Student 1 appears to be threatening her boyfriend to a break-up.

The *declaratives* has the lowest frequency with only 2 (0.05%) frequency of occurrence obtained by the *urban cluster*, while the *rural cluster* shows none.

Declaratives, when uttered by the addressee, would bring about change in the life of the addressee, such as blessing, firing, baptizing, bidding, passing sentence, arresting, marrying (Searle 1975 in Traugott and Pratt, 1980). The data show that the very low turn-out of only 2 (0.05%) obtained by urban cluster and the zero frequency by the rural cluster actually make sense and is already expected as the stimuli presented to the participants may not have really warranted change in their lives.

**Conclusion**

On the findings that the rural cluster obtained more frequency of occurrence on illocutionary speech acts devices, it is safe to state that there was variation between rural and urban Chabacano speakers, in that the college students belonging to the rural cluster tend to be more spontaneous and confident compared to those in the urban cluster. They also think and speak fast. This may have led them to utter more of the said utterances. It would also be indicative of their knowledge of Chabacano accent, lexicon, semantics and syntax which are still very much intact.
Language teachers dealing with Chabacano students should consider their students’ illocutionary acts to be able to communicate with them effectively. The knowledge of their students’ illocutionary acts in their L1 will help teachers to understand the strengths and weaknesses of their students in terms of communication. This way, teaching and learning can be more functional and meaningful.

References


Appendix “A”

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Description

This research instrument, consisting of eight (8) situations/topics that were expected to elicit a number of Illocutionary Acts and Conversational Styles, was used for discussion by the participants of the study. The participants in the study were not informed beforehand about the topics of conversation in order to get their natural and spontaneous reactions to the situations. These situations/topics were presented by an assigned team leader/moderator of the group, who will pretend that they are his or her own personal experiences.

Situations/Topics

1. Compleño de mi tata de aquel dia. Tiene celebracion na de amon casa. Mucho visita ya llega, maga amigo suyo y maga uban na trabajo. Bien alboroto todo cay mientras el otro maga visita ta come, tiene otro de ila ta man cuento y ta re bien fuerte. El otro maga visita tamen ta man tomahan y bien alto tamen el maga vos de ila mientras ta man alegria sila. Tiene un grupo de maga visita ta canta usando el “videoke machine”. Tiene tamen cuantos otros ta baila. El celebracion ya alcanza hasta madrogada.

Mientras tanto, bien distorbao el de tuyo maga vesinos. Na lao esquerida del de tuyo casa, tiene man maridable de 70 y 75 años el edad que igual tiene alta precion. Ya experiencia estos dolor de cabeza. Na lao derecha tamen, el mas joven man maridable no puede durmi siendo tiene pa sila trabajo alamañana, Lunes. De ila anak no puede estudia su leccion para alamañana tamen. Rabiao sila hasta comigo.

Pidi ba yo despensacion canila? Que modo? Si ustedes na de ila lugar reclama ba ustedes? Que modo?

2. Tiene comigo cosa ya pasa del Sabado tarde. Ya anda yo visita con mi pariente (prima/primo, lolo/lola, tio/tia, etc.) na Ayala. Bien corre ta maneja el chufer del jeep ya munta yo. Cuando na camino ya, cerca came man bangga con otro jeep de pasajero y con
un grande trak. Gritajan todo el maga pasajero. Ya tiene yo miedo. Cosa yo conviene hace 
na ansina situacion? Cosa yo habla con el chufer? Debe ba yo regaña con ele?

3. Ya sigi yo man bacacion con mi amigo/amiga na de ila probinsia na Bukidnon del mes 
de Mayo. Primera vez de miyo anda alla pero cuando ya mira yo con el lugar, ta sinti yo 
dol estava ya yo alla antes pa. Ya experiencia ya ustedes ansina?

4. Tiene yo novia/novio. Nuay pa came un año na de amon relacion. Firme le ta habla cay 
bién quiere le comigo. Pero ya mira yo con ele una vez junto con otro hombre/mujer. Mi 
maga primo y prima tamen ta mira con ele tan abrasajan con otro. Quiere ya yo deja con 
ele. Cosa yo debe habla con ele?

5. Tiene yo con quien quiere aqui na escuela. Firme yo ta mira con ele. Classmate came na 
un subject pero otro el curso ta saca le, y otro tamen mi curso. Que modo yo manda sabe 
con ele cay quiere yo con ele? Quiere yo invita con ele come afuera. Cosa yo habla? Tiene 
yo miedo rabia le comigo y evita ya lang le comigo.

6. Ta invita comigo mi amigos y amigas na maga ocacion pero firme yo hende ta puede 
sigue canila. Del Fiesta Pilar, ya promete yo sigue na disco pero nuay yo porsigue cay no 
hay gente na de amon casa. Antes de aquel nuay yo puede sigue na “concert” de Sarah 
Geronimo. Na Paseo del Mar, nuay tamen. Na Domingo, tiene came “reunion party”. Ta 
invita ya tamen comigo. Ya promete yo anda pero hende na sila ta cre comigo. Quemodo 
yo combinsi canila cay anda ya gayot yo este ara?

7. Ta cre yo que este si Presidente Noynoy Aquino bien sincero na de suyo trabajo como 
presidente. El maga lideres ba del otro nacion tiene buen mirada con ele?

8. Tiene yo “part time job” cada Domingo lang. Ta vicia yo bata del un familia para puede 
pasya o descansa el nana’y tata. Pero bien pilyo el bata. Ta cansa yo. Bajo ya el pago, no 
puede pa yo anda na ilesia. Quiere ya yo sale canila pero tiene yo huya. Que modo yo 
habla que para ya yo?
Appendix “B”
Informed Consent Form

I, the undersigned, am a college student of the Western Mindanao State University taking up ______________ during the second semester of school year 2010-2011. I am willing to participate in the research being conducted by Eden G. Aquino in the Graduate School of the College of Communication and Humanities of this university as part of her doctoral dissertation which aims to describe the Conversational Styles in Chabacano of college students residing in urban and rural areas of Zamboanga City. This study consists of recorded casual conversations in Chabacano on everyday topics.

During the conduct of this study, I agree to be audio/video recorded in the course of the conversation. I understand that in order to protect my identity, my full name will not be disclosed in the presentation of the results of this study and that I will be addressed by only my nickname to make the conversation more natural and spontaneous. I also understand that the data I will provide will be grouped with the data of the other participants in the study. I further understand that my participation in this study poses no more than minimal risk to me as the study is not connected to any course requirement or grades. Finally, I agree to have my audio/video conversation published in the presentation of the results of the study, either in part or in full.

Name of student __________________
Signature of student _______________

Available audio/video taping schedule:

Date: _________
Time: _________

To the participant in this study:

If you have any comment, question, or wish to report any research related injury, please contact cell phone number 09274898261.

207
Appendix “C”
Language Background Sheet

Name (Only initials of First, Middle & Last/Nickname): __________________

Parents’ ethnicity: Father _______________ Mother _______________

Language/s spoken at home __________________________________________

Age when first learned to speak and understand Chabacano ___________

Language/s used in speaking with neighbors __________________________

Language/s used in speaking with friends _____________________________

Language/s used in sending cell phone messages _______________________

Favorite local TV program/s_______________________________________

Favorite local radio program_______________________________________

Favorite Chabacano song__________________________________________

Present School: _________________________________________________

Course: _________________________________________________________

Present Address: ________________________________________________

Permanent Address: _____________________________________________

Mobile number: _______________ Land line number: ________________
Appendix “D”
Extemporaneous Speaking Test

Mechanics:

1. Extemporaneous speaking will be delivered in Chabacano.
2. Participants will be given a 5-minute preparation to organize their ideas.
3. The delivery of the speech is within 3 to 5 minutes.
4. A participant is given an option to change the question (if he/she has very limited ideas on the issue) to one that he/she can adequately discuss, to ensure adequate data to be evaluated.
5. The researcher will read the question to the participant to test his/her listening skill.
6. The proceedings will be video/tape recorded to ensure that data were documented for evaluation.

Direccion: Le yo contigo un pregunta. Tiene tu sinco minute para aregla maga idea por causa del pregunta. Tres hasta sinco minutos para explica de tu idea.

1. Como un estudiante, cosa de tu opinion aserca del castigo de muerte o death penalty?
2. Afavor bat u si omenta pa un año el studio na colegio?
3. Que manera ta apecta contigo el crisis de sen na entero mundo?
4. Cosa tut a pensa ese maga posicion de politico na na gobierno que ta hace lang pasa entre familia?
5. Conforme ba tu inclui el sex education na curricula del maga escuela?

Adapted from Madrazo 2010
The Gender Construct in the Use of Rhetorical Appeals, Hedges and Boosters in ESL Writing: A Discourse Analysis

Bernardita G. Bacang  
Bernie.bacang@gmail.com  
Western Mindanao State University  
Normal Road, Baliwasan, Zamboanga City  
7000 Philippines  

Richard M. Rillo  
rmrillo@ceu.edu.ph  
Centro Escolar University  
9 Mendiola Street, San Miguel, Manila  
1005 Philippines  

Ericson O. Alieto  
ericsonalieto@gmail.com  
Western Mindanao State University  
Normal Road, Baliwasan, Zamboanga City  
7000 Philippines  

Abstract  
This study investigated and analyzed the use of rhetorical appeals, and the presence of hedges, and boosters in the argumentative essays of ESL learners. It is aimed at exploring the linguistic differences between male and female writers in terms of how they put forward their claims in an argument and how they appeal to their audience. The study found that male ESL learners prevalently use logical appeal in the development of their argumentative essays while the female learners use emotional appeal. On the other hand, the female learners use more hedging and boosting devices in their argumentative essays than male learners do. The results
and findings of this study may contribute essential knowledge to linguists in constructing gender differences in the writing of argumentative essays in the context of ESL.

