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Rhetorical Pattern of the Indonesian EFL Undergraduate Students' Writings

Dian Fajrina^{*1,2}
John Everatt²
Amir Sadeghi^{3,4}

¹English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Syiah Kuala, Banda Aceh 23111, INDONESIA

²School of Teacher Education, College of Education, Health and Human Development, University of Canterbury, Christchurch 8041, NEW ZEALAND

³Wilkinson's English Language School, Christchurch 8024, New Zealand

⁴PEETO The Multi-Cultural Learning Centre, Christchurch 8024, NEW ZEALAND

Abstract

The present research aimed to study the rhetorical patterns in students' writings, whether they follow a deductive pattern or an inductive pattern, and whether the pattern is similar when writing in English and the Indonesian language. The sample for this study was 20 undergraduate students from the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education majoring in English Education in several universities in Indonesia. Participants were requested to write two essays and two email-format letters, one of each was written in English, the other in the Indonesian language. The results showed that all students preferred the deductive pattern for their two types of essays. However, for the letter writing, students preferred the inductive pattern more than the deductive one, with 12 students using the inductive pattern in their letters in English and 16 students using the inductive pattern in their letters in Indonesian. It is suggested that the Indonesian culture and the teaching instructions received in the classrooms may influence students' choice of the patterns they use in different types of writings. The findings should give valuable information for the design of teaching writing courses in English Education majors in Indonesia.

* Corresponding author, email: dian.fajrina@pg.canterbury.ac.nz, dian_fajrina@unsyiah.ac.id

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1. INTRODUCTION

Producing an academic paper in English is a formidable task for students with English as a foreign language (EFL), including EFL students in Indonesia. The difficulties with academic writing in English involve different linguistic and cognitive strategies that students are not familiar with (Rao, 2007). However, Ariyanti (2016) had claimed that the most challenging part of EFL writing was the influence of students' first language and cultural background, which caused them to 'sound' different from texts written by native English speakers. The claim was supported by Safnil (2000, p. 188) in his doctoral study, where he argued that Indonesian writers prefer "...an indirect writing style with various types of background information at the beginning of the introduction sections". According to Kaplan (1966), the founder of Contrastive Rhetoric, even advanced EFL students can write ineffective papers. He states, "the foreign student who has mastered the syntax of English may still write a bad paragraph or a bad paper unless he also masters the logic of English" (Kaplan, 1966, p. 15).

The features of typical writing in American English are reported by Rinnert and Kobayashi (2001) as having the rhetorical pattern moving from general to specific (deductive). In this pattern, the main idea or thesis statement is in the introduction of the work and shows the readers the position taken by the author. Transitions are found between paragraphs, and the main idea or thesis statement is represented in conclusion. However, a different rhetorical pattern has been identified in the writings of international students (Connor, 1987; Eggington, 1987).

A study by Connor (1987) investigated cross-cultural variations in German and Finnish students' argumentative texts. Compared to their English and North American peers, the German and Finnish students did not consistently follow the typical argumentative text structure of situation + problem + solution + evaluation. It would be expected that they follow the sequence of speech acts of asserting a claim, justifying a claim through observations, and inducing the original claim from observations (Connor, 1987). German and Finnish students started their text by asserting a claim, followed by justifying the claim and inducing the claim. These sequences should have completed the argument, but then the students continued their text by repeating the sequence. So, there were two cycles of the same sequence in one text. The findings of this study support Kaplan's (1966) hypothesis that German writers, and Finnish writers who shared similar cultural patterns to German, followed a digressive pattern rather than the linear pattern favoured by their English and North American peers.

Furthermore, Eggington (1987) studied Korean students and found that these participants faced difficulty recalling information presented in a linear (deductive) rhetorical pattern when there was a delay between presentation and recall. This research also supported Kaplan's (1966) hypothesis that Asian students did not follow English's linear rhetorical style. It is also implied that Korean students would be able to rewrite the information in a linear rhetorical style only shortly after receiving it, implying that they could recall the original pattern of the information but only for a short time.

Zheng (2013), on the other hand, studied the writings of Chinese and Korean EFL students and discovered that the students used a deductive or linear pattern in stating their position in an argumentative essay. Zheng admits that the writing content was influenced by the students' culture and social background. Hirose (2003) found similar results when comparing argumentative writings in Japanese and English by the same Japanese EFL students. This research revealed that most students with Japanese applied the deductive pattern as their first language and English as their foreign language. The findings of Zheng and Hirose contradict Kaplan's (1966) hypothesis that Asian students use a circular pattern in organizing their essays. However, this may be due to the participants in these two studies majoring in English, meaning that they have learned the English essay pattern in their writing subjects.

In the Indonesian context, limited studies can be found in investigating the rhetorical pattern of Indonesian EFL students' writings. Budiharso (2006) examined essays written in English and Indonesian by ten undergraduates. He found that students who produced an essay with a linear pattern in English did not always use the same pattern for their Indonesian essay. Sony and Munir (2015) studied argumentative essays written by 20 Indonesian undergraduate students and found that the students could write using the English pattern taught in the writing course. However, two years after their writing course, their essay became less linear. The students succeeded in producing essays using the English pattern after studying in an English writing program but failed to maintain this writing pattern after a couple of years. The researchers argued that the unstable pattern in writing resulted from the fact that Indonesian and English do not share similar cultural backgrounds, and these different backgrounds influence the way the students organize their writing.