**Keywords:** rhetorical appeal; hedges, boosters; logical appeal; emotional appeal

**Introduction**

Gender is perceived as a ‘social product’ (Aydinoglu, 2014, p. 233). This means that society dictates differences between males and females. In a similar vein, Tannen (1995) explained that the distinct ways girls and boys socialize is influenced by their communication with adults who adhere to social stereotypes in respect of social behavior and norms. This is seen as an ‘encoding’ process that is carried out until adulthood and results in different communication styles between genders. In addition, Tannen (1995) ardently claimed that gender roles are prescribed by society. Indeed, society possesses the power that shapes the concepts of ‘femininity’ and ‘masculinity’, and it is evident in many respects – from the types of apparels to be worn, hairstyles, color preferences, vocation and profession choices, language preferences and other facets of life. Despite the varying notions on and about gender, authors come to a consensus on the belief that gender is a construct of importance across cultures and societies (Gormley, 2015).

Research on gender and language is considered to have started in the 70s with the emergence of sociolinguistic investigations (Aydinoglu, 2014). One of the first works that promoted the essence of gender in language and language variation use is that of Labov (1966). One of Labov’s findings on the impact of gender on language use is the preference of women to use the prestigious language form. Labov (1966) also contended that the use of a non-standard form of language is associated with masculinity, which is often considered the reason for men’s choice in the kinds and forms of language they use.

Since then, studies have been carried out to investigate the differences between males and females in terms of language and language-related variables and their effects within particular contexts. Such studies include Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013), which studied the impact of the gender variable on both the speaking anxiety and motivation of Turkish university students; Head (1999; cited in Van De Gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme, & De Munter, 2007), which probed into gender differences in the language interests of the respondents; Lamb (1997; in Van De Gaer et al., 2007), which investigated attitude towards languages across gender; Park and French (2013), which looked into the existence of gender differences in the foreign language anxiety of respondents from Korea; Salahshour, Sharifi and Salahshour (2013), which
examined gender differences in the use of language learning strategies; Alieto (2018), which explored the gender differences in attitude towards the mother tongue among pre-service teachers; and Rillo and Alieto (2018), which scrutinized gender differences in the language attitude of the respondents with regard to Philippine English.

At this point, previous studies have shown linguistic differences between males and females. Protivínský and Münich (2018) even strongly claimed that gender differences in language use, proficiency and learning is an established trend and a common empirical finding. Lakoff (1973) reported that girls use language more collaboratively to express intimacy, while boys use language to show competition and their position in the group. Further, Keroes (1990) reported that in academic writing tasks females’ writing style is more personal. In addition, Holmes (1988) found that female writers are more likely to include discussion of relationship in their writings than male writers.

On another note, Nippold, Ward-Lonergan and Fanning (2005) maintained that in writing argumentative essays students must embrace a certain view and work hard to convince the readers to agree. The act of convincing involves the use of appeals. Forbes and Cordella (1999) explained that argumentative discourse is a speech activity where participants express dissenting opinions with the use of linguistic strategies in a framework of turn taking. A fully developed essay includes a statement of an opinion with support, a statement of a counterargument, a rebuttal and a concluding statement that supports the initial opinion. Thus far, argumentation writing has been very challenging to students. This academic task does not only require students to have linguistic competence, but also demand ideas and a careful presentation in persuasive and appealing manners. This becomes a concern of many teachers.

There are different definitions for argumentation. Ketcham (1917) defined argumentation as the art of persuading others. It includes writing and speaking that are persuasive in form. It is further described that persuasion means influencing others to think and act in a particular way. MacEwan (1898) explained that argumentation involves the process of proving and disproving a proposition. The purpose of such process is either to establish truth, trigger a new belief, or correct errors in the mind. Despite these varying definitions, the common idea is that persuading an audience is the goal of argumentative writing (Mshvenieradze, 2013).

In a composition class, students must aim to persuade their teachers or instructors that their idea is valid or more valid than others’. When a writer manages to support their claims and cause some impact on readers such as changing their opinion and making them act in the writer’s favor, only then is argumentation effective (Mshvenieradze, 2013). Connor (1996)
claimed that an effective argumentative discourse should be one that is employed with both rational and affective appeals.

Writing an argumentative essay involves persuasion through the use of reasoning. Reasoning includes the use of critical cognition, analytical skill, good memory and purposeful behavior, which places “logos” or logic to be the most important notion (Mshvenieradze, 2013). In other words, “logos” is an appeal to audiences’ sense of logic. On the other hand, the sense of reasoning through persuasion could also be an appeal to emotion or feelings. This rhetorical appeal is known as “pathos”. Therefore, this study accounts for the logos (known also as the rational or cognitive appeal) and pathos (known also as the emotional or affective), in line with the analysis in Kamimura and Oi (1998), in which they probed the difference of two cultures in terms of argumentative style.

A number of previous studies have been conducted on hedges and boosters using different approaches. Some researchers have focused on the different politeness strategies in spoken and/or written discourse based on gender (Coates, 1987). Another approach was used to investigate the effects of powerful versus powerless language styles on their listeners (Hosman & Siltanen, 2006). The study suggested that hedging devices in arguments show lack of assertiveness in putting forward claims. Finally, there have been studies conducted concerning hedges and boosters in academic writing for both professional researchers, as well as second language students of English (Holmes, 1988; Hyland, 1994, 1996, 2000; Hyland & Milton, 1997).

The term hedge was introduced to describe "words whose job is to make things more or less fuzzy" (Lakoff, 1973). Hedges mitigate the writers’ certainty about or reduce their commitment to the propositions, but boosters increase the certainty in the propositions made by the writers.

In relation to gender, the study of Crammond (1998) on 355 essays written by undergraduate students found that there were some prominent features found in female students’ formal writing. These features were the use of tentative constructions like: hedges, such as “maybe,” “might,” “I think,” and qualifiers, such as “nearly,” and “sometimes,” which are also found in females’ spoken language (Holmes, 1984). Crammond (1998, cited in Francis, Robson and Read, 2001), suggested that qualifiers of the formal argument are lessened when hedges are used. In addition, hedging makes arguments pliable to the audience. Francis, Robson and Read (2002) found that males are more likely to be argumentative and companionable with the formal style compared to their female colleagues.
The crucial importance of hedges and boosters lies in the fact that readers expect claims to be warranted in terms of the assessments of reliability they carry, and appropriate in terms of the social interactions they appeal to. These devices help academics gain acceptance for their work by balancing conviction with caution, and by conveying an appropriate disciplinary persona of modesty and assertiveness (Hyland, 1996). Hedges and boosters therefore express both interpersonal and ideational (or conceptual) information (Halliday, 1994), allowing writers to communicate more precise degrees of accuracy in their truth assessments. Indeed, in carrying authorial judgments, hedges and boosters can actually convey the major content of an utterance.

This study is aimed at identifying the rhetorical appeals and hedges and boosters in the composition of argumentative essays among grade 11 ESL students to describe the differences in their writing styles. Through the analysis of the employment of essential devices put forth in constructing an argumentative essay (i.e. rhetorical appeals and hedges and boosters) in the context of ESL students, this study may contribute essential knowledge to linguists in understanding gender differences in writing. More specifically, this study was aimed at answering the following questions:

1. What kinds of rhetorical appeals do the male and female ESL writers dominantly use?
2. Is there any significant difference in the use of rhetorical appeals between the male and female ESL writers?
3. Which gender dominantly uses hedges and boosters in their argumentative essays?
4. Is there any significant difference in the use of hedges and boosters between the male and the female ESL writers in their argumentative essays?

**Theoretical Framework**

In this study, we looked at three frameworks. In order to identify rhetorical appeals, we used the Rhetorical Theory by Micheli (2008), while the accounting of the hedges and boosters used the Stance and Engagement Theory by Hyland (2005). In addition, the Difference Theory by Tannen (1990) was used in analyzing the language used by the male and female participants as shown by their use of rhetorical appeals and hedges and boosters.

Firstly, the Rhetorical Theory accounts for Aristotle’s famous definition of rhetoric as an ability in each to see available means of persuasion (Micheli, 2008). Aristotle explained that there are three parts of “pisteis” (proofs) provided through speech, the pathos (appeal for emotions/feelings); logos (appeal for logic); and ethos (appeal for ethics/morality).
Furthermore, Micheli (2008) claimed that justification in the development of an argumentative discourse, written or spoken, must be developed based on any of the three types of claim/argument presentation. Also, he reiterated that arguments can only be successfully presented through any of these types. In this study, there were only two appeals that were found prevalent in the development of the participants’ argumentative essays, namely the logical appeal and the emotional appeal.

Secondly, the Stance and Engagement Theory of Hyland (2005) details writer-oriented features of interaction and refers to the ways academics annotate their texts to comment on the possible accuracy or credibility of a claim, the extent they want to commit themselves, or the attitude they want to convey to an entity, a proposition or the reader. In this theory, Hyland (2005) enumerated and clustered boosters and hedges as common devices used by the writers in the presentation of their claims or arguments. Hedges are devices like possible, might and perhaps, that indicate the writer’s decision to withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than accredited fact while Boosters are words like clearly, obviously and demonstrate, which allow writers to express their certainty in what they say and to mark involvement with the topic and solidarity with their audience. Thus, in this study, the use of these features in the participants’ argumentative essays were examined and analyzed.

Finally, the Difference Theory by Tannen (1990) was explored to present the differences in the use of the writing devices by the male and female participants’ argumentative essays. Tannen (1990) reported that the language used by males and females are represented by six contrasts, namely: status vs. support; independence vs. intimacy; advice vs. understanding; information vs. feelings; orders vs. proposals; and conflict vs. compromise. In this study, the Difference Theory was put to test the differences in the styles of the male and female participants in writing their argumentative essays.
**Figure 1. Gender as an influencing variable on the use of rhetorical appeals, boosters, and hedges in ESL students’ argumentative essays**

Figure 1 presents gender as the independent variable, and the use of rhetorical appeals and boosters and hedges that are found in argumentative essays as the dependent variables. In this framework, we instigate that their use of rhetorical appeals and hedges and boosters are implicit and explicit, respectively, in the students’ argumentative essays and could trigger gendering in students’ written discourse, particularly in advancing and forming their arguments or claims.

**Method**

**Research Design**

This study employed a quantitative research design. In order to determine the dominant rhetorical appeals as well as the use of hedges and boosters used in the argumentative essays of the ESL students, and the significant differences between males and females, frequency count, mean and inferential statistics were used. The quantification of data and the generalization of results from a sample to the population of interest is the purpose of the study.

**Corpus**

This study analyzed 50 argumentative essays, of which arguments revolved around the topic of death penalty. The instruction given to the students was: “Are you in favor of Death Penalty? Present your claims and arguments.” Each essay comprises of at least three paragraphs including the essential parts of an essay (i.e. introduction, body, and conclusion). The length of each essay ranges from a minimum of 150 words to a maximum of 500 words. There were
25 essays composed by male students and 50 essays by female students with a mean total of 327.44 and 295.76 numbers of words in the essays respectively.

**Participants**
There was a total of 95 grade 11 ESL students enrolled in the STEM and HUMMS strands of the SHS program who wrote an argumentative essay on the topic given. Only 25 male students and 25 female students were chosen as participants in the study. The ages of the students ranged from 16-17 years old.

**Procedure**
Before the commencement of the study, a permission letter was addressed to the school director and the school principal. After the permission was granted, one of the researchers went to the classrooms to ask the students to write the essay on a whole sheet of paper in one hour. The finished essays were retrieved and only 50 essays were randomly and purposely selected (i.e. 25 male participants’ essays and 25 female participants’ essays) from the 96 essays. Each essay contains the student’s age, name, and gender. They were also asked to write the gender of their preference.

The coding of the rhetorical appeals and the use of boosters and hedges through hand-tagging was carried out by labelling B for the presence of a booster in the argument; H for hedge; for the rhetorical appeals, LA for logical appeal (logos); and EA for emotional appeal (pathos). Also, the total number of words per essay and the mean percentage of each occurrence were written on the essay paper. The presence of these devices in the ESL students’ argumentative essays was accounted through frequency counting and was treated statistically.

**Method of Analysis**
In this study, we analyzed the argumentative essays of the grade 11 ESL students’ argumentative essays through hand tagging and coding. For the identification of the presence of boosters and hedges as devices in presenting arguments or claims, we referred to the classification presented by Hyland (2005) while for the identification of rhetorical appeals, the Rhetorical Theory by Micheli (2008) was utilized.

Two approaches were employed to account for the occurrence of boosters and hedges and rhetorical appeals used by both genders in this study. First, qualitative approach was utilized to determine the boosters, hedges, and rhetorical appeals, which are considered as categorical variables of the study. Second, descriptive statistics was used to determine the
frequency of boosters, hedges, and rhetorical appeals in the ESL students’ argumentative essays. Furthermore, in identifying whether there are significant differences in the use of boosters and hedges and rhetorical appeals based on gender, the Chi-Square Test of Homogeneity was used.

A specific counting of the occurrence of boosters and hedges in the students’ essays was carried out by dividing the occurrence of the hedges or boosters to the number of words per essay multiplied by a 100 (e.g. 10 occurrences of boosters in an essay with 310 words; i.e. 10/310*100). This is to prorate the occurrences of the writer-oriented features to the number of words present in an essay.

In the categorization of the occurrences of the boosters and the hedges, a scale covering the ranges of occurrences with corresponding descriptors was used to allow the computation for the Chi-Square Test of Homogeneity.

Table 1 presents the scale in the categorization of the occurrences of hedges and boosters in the argumentative essays.

**Table 1 Occurrences of Hedges and Boosters in the Argumentative Essay Scale**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.69-6.06</td>
<td>Always Occurring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.32-4.68</td>
<td>Frequently Occurring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.95-3.31</td>
<td>Seldom Occurring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.59-1.94</td>
<td>Never Occurring</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that the lower boundary is at 0.59 occurrences while the higher boundary is 6.06. The computed interval is at 1.37.

**Results and Discussion**

Table 2 shows the two rhetorical appeals that were found evident in the argumentative essays of the male and female ESL SHS students:
Table 2 Rhetorical Appeals Used by the Male and Female Grade 11 Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Rhetorical Appeal</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Fisher’s Exact Test of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Logical Appeal</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72.00</td>
<td>p &lt; 0.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Appeal</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Logical Appeal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Appeal</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p-value = 0.05 level of significance

In Table 2 it could be seen that both male students and female students use logic as a dominant rhetorical appeal in writing their argumentative essays with 72.00 percent and 60.00 percent of occurrence respectively. Comparing the two genders, the male students use more logic as an appeal in composing an argumentative essay. Flyn and Schweickart (1986) agreed that male writers and female writers argue distinctively in writing; males tend to be more competitive while females appear more affiliative. Harding’s (1990) concluded that formal (academic) writing is a “masculine discourse.” He further reported that male’s writing was more objective, authority-oriented and impersonal. This shows, accordingly, that females are emotional in their writings while males have control over emotion and subjectivity. The reason for subjectivity in females’ writings is that they allow personal experience to intrude (Keroes, 1990) thus, emotional in appeal.

Since the p-value (alpha) is less than the Fisher’s Exact Test of Difference (0.551), it only implies that there is no significant difference between gender and the use of rhetorical appeals in writing the argumentative essay.

Table 3 shows the occurrence of hedges in the argumentative essays of the male and female ESL learners.
### Table 3 Occurrence of Hedges in the Argumentative Essays of Male and Female ESL Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Mean %</th>
<th>Pearson Chi Square Test of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>p &lt; 0.088</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p-value* = 0.05 *level of significance*

Table 3 shows that the female students use more hedges in their argumentative essays with a mean percentage of occurrences of 2.62 while the male students with 1.80. Crammond (1998) claimed that females use more hedging devices to soften their claims in their arguments. Furthermore, Francis et al. (2002) mentioned that the use of hedges makes the claims more pliable to the audience. Similarly, Tannen (1990) instigated that females have the tendency to use more hedges than males. The females’ tendency to use more hedging devices does not show lack of confidence in their claims, but rather are employed in the discourse as a set of politeness strategies to achieve solidarity with their readers (Holmes, 1990).

However, in this study, the p-value (alpha) is less than the Pearson Chi square Test of Difference, which means that there is no significant difference in the use of hedges between the male and the female argumentative essays. Newman, Groom, Handelman, and Pennebaker (2008) also found out in their study that females used more hedges than males but also revealed no significant difference.

Table 4 shows the occurrence of boosters in the argumentative essays of the male and female ESL learners.
Table 4 Occurrence of Boosters in the Argumentative Essays of Male and Female ESL Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>Mean %</th>
<th>Pearson Chi Square Test of Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>p &lt; 0.193</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p-value = 0.05 level of significance*

It can be seen in Table 3 that the female students use more boosters in writing their argumentative essay with a mean percentage of 2.00 while the male students with 1.72. Hyland (1994, 2000) suggested that the writer’s degree of confidence is evident in expressing arguments or claims with a degree of certainty that is best illustrated through his/her use of boosting devices. The results in Table 4 counter the findings of Fahy (2002) who observed that males use more boosters in their academic discourses than females. Lakoff (1975) and Holmes (2001) proposed that the females’ less use of boosting devices in their discourses indicates their tentativeness and hesitancy to express their views. On the contrary, Hosman (1989) stated that boosters can only be as powerful only in the absence of hedges.

The p-value (alpha) is less than the Pearson Chi Square Test of Difference result (mean % = 0.193) and implies that there is no significant difference in the use of boosters in writing the argumentative essays between the male and the female ESL learners.

Conclusion

This study has shown how male and female ESL learners write their arguments and claims. Male ESL learners prevalently use logical appeal in the development of their argumentative essays while the female learners use emotional appeal. The use of logic in the presentation of male learners’ arguments and claims make them more cognitive in the development of their ideas. On the other hand, female learners tend to appeal to emotions or feelings to achieve solidarity with their audience. Female learners also use more hedging and boosting devices in their argumentative essays than male learners. Despite the fact that in this study the male learners considerably wrote longer essays than their counterparts, the female
learners still managed to include more hedging and boosting devices in their essays. This supports the notion that females’ language is associated with prestige.

References


Social Dialectology Study of Phonology in Knowing English Student Speaking Ability

I Wayan Agus Anggayana
Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia, Indonesia

I Gede Budasi
Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha

Irawinne Rizki Wahyu Kusuma
Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:
I Wayan Agus Anggayana is a Lecturer in Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia at Food and Beverage Products Department and a doctoral student at Udayana University. Current research interests include Discourse analysis, Phonology, Morphology, Second Language Acquisition, Historical Linguistic Comparatives, English for Specific Purposes. He can be reached at anggayana28@gmail.com

I Gede Budasi is a Lecturer in Ganesha University of Education at English Education Department. He graduated his Doctoral in Linguistics at Gadjah Mada University. Current research interests include Second Language Acquisition, Historical Linguistic Comparatives, English for Specific Purposes. He can be reached at yaysurya8@yahoo.com

Irawinne Rizky Wahyu Kusuma is a Lecturer in Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia at the Food and Beverage Products Department, and she is a graduate of the Communication science at Merdeka University, Malang and postgraduate of the Master of Communication Science at the Mercu Buana University, Jakarta. She can be reached at winerichie88@gmail.com
Abstract

This study aims to describe phonology variations based on status and sex variables and describe phonological variations based on the most important variables. This study focuses on the phonological variations of three phonemes in English /d/, /v/, and /θ/. The research data are obtained from four entrepreneurs, four spa therapists, and four students as informants. The informants of each social status consist of two males and two females. Data were analyzed through descriptive quantitative and qualitative using padan method. The results showed that (1) Spa therapists were more dominant in the context of phonemes /d/, /v/, /θ/ compared with the status of entrepreneurs and students who already understand English phonemes. (2) students are challenge in pronounce phoneme /d/, /v/, /θ/. (3) Entrepreneurs have better English phonemes in pronunciation. It is evidenced by low variations phoneme pronunciation of /d/, /v/, /θ/. (4) Men are more dominant in rising English variations phoneme in pronunciation rather than women. Speaking in English has become a conversation that is often carried out by tourists in Bali. Bali has always been known as a tourism destination. Lots of foreign tourists visit Bali on holiday even on ordinary days. They are coming to Bali for several purposes: culture, tradition, scenery, culinary, and historical relics. It has produced tourist attractions in general. Tourists are taking a vacation suits with each traveler expects. Services and facilities are the spearheads regarding giving a good impression of service. It is a priority for hotel managers, travel agencies, restaurants, Desa Wisata. Managers are hoping their staff is providing maximum service to guests. In this case, English was not used appropriately for hotel students, tourism entrepreneurs, and spa therapists. It is not easy to build good communication in the tourism area. A servant is required mastering and speaking English as well to avoid misunderstanding in communication.

Keywords: social dialectology, phonology, status, gender

Introduction

Speaking English at this time has become a conversation that is often carried out by tourists in Bali. Bali has been known as the tourism destination in the world. Lots of foreign tourists visit every holiday and every day. The visit included tourists' curiosity in several aspects, namely: culture, tradition, rituals, daily activities of Balinese, scenery, culinary, and history of previous royal relics has made the attraction of tourists in general. Tourists enjoy the trip if communication between tourists and servants can be carried out properly. Communication is a process of changeover information between speakers and recipients of
speeches. If communication can be carried out properly, then the goals and good relations will be created so that future tourists will recommend indirectly. A reliable promotional media is a promotion between individuals where customer satisfaction information will be delivered to their relatives and workplace.

Tourists want to be served and get decent accommodation by travelers expects. Facilities and quality of service are the spearheads in terms of giving a good impression in service. It is undeniable for tourist satisfaction to be the priority for hotel managers, travel agencies, restaurants, homestay, and other tourism industry as the main gate when a guest comes to the Hotel. Speaking is to say an idea, feeling, or process expressing ideas, thought, feeling to someone else (Nasir, 2018). Ideas and feelings must be contained in the service. The idea is that the design is arranged in mind to serve well. The feeling is the emotional sensation in the heart, which is poured into the human physical example such as smiling, greeting, body language. Ideas and feelings must be managed well within when serving guests. The tourism industry doesn't care if you are facing problems that can interfere with your ideas and feelings while serving. The tourism industry wants you to work professional so that improving the quality of services can be maintained every period. Managers expect their employees can provide maximum service for guests. A good employee is greatly influenced by the quality of their knowledge in addition to the facilities owned by the tourism industry. Speaking is demanding for the needs of humans. As a social beings, humans will communicate with others, using language as the main tool (Napitupulu, 2018).

The ability to speak in any language is an essential skill because speaking is the most commonly used skill used or done during communication (Juliansyah, 2018). The use of English is still not appropriate by hospitality students, tourism entrepreneurs, and spa therapist. To build good communication with tourists is not easy. Being a servant is required to master several foreign languages to communicate and understand each other what the speaker means by the recipient of the speech. English is a second language in all these categories of schools and the systems of school education (Meganathan, 2015).

Language is one of the most critical aspects in communication and cannot be separated from our daily activities. Speaking is a two-way, active, creative, cooperative, communicative and interactive process of building and sharing meaning between speakers and listeners which involves thoughts, emotions, and surely productive and receptive skills (Faidah & Muyassaroh, 2018).

Interactive communication in speaking English can have a positive impact on service. A simple example of hospitality students must admonish visitors with the friendly use of good
and correct English and know the emotions of their listeners whether their listeners are feeling happy, sad, or tired. In entrepreneurs, they must offer products using good and correct English to reduce or anticipate misinformation that is conveyed. Spa therapists also play an important role in English communication. Imagine if there is a wrong word pronounced with intonation or a pause that is not appropriate, it does not rule out the possibility of misunderstanding until complaints from tourists occur.

At this time, technological sophistication in learning foreign languages can be said having progression rapidly. Learning a foreign language is supported by applications and English language speech translation programs using cellphones, where the speaker uses Indonesian spoken to his cellphone. Then the cellphone processes the language in an application so that it is translated directly into English speech. The speaker gave his cellphone to the recipient of the speech. The cellphone provided information from the speaker in English. This is indeed very helpful in global communication today, but if we interpret it, ethically and aesthetically, a competent servant is not worthy of doing so. In addition to troublesome listeners, it also disturbs the comfort of listeners. So that service will affect the branch/quality of service as a servant. As the world unites into a global community commonly engaged by modern technology, the need to use the English language has become more and more apparent (Sioco & De Vera, 2018). In the end, indeed, a waiter must be able to master English well and correctly. The technology must be used as a learning tool when not working/serving tourists. When serving tourists, the waiter can appear bravely and confident in English that he has mastered well without any tool.

Hornby (1995) stated Language is the system of sounds and words used by humans to express their thoughts and feelings. Language can establish a good relationship with a member of the community, but with language, we will also have problems if the use of the language does not follow the rules that apply to specific languages. In this case, it does not rule out the possibility of misunderstanding of the intent and meaning of speakers with the recipient of the speech. Misunderstanding happens because of due to the lack of knowledge of the language spoken or lack of knowledge about the language as the recipient of the speech. It causes a different understanding of meaning/purpose. The sounds uttered by speakers must be in the proper rules of phonology. The success of the tourism industry is to maximize human resources so that they can always improve their services at any time. Now, to learn sound for students, it is easily accessible using applications on the Oxford smartphone and website. But students must be given fundamental knowledge on how to read the sound symbols in the Oxford dictionary. With the fundamental understanding of reading the sound symbols, students are
allowed to practice reading the sounds like the initial stage of knowing whether the student already understands reading the sound symbols. Being a teacher, especially an English language lecturer must be able to assess the abilities of students. After the student knows and can speak the sound symbols in the Oxford dictionary, students are given the training to play roles in conversation communication.

English is the most preferred foreign language, compared to French, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese, as it plays an essential role in areas of employment, education, and international communication (Boun, 2017). In international services, mastering languages other than English is expected by the tourism industry. But it is more emphasized to master English well and correctly before mastering languages other than English. English should be mastered early before working in the tourism industry. Hence, it does not consume too much energy and time to master English.

Jendra (2007) states that language is a tool to reflect thoughts, feelings, ideas, or in other words, language can be said to be a system of free vocal symbols that are used by community members as a means of cooperating or relating. Language can be divided into two categories, namely spoken language, and written language. In spoken language, one can express his intentions, ideas, and thoughts directly, whereas, in written language, a tool is needed to express the intentions to be expressed. As a servant in the tourism industry is required to master the spoken language and written language. Spoken language is applied to welcoming guests, conversations, offers, promotions. A written language is applied when the waiter replies to a written message from the guest or offers via email.

Spoken language must be carried out with several stages so that the maximum results are achieved. Students are also required to sharpen the ability of the spoken language to use English in a work environment or environment surrounded by speakers of English. In Bali, there are many strategic places to sharpen spoken language skills, which is a tourist attraction visited by foreign tourists such as Kuta Beach, Legian, and other places visited by foreign tourists. By practicing the spoken language regularly, it is sure that students will better speak English pronunciation. In phonology, students practice mouth movements, regulating air cavities as producing sound bursts. Students must be accustomed to achieving the sound similarity that is sounded by the native speaker.

Wolfram and Fasold (1974) language variation with social status plays an important role in American society. Differences in social status, speakers of American society view social status as a measure to determine the level of intelligence. Studies relating to linguistic behavior by classifying subjects into specific classes are not enough to limit the actual linguistic data but
must be followed by the best possible classification of social strata/levels. Social status plays an essential role in determining speaking ability. Social status tends to influence speaking ability because of the surrounding environment influences such as mother tongue, knowledge, style of language where the original sounds of English cannot be appropriately sounded through the person who is speaking. In this case, tough training to adapt to the students' utterances.

Social categories in the selection of subjects are divided into three types. The first type of subjects are classified as having limited formal education, reading a little and limited social contact. Second type those who have better formal education (junior/senior high school), often read and have extensive social contacts. Third type those who have superior education (Higher Education), cultural background, very often read and have very extensive social contacts (Kurath 1939: 44). Limited formal education and less qualified instructors in teaching English can have a bad impact on teaching speaking skills. If you want to speak well, you should read a lot of reading and socialize more often. By reading, you will master a lot of vocabulary that will support you in speaking. Socially intended is an interactive two-way interaction with English speakers. If you want to understand more quickly and be able to speak English fluently, you have to speak English native speakers directly.

Social class differences appear to be based on status and power. Where status refers to respect in society and power refers to social aspects and material that can be used as a command tool and capable of making decisions so that certain desired events can be achieved (Guy 1988: 39). If speaking English can master the right language style will be able to create language power to the audience. It can be noticed when the leader speaks in English in front of a crowd. Only by speaking, sorting out the right vocabulary, convincing intonation, and extensive knowledge can have a broad impact on the listener. If entrepreneurs, spa therapists, students can master this, it will have a tremendous impact. For entrepreneurs, they will be able to convince their clients/consumers, for spa therapists to provide excellent and appropriate communication, for their students to be useful after completing their studies and working in the tourism industry.

The ability to acquire languages is divided into two sub-categories, namely, internal factors, and external factors. The internal factor is the spirit/desire of someone to learn the language from within him, while the external factor is the role of the environment in supporting the acquisition of the language. Every community has a mother tongue. Mother tongue is the native language of a speaker who has been acquired since childhood. The spirit/desire that is possessed must be balanced with exercises that can help the organ of speech to adapt to the language environment spoken so that this internal factor can play an essential role in improving
speaking skills. External factors are considered capable of succeeding in acquire language when the environment in which the speaker speaks the language properly and correctly. A supportive environment is intended to support the internal factors that have been passed. This mother tongue can deliver speakers in learning a second language or a foreign language. At present English in Bali is a foreign language that many people learn because English is an international language in communication. It means using some techniques to teach students English is very necessary helping them deeply understand what they have studied in the class (Kijpoonphol & Phumchanin, 2018). English is a language subject, and the students can participate successfully in a language task through listening to the spoken language (Natividad & Batang, 2018).

English is divided into several skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, writing. In this study takes speaking skills. Nowadays, speaking skills are important to be researched. It is based on the needs of stakeholders engaged in hospitality students, tourism entrepreneurs, and spa therapists, hoping that their employees can not only speak but are expected to be able to speak well and correctly following English grammar. For demotivated classrooms with a large proportion of students facing these problems in listening, autonomous text dictation does not suffice to solve the problem since students need their instructor to assist them with their pronunciation and explain knowledge in phonology and phonetics (Zhang & Ding, 2016). Related to the teaching of speaking students must be tucked in a little on subjects related to phonology and phonetics. Knowing language sounds can reduce the ignorance/misunderstanding of English pronunciation. Although inserting phonology and phonetics in teaching speaking is rather tricky to make. But the obligation of a lecturer must be able to make teaching material exciting and easy to understand by the students.

Watch a movie or listen to music, they find it easier memorizing grammar patterns, vocabulary, words pronunciation, words, or sentences meaning as well (Widyasari, 2018). Visual media became an exciting thing to teach speaking to students. The tendency of students to enjoy and choose to watch a movie as a beginning to warm up is an excellent time to start teaching speaking. After students watch a movie, they must be able to explain what they have watched using English they have mastered. The next activity that is not less interesting is by giving students to listen to English music, let them listen to music and enjoy it. In the end, they have to guess the title of the song, explain what the motives and meanings contained in the music are given to students.

Several times they were given watching movies and listening to music and then giving them writing activity on a piece of paper that they understood using English. The task of a
teacher is to check grammar patterns, vocabulary, and words and sentences, meaning concisely and easily to use steps like this. Word pronunciation can be known when students use the language in front of the class to explain the material related to the explanation of the movie and listen to music. Having good speaking English, the target of successful teaching and learning can give a good impression in the workforce later when they have finished their education.

Movie and listening to music are exciting steps to teach teaching speaking skills. But found in the classroom, not all can dare to speak. The problem that the teacher must then solve is related to the motivation of the students. The problem is because students are not used to speaking in front of the class, but they often talk with their peers using their mother tongue. For students who are not familiar with this, the teacher must use the right method to spur their courage to express their use of English in front of the class. Drilling students with some vocabulary and providing good knowledge in teaching can increase students’ motivation. Some students had enough ability to speak but, they were anxious to speak and worry of making mistakes in pronunciation, some students were having enough motivation to learn and speak English, but they lack enough vocabulary, and they preferred to be silent (Indah, 2018).

Learning a language that is not spoken in the home environment takes more time, energy, and finances compared to learning the language in the native-speaking environment (Ibrayeva & Fuller, 2014). In learning English, students must spend more time practicing using English-language books and practicing directly. English does not have to be studied by taking a very expensive course so that it will disrupt students’ finances. Adjusting the budget to take an English course is an important thing that must be taken into account by students. By setting the time and adjusting the budget accordingly, the energy released will not be wasted much. If students have a more or sufficient budget, they should go directly to a country that uses excellent and correct English for at least three months to stay in that country, using this method students can master English quickly and correctly following the conditions of English it is used.

Social dialect studies have been carried out by several researchers, namely Dhanawaty (2002) who conducted a study entitled “Dialectal Variation of Balinese Language in Transmigration Areas in Central Lampung.” Dhanawaty’s research is more directed at the study of social dialects and dialects by using three types of variables, namely variable lek, regional variables, age variables. One of the results of the study shows that phonological variations in the Balinese language in central Lampung can be found in the speeches of all age groups at all observation points with different degrees.

Several problems can be formulated, namely: (1) How are phonological variations based on variable status and gender? (2) Which of the most dominant social variables causes
variation? This study aims (1) to describe phonological variations based on status and gender variables; and (2) describe the most dominant social variables that cause these variations. The benefit is that people in the tourist area can pronounce English phonemes well and correctly. It is as a reference in making English phonology teaching materials. The focus of discussion is the phonological variation of pronunciation of consonant /d/, /v/, /θ/ phonemes. Meanwhile, social variables are focused on aspects of status and gender. The selection of the three phonemes is based on the author's observation of the diversity of realization of these phonemes in English when spoken by students with different social statuses.

Dialectology is a study that describes variations in language by treating it as a whole. So that the social variables chosen in this study are status and gender, this selection is based on the findings of researchers in the field on the use of English in language learning. Regarding ethnic and gender variables, analyzing data will use the following concepts and theories.

Sumarsono (2007) states that the diversity of languages based on sex arises because language as a social phenomenon closely related to social attitudes. In Balinese culture, women tend to get treatment, not the same as men. Balinese women tend to have to carry out their obligations to look after children, religion, ngayah (helping people in the ceremonial offering), a woman is not allowed to work for money. The job of making money is a man's job. It does injustice for women. It will affect children in the future. If Balinese women are not immediately given knowledge related to gender equality, then this culture will continue to be a habit that is difficult to eliminate.

As time goes on and the basic needs of the family increase, women can also contribute to restoring the family economy. Restoring the family economy by women working in the tourism industry. It is also now being realized by some men so that in the future, there is no difference in dominance between men and women.

Taking care of children and working there is a mother's responsibility so that the economy in the region can be improved. If in Bali, it can be like that, then Balinese female workers can be absorbed well in the tourism industry. In the tourism industry, especially in hotels and restaurants, women work as receptionists, sales, public relations, managers, supervisors, spa therapists, waitresses, sales, marketing.

Women are working as workers who can make money and help the family economy. It is proven by working as permanent workers, daily workers, contract workers/temporary workers, and part-time workers in the tourism industry. Today's women cannot be ignored. Their struggle to fight for the family economy, work hard, and never give up to continue learning.
Attracted the attention of the tourism industry that Balinese women could manage their time to work and manage their households. Balinese women are in high demand by the tourism industry. In addition to their friendliness and hard work, they are a consideration in recruiting Balinese female workers. It is necessary to carry out research that refers to reviewing the performance capabilities of Balinese women in the tourism industry.

Hornby (2005) defines speaking as speaking about something and conversing with other people. Balinese women are absorbed as spa therapists. Spa therapist uses English, which refers to the use of the language in the area of spa therapists. The vocabulary that appears is not like the English vocabulary of the tour guide. The vocabulary used is more specific, which shows the part of the body, fingers, and some particular things that must be known. Besides, a spa therapist is required to be able to communicate well with customers. The spa industry hopes that these customers can return to their place later so that it will give benefit to the spa industry as well as the welfare of its workers.

Klein (1986) gives the opinion that second language acquisition can occur in various ways, ages, goals. Traditionally language acquisition can be taught directly or the involvement of education naturally due to environmental factors. Second, language acquisition occurs at the age caused by the emotional level of the students must be known by the language teacher. It is important to provide what methods or techniques that are suitable for students. The age of students who are still in transition from high school to university. Those who are still in the transition period are more likely to be emotional and prefer to joke. Game in learning can increase learning passion and high-growing awareness to learn to speak English more appropriate method using in teaching.

Goals must be clear, grow, and achieve. As a good lecturer should give the initial questions to the students. Example question, after you graduate, what kind of job would you like to apply? Have students know the main tasks and work of study programs chosen by students?. If the student clear answers it, the next task motivates well the student. Therefore there is a clear direction of the students' future goal when completing their studies. General English is good to be taught. It would be better if English Specific Purposes is taught by the field of students programs. So that no more mistakes in writing, pronunciation for students who have completed their studies and work in the tourism industry. The tourism industry will provide useful feedback for institutions that produce competent graduates as well as their English language skills following the main tasks.

Language Acquisition can also be taught outside the classroom. By guiding students speaking activities outside the classroom is meant to communicate with native English
language directly. Besides teaching speech, they also learn to listen. Learning to listen is very important so that it becomes a habit for students. Usually, the native English language speaks very fast, not too clear, and confusing with vocabulary that is rarely known by students. Listening can have a positive impact on students’ speaking abilities. If students are used to listening to conversations, they will have a lot of English vocabulary to communicate in the future. The difference in teaching speaking and listening in the classroom and outside the classroom is the more real atmosphere that can be obtained outside the classroom by students. Besides, vocational education must have more practical activities than learning too many theories in the classroom until students feel bored. The demands of stakeholders or the tourism industry are the ability of students to work by their expertise and fields, excellent communication, directed and ethical to serve guests who come to the tourism industry.

Teaching Second Language Acquisition is not easy and cannot be achieved with a concise time. A Second Language Acquisition teacher must master the right teaching methods and techniques so that what is conveyed is well understood by the students. Just giving written questions to teach Second Language Acquisition is not enough. Students must be given training that refers to the practice of speaking. If they have mastered the practice of speaking, here a lecturer can check whether the students have spoken well. The choice of vocabulary also influences whether the vocabulary is rough, deserves to be spoken or to whom certain words can be spoken based on the social strata that exist in a particular culture. After they understand the matter, then the lecturer pays attention to the sound pattern of the language sounds that have been learned by the students. It is important to ensure service quality in the tourism industry later.

Ladefoged (1975) defines phonology as a system and form of sound in a language. The branch of phonology that examines sound formation systems, the delivery and reception of language sounds is called phonetics, Kridalaksana (2008).

Arifuddin (2010) suggested two language acquisition experienced by humans, namely first language acquisition and second language acquisition. First language acquisition or mother tongue is the language that was acquired for the first time, and second language acquisition is a study of how learners learn another language after they have acquired their mother tongue. First language acquisition usually tends to affect second language acquisition as evidenced by the pronunciation of second language acquisition adhering to several dialects of first language acquisition by the speaker. It happens when the speaker has not been able to clearly distinguish the grammar, pronunciation of second language acquisition that is being studied. For example, Bali speakers of the Balinese language are divided into two, namely Bali
Aga (the original Balinese language speakers) and Bali Dataran (Balinese speakers which already influence by Majapahit). Bali Aga is an Original Balinese language spoken by Balinese people located on highlands (hills). Bali Dataran is a language spoken by speakers located in the lowland (the coast). Speakers of Bali Aga are called original Balinese residents because at the time Majapahit came to Bali, they went to the higher ground to hide and isolate themselves so that the languages brought by Majapahit/Java could not influence Bali Aga speakers. In contrast to the Bali Dataran, whose speakers have been influenced by Majapahit, appears the similarity between the languages between Javanese and Bali Dataran.

Nowadays, people of Bali Aga language get a lot of attention from international tourists because they still maintain the culture of their ancestors. One of the Bali Aga people is located in Tenganan Karangasem Village, Bali. The village still maintains its culture by alienating itself from the outside world. The community or tourists visiting the village must comply with the rules that apply to the village.

Above is one of the challenges for the lecturer of English, especially in students’ speaking abilities. The lecturer must know the character, origin, and ability of a student they are teaching. If the lecturer can master these components, the learning outcomes can be easily achieved. According to Iskandarwassid and Sunendar (2009), speaking skills have a close relationship with listening skills. A speaker associates meaning, arrange interactions; who should say what, to whom, when, and about what. In the context of communication, the speaker acts as a sender, while the receiver is the recipient of the message, which is the object of communication. A good speaker should be able to express his desires or thoughts well, both in terms of linguistics or non-language aspects.

**Research Method**

This research was conducted at Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Triatma Mulya, Bali International Spa Institute, Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia. With a total of 12 informants, with the following details: 4 informants were business students of Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Triatma Mulya, four informants were spa therapist students at the Bali International Spa Institute, and four informants were students of the Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia. Each social group consists of two men and two women; the total gender variable consists of six men and six women.

The requirements of informants in this study are: (1) having a speech organ or speech organ that is still good; (2) has no mental disorder or disability; (3) have a good personality.
Data collection is done in June 2018 using Simak method. Simak method using Sadap (tapped) technique in the form of recording and noting techniques. The researcher tapped the use of the informant's language. Noting technique is done after the researcher has recorded. The notes are made with phonetic transcription. The author also uses the reading passage style: read aloud method (Chamber & Trudgill, 1998) This method is done by giving a list of words to students so that students make paragraphs that contain all the words in the form of a paragraph. After completing the paragraph, students are asked to come forward to read the paragraph aloud.

The researcher also listened to the informants' speeches in their activities during in the classroom and outside of the classroom using English. The informants didn't know being researched. The method is based on Chambers and Trudgill (1998) regarding the observer's paradox; researchers observe the way someone talks when they feel they are not being observed.

The words in the research instrument are data contained in the table on the results. The tabulated data is then analyzed according to the order of purpose of this study. Data were analyzed using descriptive quantitative and qualitative analysis through padan methods, both with comparative equating relationships and distinguishing appeals relations (Mahsun, 2010).

**Findings and Discussion**

Students pronounce English phonemes very varied. Differences in pronunciation occur because students consist of various social statuses and regions so that the pronunciation of English phonemes must be influenced by the phonological system of the Indonesian language and their respective experiences. Besides that, it is influenced by social variables, namely gender, which will be described as follows.

**Pronunciation of phoneme /d/ in English**

Based on the results of data analysis, an illustration of the variation of the phoneme /d/ in English speakers from different statuses and genders is obtained.
Table 1

Quantification of pronunciation phoneme /d/ in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Lexeme</th>
<th>Entrepreneur</th>
<th>Spa therapist</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the end of</td>
<td></td>
<td>Male  Female</td>
<td>Male  Female</td>
<td>Male  Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>departed</td>
<td>1d; 2d</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[di’paː.tɪd]</td>
<td>1t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>accepted</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>1d; 1t 2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[æk’sɛp.tɪd]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dated</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[deɪ.tɪd]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>filled</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[fɪld]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>repeated</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>1d; 1t</td>
<td>1d; 1t 1d; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[rɪ’prɪ:td]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fried</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[fraɪd]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hated</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[heɪ.tɪd]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>related</td>
<td>1d; 2t</td>
<td>1d; 1t</td>
<td>2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[rɪ’lɛt.tɪd]</td>
<td>1t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>affected</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2d</td>
<td>2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[ə’fɛk.tɪd]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>celebrated</td>
<td>1d; 2t</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>1d; 1t 1d; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[sɛl.ɪ.breɪ.tɪd]</td>
<td>1t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Realization [d] (%)  
55 65 35 30 65 50

Realization [t] (%)  
45 35 65 70 35 50

The phoneme pronunciation variation can be a sound [d] or a sound [t], as shown in Table 1. Based on Table 1, the phoneme /d/ at the end of the word is pronounced with [d] by female entrepreneurs and male students (65%) who pronounce it as [d]. Similarly, phonemes /d/ at the end words are pronounced as [d] by male entrepreneurs (55%), male spa therapists (35%), female spa therapists (30%), and female students (50%).

The phoneme /d/ at the end of the word is pronounced with [t] by female entrepreneurs and male students (35%) who pronounce it as [t]. Likewise, word phonemes /d/ at the end of the words were pronounced as [t] by male entrepreneurs (45%), male spa therapists (65%), female spa therapists (70%), and female students (50%).
These data indicate that (a) 65% of female entrepreneurs and male students pronounce phonemes /d/ as [d] and 35% pronounce phonemes /d/ as [t].

Table 1 related to status shows that the realization of phoneme /d/ as [d] pronunciation in English is more aimed at the status of entrepreneurs and students, whereas spa therapists show the realization of pronunciation /d/ as [t] higher than the status of entrepreneurs and students: (a) Spa therapists at the end of the word position, 65% male, 70% female.

The results above show that the frequency of realization [d] is more found in the status of entrepreneurs and students compared to the status of spa therapists.

Based on the information above, it can be seen that the status of spa therapists are more dominant or more prominent in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /d/ in English compared to the status of entrepreneurs and students. In other words, the status of entrepreneurs and students tend to understand English, which is sounded like a sound [d].

**Pronunciation of phoneme /v/ in English**

Based on the results of data analysis, an illustration of the variation of phoneme /v/ in English in speakers of different statuses and genders is obtained.

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Lexeme</th>
<th>Entrepreneur</th>
<th>Spa therapist</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the end of the word</td>
<td>attractive [əˈtrækтив]</td>
<td>1v; 2v</td>
<td>2p</td>
<td>2p; 2p</td>
<td>2p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>love [lʌv]</td>
<td>2v; 2v</td>
<td>2p; 1v; 1p</td>
<td>1v; 2v</td>
<td>2v; 1p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leave [liːv]</td>
<td>1v; 2v</td>
<td>2v; 2v</td>
<td>2v; 1v</td>
<td>2v; 1p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>give [ɡɪv]</td>
<td>2v; 1v; 1p</td>
<td>2p; 2p</td>
<td>2v; 2v</td>
<td>1v; 1p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dive [daɪv]</td>
<td>1v; 1v; 1p</td>
<td>2p; 2p</td>
<td>2v; 1v</td>
<td>1v; 1p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>have [hæv]</td>
<td>2v; 2p</td>
<td>2p; 2v</td>
<td>2v; 1v</td>
<td>2v; 1p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>prove [pruːv]</td>
<td>1v; 2v</td>
<td>1v; 1p</td>
<td>2p</td>
<td>1v; 1p</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The phoneme pronunciation variations can be either [v] or a sound [p], as shown in table 2. Based on table 2, the phoneme /v/ at the end of the word is pronounced with [v] by Spa female and male therapists (30%) who pronounce it as [v]. Similarly, the phoneme /v/ at the end of the word is pronounced as [v] by male entrepreneurs (80%) women (70%), and male students (40%) women (45%).

The phoneme /v/ at the end of the word is pronounced with [p] by Spa female and male therapists (70%) who pronounce it as [p]. Similarly, the phoneme /v/ at the end of the word is pronounced as [p] by male entrepreneurs (20%) women (30%), and male students (60%) women (55%).

This data shows that (a) 70% of female entrepreneurs and 80% of male entrepreneurs; 40% male students and 45% female students pronounce phoneme /v/ as [v] and male entrepreneurs 20%, female 30%; 60% male students, 55% female students pronounce phoneme /v/ as [p].

Table 2 related to status shows that the realization of phoneme pronunciation /v/ as [v] in English is more aimed at the status of entrepreneurs then followed by students, while spa therapists show realization of pronunciation /v/ as [p] higher than the status of entrepreneurs and students : (a) spa therapists at the end of the word position, 70% male, 70% female.

The results above show that the frequency of realization [v] is more found in the status of entrepreneurs and students compared to the status of spa therapists.

Based on the information above, it can be seen that the status of spa therapists are more dominant or more prominent in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /v/ in English compared to the status of entrepreneurs and students. In other words, the status of entrepreneurs and students tend to understand English, which is sounded like a sound [v].
Pronunciation of phoneme /θ/ in English

Based on the results of data analysis, an illustration of variations in phoneme /θ/ pronunciation in English for speakers from different statuses and genders was obtained.

Table 3
Quantification of pronunciation phoneme /θ/ in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Lexeme</th>
<th>Entrepreneur</th>
<th>Spa therapist</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At the end of the word</td>
<td>both [bəθ]</td>
<td>20; 20</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
<td>20 = two informants pronounce [θ];</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bath [baθ]</td>
<td>20; 20</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
<td>2t</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>breath [breθ]</td>
<td>10; 20</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>earth [3θ]</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>path [paθ]</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>month [mæθ]</td>
<td>2t; 20</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>health [helθ]</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>with [wiθ]</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>faith [feθ]</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
<td>2t; 1t</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>death [deθ]</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
<td>2t; 2t</td>
<td>10; 1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realization [θ] (%)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realization [t] (%)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The phoneme pronunciation variation can be a sound [θ] or a sound [t], as shown in table 3. Based on table 3, the phoneme /θ/ at the end of the word is pronounced with [θ] by male entrepreneurs and female students (70%) who pronounce it as [θ]. Likewise, phonemes /θ/ at the end of words are pronounced as [θ] by female entrepreneurs (80%), male spa therapists (15%), female spa therapists (20%), and male students (40%). The phoneme /θ/ at the end of the word is pronounced with [t] by male entrepreneurs and female students (30%) who pronounce it as [t]. Likewise, phoneme /θ/ at the end of words is pronounced as [t] by female entrepreneurs (20%), male spa therapists (85%), female spa therapists (80%), and male students (60%).
This data shows that (a) 70% male and female entrepreneurs pronounce phonemes /θ/ as [θ] and 30% pronounce phonemes /θ/ as [t]. Table 3 related to status shows that the realization of phoneme pronunciation /θ/ as [θ] in English is more aimed at entrepreneur and student status, whereas spa therapists show realization of pronunciation /θ/ as [t] higher than the status of entrepreneur and students: (a) Spa therapists at the end of the word position, 85% male, 80% female.

The results above show that the frequency of realization [θ] is more found in the status of entrepreneurs and students compared to the status of spa therapists. Based on the information above, it can be seen that the status of spa therapists are more dominant or more prominent in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /θ/ in English compared to the status of entrepreneur and students. In other words, the status of business and students tend to understand English, which it sounded like a sound [θ].

**Conclusion**

This research concludes that. First, spa therapists are more dominant in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /d/ in English, while the status of entrepreneurs and students tends to understand the pronunciation of English words better. Besides, women appear to be more dominant in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /d/ in English, while men tend to understand the pronunciation of English words more. Second, the status of spa therapists are more dominant in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /v/ in English, followed by student status. The status of entrepreneurs tends to understand the pronunciation of English words better. Also, women and men appear dominant in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /v/ with a difference of 5% -10% in English. Third, spa therapists are more dominant in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /θ/ in English, followed by student status. The status of entrepreneurs tends to understand the pronunciation of English words better. Besides, men appear more dominant in causing variations in phoneme pronunciation /θ/ in English, whereas women tend to understand the pronunciation of English words better.

**Pedagogical Implication**

Pedagogical Implication can be applicable to a global SLA audience by findings this research. It reflects that the pronunciation in English is still influenced by status and gender, as evidenced by the data above. By knowing the variations that arise, later in teaching to speak English, the lecturer can provide methods, games, techniques that are appropriate in teaching
students. It is hoped that variations in English pronunciation will not become a habit for speaker second language acquisition. Where English should be spoken properly and correctly, if it can be known in the data like this, the lecturer will take the next step to decide on the variations that arise in non-English speakers. By providing the right understanding and training for spa therapists, entrepreneurs, students will foster a good image in the tourism industry through education field.

References
ELE Journal References


Scrutinizing the Effect of E-Learning to the Students’ Attitude: Affective, Cognitive and Behaviour in the Classroom at EFL Context

A case study of five students in University Level

Maisa

*Universitas Swadaya Gunung Jati (UGJ), Cirebon-West Java, Indonesia*

Nenden Sri Lengkanawati

*Sekolah Pascasarjana Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI), Bandung-West Java, Indonesia*

Didi Suherdi

*Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI), Bandung-West Java, Indonesia*

Bio-profiles:

**Maisa** is a student of English Education Programme of Sekolah Pascasarjana UPI, aside from being a student, she is a lecturer at English Education Programme of Universitas Swadaya Gunung Jati (UGJ), Cirebon-West Java, Indonesia. Her research interests are ESP, English for Young Learners, Speaking for Academic Purposes, English Material Development Teacher Professional Development. Email: Maisa22230@upi.edu and maisa@unswagati.ac.id

**Nenden Sri Lengkanawati** is a senior lecturer at English Education Programme of Sekolah Pascasarjana Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI), Bandung-West Java, Indonesia. Her research interests are Teacher Education, Trends and issues of Teaching English as Foreign Language. Email: nendensl@upi.edu and nendensl@indo.net.id

**Didi Suherdi** is a senior lecturer at English Education Programme of Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (UPI), Bandung-West Java, Indonesia. His research interests are Teacher Education, Discourse Analysis, Technology and Students Engagement in English Classroom. Email suherdi_d@upi.edu
Abstract

The technology has become such a new integrated tool for some elements in life especially education in the 21st century. Computer Assisted Language Learning and Mobile/Multimedia Assisted Language Learning have initiated e-learning. The aim of the study is to describe effect of e-learning platform to students’ attitude in English learning and scrutinize them in term of affective, behavioural, and cognitive aspects. The affective attitude is an emotion represents the physical feeling, while behavioural attitude is the action of emotion feeling. Meanwhile cognitive attitude is a belief to certain situation. The research methodology is qualitative in term of case study as the research design. The participants of the research are five students at University level. The finding of the research shows the students’ attitude towards e-learning in English Classroom are almost positive in term of cognitive, affective, and behaviour aspect. However, suggestions are recommended that the use of e-learning should be applied wisely and refine the awareness of students’ attitude.

Keywords: Computer Assisted Language Learning, E-Learning Platforms, Mobile assisted Language Learning, 21st century learning

Introduction

The landscape of education has shifted significantly from 20th century into the 21st century which used to rely on the printed media to the digital media. (Hamied, 2015; Lengkanawati, 2015; Musthafa, 2008; Roden, 2011; Suherdi, 2012). Roden notes that the numbers of using technology in education have increased and have a lot of numbers of its usefulness. Similar to Bruycckere (2016, p.13) said that the kinds of technology such as school television, computers, smart boards, and tablet, mobile phone are very useful for increasing learning process in the classroom.

Technology has been a part of teaching in many countries and many levels of education system. It also occurs in the university level in Indonesia (Musthafa, 2008; Suherdi, 2012) There are several reasons why technology must be integrated in learning process. One of the reasons is technology makes teaching and learning become easier and effective. (Aixie & Wang, 2011).

The technology used in the teaching and learning process is called Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Allen et all (2000) has conducted research about the history of technology usage in education field. In 1924, the first language program was invented and then in 1960 until 1990 the computer program was used to help the educators in their teaching. Based on Levy (1997) cited in Gruba (2013) defines CALL as the study of using a Computer
Based in language teaching and learning, Gruba (2013) stated that teachers were able to suit their learning by the help of computer applications. Some types of CALL that were designed to English Language Teaching are CALL-specific (CD-ROMs) and Web-Based learning materials (Jati, 2012; Mitsikopoulou, 2014). As time goes, they began more creative to use networked computers. Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become embedded and affected the language teaching pedagogy at all levels.

The study about students’ attitude in ELT has been conducted recently. One of the studies is conducted by Libyan, which finds students give negative attitude learning using English. They prefer using the mother tongue to learn in the classroom (Abidin, at a. 2012). While the other research about ICT in ELT has been also conducted recently. What is more exciting is that studies have demonstrated positive effects that ICT brings towards students' learning motivation (Chenoweth, Ushida & Murday, 2006; Stepp-Greany, 2002), students' personal needs and learning styles (Gimenez, 2000), students' language mastery (Stepp-Greany, 2002), effective teaching and learning process (Al-Jarf, 2004), etc. The current study discussing about the use of web-based learning design developed by Gumawang Jati (2012) and Supardi (2018) entitles “A Web-based Model for TEFL and its Effectiveness in Developing Students’ Learning: A Research and Development Study at Private Junior High Schools in Bandung” has been conducted by Gumawang Jati 2012. He finds that the three zones (input-exposure-practice) in using Web Model has encouraged the students in learning English collaborative to have authentic materials that can also be used in other subjects beside English. Besides, there are also some studies about the use of social media in ELT conducted by Ellison 2017; Coffin & Pinchai, 2018; Hoesein, 2018 Rokhayani, 2012. While Prapinwong, 2018 and Supardi, 2018 have conducted research about fostering students’ the intercultural awareness by designing Course design in the form of blending learning and a case study in blended learning.

However, the study of comprehensive effect of students’ attitude which scrutinizes the three components in term of cognitive, affective, and behaviour in the same way are still rare in the context. Meanwhile, to get the comprehensive results of the effect of using e-learning to the students, it is needed to scrutinize using the three aspect that has mentioned before.

**Methods**

We use a case study as the research design. We focus on the phenomenon of students’ attitude through e-learning in vocational high school students. The participants of the study are five students (S1, S2, S3, S4 and S5) from English department at the third grade. We choose
University students of the third grade because they are familiar in using e-learning platform in the classroom. The data collections of the study use triangulation method which include observations, interviews, and questionnaire (Alwasilah, 2002: 106). First, we did observation checklist to know the students’ attitude in using e-learning platform (Schoology, Moodle, Facebook, Instagram, Edmodo, etc) as media of teaching in several meetings. The second, we gave the questionnaire to know how students implement the e-learning platform not only in the classroom and outside the classroom. (see appendices). The last. She interviewed the participants to know how their feeling and their opinion in using e-learning (Schoology) which is integrated in learning English.

Results and Discussion

The Effect of Students’ Behavioural attitude

To explore the effect of students’ behavioural attitude, we observe main activities i.e. students’ punctuality, students critical thinking skills, students’ attention in using e-learnings. The results indicate that the almost students use the mobile phone to access information dealing with the materials.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S4</th>
<th>S5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student comes on time to the English class.</td>
<td>CO</td>
<td>CO</td>
<td>CO</td>
<td>CO</td>
<td>CO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student always comes to the English class.</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>AC</td>
<td>AC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When students just arrived in class, she/he uses Schoology, Mendeley, etc</td>
<td>CP</td>
<td>CP</td>
<td>CP</td>
<td>CP</td>
<td>CP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student is asking questions about the materials actively</td>
<td>AQ</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>AQ</td>
<td>AQ</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student gives opinion during the English lesson.</td>
<td>GO</td>
<td>NG</td>
<td>GO</td>
<td>GO</td>
<td>GO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student pays attention to the teacher during the classroom</td>
<td>PA</td>
<td>PA</td>
<td>PA</td>
<td>PA</td>
<td>PA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student cheats to others about the material.</td>
<td>NSC</td>
<td>NSC</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CO=Come On time; AC=Always come; CP=Check Phone; AQ=Ask Questions; GO=Give Opinion; PA=Pay Attention; SC=Students’ Cheat
Since the teachers announce that the lesson would use the e-learning platform, almost all the students come on time in the class. Numerous students check the mobile phone for several reasons such as checking notification of electronic messages, checking the study time, etc. The students have been familiar to use computer to English learning for five years. S2 knew the technology since in the first grade at college and accessed the website. S3 and S4 use computer to English learning for four years. S5 knew the technology since in the second grade of College and accessed mobile application and the website such as Oxford Online Dictionary. S1 and S4 spend one hour everyday to access the internet for English lesson. Meanwhile S2, S3 and S5 spend two hours everyday or few times a week to access the internet for English lesson. Almost students have accounts of several social media to learn English anytime. S1, S3 and S4 also use YouTube channel, Mendeley, Sci-hub to get a lot of information related to the subject.

The data describes that the affective aspects that makes most of participants feel enjoy, confident, easy and helped by the e-learning. It has been explained by S2:

“Yes, I feel enjoy when using e-learning because it does not make us bored. With e-learning, we can get a positive side from it”

The description from S2 can indicate that most students were feeling enjoy. The e-learning gives the students a new way of learning. It gives the students confident in learning. The students need more something new in their learning and the globalization era made students more curious about the technology that they are already used and the use of e-learning is make the students more independent (Manning et al.: 2011 p. 24). So, the students feel more confident in the learning, explained by S1:

“I feel confident using computer and internet because I have learned it since in the senior high school.” (S1)

The other participants seem to have little difficulties in using of e-learning because of the trouble of internet connection that might break down the website. S5 gives the comment:

“İ have little difficulties because sometime the system or signal is lost so the learning is postponed by a moment...” (S5)

Some factors could happen in the learning with technology. Some of problems might appear in the learning such as lack of tools and capability to engage learner in the cognitive and social skills (Naidu, 2006: 45).
The Effect of Students’ Cognitive Attitude in English Classroom

The next table is describing the students’ cognitive attitude in the English classroom. There are four acts that show the students’ cognitive attitude in the English Classroom. The items are students’ compatibility of using e-learning platform, students’ achievement, etc.

### Students’ Cognitive Attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S4</th>
<th>S5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student is familiar with computer or other technology.</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student is easy to learn Schoology in the English learning.</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>NEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student is able to use e-learning</td>
<td>AU</td>
<td>AU</td>
<td>AU</td>
<td>AU</td>
<td>NAU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student gets high score in the English subjects</td>
<td>NHS</td>
<td>NHS</td>
<td>HS</td>
<td>NHS</td>
<td>NHS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: FC=Familiar with e-learning/ EL=Easy to learn/AU=able to use/HS=High Score/ N=Not

S1 and S2 believe that e-learning giving the opportunity to acquire new knowledge because a lot of materials that could learn. S3 less believes to e-learning giving the opportunity to acquire new knowledge because confused with the material and affected to English learning. S4 and S5 believe that e-learning giving the opportunity to acquire new knowledge because it can increase the vocabulary in English. S1, S2, S4 and S5 believe that e-learning can enhance English learning experience because it easy to learned with the e-learning than bring many books. S3 believes that the use of e-learning does not always support learning experience. S1 and S2 believe that e-learning can increase the quality of English learning because it can directly access the material. The e-learning make learning easier. S3 and S4 believe that e-learning can increase the quality of English learning because it easy to use and fun. S5 believes that e-learning can increase the quality of English learning because it can directly access in everywhere and anytime.

In behaviour aspect, some participants give the different responses to the learning. It showed by the time of participants spent to access internet in English learning. S1 and S4 spent around 1 hour. S2, S3, S5 spent two hours. They spent one-two hours to access the English website such as Brainy, duo lingo, Wikipedia, talking with friends. The participants learned the eLearning individually to increase their English understanding. It supported by S2. S2 have learned others kind of e-learning for instance, Duo lingo and talking with friend. S3, S4 have learned Brainy as the others e-learning. In cognitive aspects, some participants have their belief to e-learning. Each participant had different belief according to the students’ belief itself. It added by S4:
“I believe that e-learning gives me a positive effect that by e-learning my English knowledge was increased.” (S4)

The explanation which was given by S4 also supported by A. Izumor et al. 2013) in Vasbieva (2016) explained the study of blended learning with the use of Blackboard learning management system could extend students’ English knowledge. Others were about the learning experience that the participant had after learned by e-learning explained by S5:

“By learning with e-learning, my learning experience enhanced because we can learn individually without the teacher and it also can be learned everywhere and anytime.” (S5)

The explanation by S5 is also supported by Epignosis, 2014 that in e-learning the students are allowed to learn anytime and anywhere and can easily learn without organize with the place and time.

The Effect of Students’ Affective Attitude in The Classroom

The use of e-learning gives a positive effect to the students’ attitude. The students feel easy in using the technology. S1 has learned to use the technology in learning since senior high school. S2, S3, S4 and S5 have little difficulties in using the technology because of the internet connection. S1 feels confident in using the computer in English learning. It caused the student has learning it since in elementary school and it has been her habitual in learning. S2, S3, S4 and S5 have less confident in using the computers in English learning because the trouble in internet connection.

In this phase of data, we discussed and answered the second research question about the extension of the students’ attitude in applying e-learning in English. The second research question answered by evaluated on data analysis above. The extension of the students’ attitude in applying eLearning at English subject was different to each student. Table below showed the extension of the Attitude which indicated how far the extension of students’ attitude towards e-learning in English.

Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
<th>AFFECTIVE</th>
<th>BEHAVIORAL</th>
<th>COGNITIVE</th>
<th>RESULT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>PPP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>PPP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>NPP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>PPP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In general, the extension of students’ attitude is different based on each student’s attitude aspects. It showed after the students joined the learning. It is called as the students’ learning experience (Rhema et al., 2013: 158). The learning experience includes in the time and process that students had learned something. Such as experience to use the e-learning in the classroom in which the students responded to the question differently. Th Other factors are the students’ beliefs to the e-leaning towards an attitude object which is affected to students’ emotion. According to Jain (2014: 7) the emotions, actions and the beliefs are synchronous each other to perform a positive or negative toward an attitude object.

Discussion

From the result of the data above, the we assume that almost students have positive behavioural attitude in using e-leaning in the classroom as well as the students’ cognitive attitude. Only one student who has negative attitude both in cognitive and behaviour.

The condition of student’s behavioural attitude above are influenced by some factors: students’ willingness and positive reinforcement. (Elli, 1994, Cohen, 2009 Jules, 2015, Oye et al., 2012).

Students’ Willingness

On the behavioural attitude, it showed when the students come on time in one activity, the students were really intending to that subject. It described on behavioural attitude when the students more have willing to something, they could be do it in certain time and continuously.

Positive Reinforcements

It is the students’ action in the class when they believed to an attitude object. When in cognitive aspect, the students understood the learning, they likely did an action of what they belief, in the behavioural know as asking the question. The behaviour aspects showed participants positive behaviour. It could make the students itself or the others more responsive in giving an opinion. Similar with asking question and giving opinion, students paid attention as the effect of the learning. The learning forced the students to pay attention with giving such motivation and practice in the learning.

While the condition of the students’ cognitive attitude is described in following points:

Compatibility in Using the Technology Media
In the phase of using technology to learning, the students felt curious about something new in their environment. The capabilities of students were affected by the student emotional feeling. It was about the familiarity and the easiest of used the technology in learning.

In this phase, it describes the students’ learning experience in using the technology media in learning. The participants have learned the technology media since in the first grade and it gave the participants willingness to use other kind of media not just a media that given in the school. Others media is such as Duo lingo, Brainly or Wikipedia.

**High Achievement**

In the cognitive aspect, the students who get the high score they answered correctly to some questions and have more understanding to the material. Meanwhile the students who do not get the high score there would be some aspects such as the student’s physical healthiness, students understanding or class situation.

According to questionnaire and interview data, the participants have willingness to learn using the e-learning in the future education because it helped the students in doing their assignments easily. According to cognitive attitude observational checklist, it showed that all the participants were familiar with the technology and were able to use the e-learning Schoology. It was because the participants have been using the computer or HP around five-four years. They also used the computer or HP to search in website for instance Wikipedia, Brainly and Duo lingo to help them learning English. In cognitive attitude, it was supported by the questionnaire about students’ belief to e-learning. The questionnaire number twelve to fourteen explained the students’ belief which one of the cognitive attitude aspects. All the participants agreed to the statement given. The participants believed that e-learning could give the opportunity to acquire the new English knowledge such as increasing the participants’ new English vocabulary.

Therefore, the first research questions which deals with the students’ attitude of using e-learning has been answered. The students’ affective, behavioural and cognitive attitude aspect show on the positive based on the data analysis above. Positive attitude showed by students that they feel easy, enjoy and fun when using e-learning in English. In positive behavioural attitude, the students showed they do positive action such as giving opinion, comment, asking questions and practice in front of the class. The students also used other kinds of e-learning to increasing the students’ English knowledge. In positive cognitive attitude, the students showed their believed in e-learning that it could give the students opportunity to acquire new knowledge, enhanced English learning experience and increased the quality of English learning.
While the second research question which deals with how far the students use e-learning in supporting their learning not only in the classroom but also out of the classroom. All the data to answer the question can be seen from the data from questionnaire and the data from the interview. Most students have engaged the learning activities with e-learning since they were in junior high school until they are learning in the university. It is indicated that almost students have their personal space such as having personal account in Schoology, Facebook, web blog, etc. They enjoy learning English through their personal space.

However, there’s still negative affective attitude showed by students. They feel difficult in doing the work of learning English using e-learning right away on the spot because they need to make a concept in writing the work in English. Besides, they have limit access to the internet and the lack of computer tools. Those factors could happen in the learning and make the learning postponed in moment. It makes the negative side of using e-learning.

**Conclusion**

The effect of e-learning to the students’ attitude gives the significant pedagogical implication for both the teachers and the students. The students have positive attitude in learning English not only in the classroom but also, they feel excited in learning English more out of the classroom. For the teachers, the positive attitude of students has influenced the teachers to explore the models of e-learning such as Learning Management System (LSM), Social Media, and other e-learning platforms. For the Institution, the positive effect of e-learning gives a better publication which can promote the institution and invite new comers to join the education institution effectively.

The Changing landscape of education in the 21st century which mostly use technology as the main media of learning would lead the teachers to have more engagement with the students and provoke the teachers to learn the more e-learning platform to gain the target of language learning in EFL context. The e-learning would also create learning community to reinforce the students use English better in various media from time to time. The teachers need to explore various English material development that can be applied in e-learning platform.

**References**