Considering the writing syllabus in Indonesia, the participating EFL students in the current study were expected to be able to write essays and letters as taught in their writing classes. Alternatively, Indonesian culture, which prefers the inductive pattern in verbal and written communication, may influence the students' writings, leading them to diverge from these patterns. Kuntjara (2004, p. 19) argued that "Indonesian EFL students who are used to thinking inductively where things are often stated implicitly will find it difficult to write deductively as in the English writing". The current study investigated the possibilities of the influences of Indonesian culture and teaching instructions on students' writings. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to discover the types of rhetorical patterns used in Indonesian students' writing, particularly argumentative essays versus letter writings, as well as whether such students use the same pattern when writing in English versus Indonesian.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teaching Writing in English and Indonesian in the Indonesian Context

An Indonesian student's experience in writing would most likely begin during a *Bahasa Indonesia* course, which they take in the early years of primary school. Indonesian is taught along with the other Indonesian language skills: listening, speaking, and reading. Based on the *Bahasa Indonesia* syllabus for primary school, learning to write begins by identifying parts of a piece of writing. Students also need to pay attention to the structure of the language. The writing process then continues by

imitating the writing model provided in their textbook. The students' writing would be writing a simple narrative paragraph based on a picture series, or an invitation, an announcement, a poem, or a letter. Other writing activities involve filling in the blank spaces of a paragraph with correct words provided in a reading text. Students may also be asked to rearrange paragraphs or other types of writing provided in their textbook and put them in the correct order. At the high school level, these kinds of writing may also be experienced, but the content and the length of the writing needed are adjusted to the students' academic levels. Kuntjara (2004, p. 16) argued that the teaching of Bahasa Indonesia in the classroom was "...treated more like a science whose knowledge is to be learned and memorized than to be used in actual practical communication".

Indonesian students, on the other hand, typically begin studying English in high school, from grade 7 to grade 12. However, because English is a foreign language in Indonesia, students typically only have the opportunity to practice the language in classrooms twice a week for 90 minutes (Lauder, 2008; Panggabean, 2015; Rini, 2014; Sulistiyo, 2016). When it comes to writing, more attention is given to technical and grammatical aspects than the content and the organization of the writing (Abas & Aziz, 2016). Therefore, it is not surprising that Indonesian students' ability in English is still considered low (Abrar et al., 2018).

Students, who continue their studies at the university level and wish to major in English Education, are required to study English writing for three semesters, starting from learning how to write a paragraph and essay to academic writing. The process of learning to write in the classroom is usually guided by the teacher (Abas & Aziz, 2018). Students learn to write mostly by imitating the modelled essays/compositions given by the teacher or provided in their textbooks (Kuntjara, 2004). They learn writing rhetorical patterns from these given essays, and the teaching of writing is dominated by a focus on technical and grammatical aspects (Abas & Aziz, 2016).

One type of academic writing is an argumentative essay. It is widely used at the university level because it forces students to think, find reasons and evidence to support an issue, and convince the readers that the argumentations are acceptable. In this type of essay, the student should indicate his/her position in the argument. The statement of the author's position in an argumentative essay is called the thesis statement or the main idea. Two methods are offered by Oshima and Hogue (2006) to organize an argumentative essay: using a Block Pattern or a Point-by-Point Pattern.

In the Block pattern, the main idea or the author's position is stated in the introductory paragraph. In the body of the text, the first block of paragraphs states the other side of the argument, followed by providing rebuttals to the argument. The second block of paragraphs provides arguments for the author's position. The last paragraph will summarize the author's view of the topic discussed. In the Point-by-Point pattern, the first paragraph constitutes not only the main idea but also a summary of the other side's argument. The body paragraphs will state the other side's arguments and each argument is followed by the rebuttal from the author's counterargument. The last paragraph covers the summary of the essay. The following is an example of an introductory paragraph for an argumentative essay using a Point-by-Point pattern.

The middle school years (grades 7 and 8) are known to be the "tough years." These are the years when the uneven pace of girls' and boys' physical, emotional, and cognitive development is most noticeable. Girls are ahead of boys

on all counts, and both suffer. Educators debate whether separating boys and girls during these difficult years might improve students' academic performance. Separate classes are now prohibited in public schools that receive federal funds, but a change in the federal law that prohibits them is under consideration. Although some parents and educators oppose same-sex classes, there is some evidence that separating boys and girls in middle school yields positive results (Oshima & Hogue, 2006, p. 144).

The paragraph uses the deductive pattern where the thesis or main idea is located in the last sentence of the introductory paragraph, "Although some parents and educators oppose same-sex classes, there is some evidence that separating boys and girls in middle school yields positive results". The introductory paragraph is followed by several body paragraphs that constitute the statements of the other side's arguments and the rebuttals to the arguments given by the author. Following is an example of a statement of the other side's argument and a rebuttal from the author.

Opponents of single-sex education claim that test scores of students in all-girl or all-boy classes are no higher than those of students in mixed classes ("Study")¹. However, the research is inconclusive. Despite the fact that some research shows no improvement in test scores, other research shows exactly opposite results (Blum)²... (Oshima & Hogue, 2006, p. 144).

The body paragraph starts by stating the other side's argument, "Opponents of single-sex education claim that test scores of students in all-girl or all-boy classes are no higher than those of students in mixed classes". The author directly rebuts this statement by providing a counterargument, "However, the research is inconclusive. Despite the fact that some research shows no improvement in test scores, other research shows exactly opposite results". The author continues the paragraph by providing research results supporting his claim. The essay ends with a summary of the author's point of view.

2.2 Writing Letters Based on the English Syllabus in Indonesia

Other than learning to write different types of academic writing, Indonesian students also learn to write different types of letters. Based on the English syllabus, writing a letter was only taught twice; first, when the students were in grade 7 where they were asked to write a letter to a friend. The second time was in year 12, where they needed to write a job application letter. While in the *Bahasa Indonesia* course, writing a letter was only given one opportunity in year 12. At the university level, learning to write a letter has rarely been taught as part of the usual Writing course. Instead, it is usually taught as part of a Business-related course. For example, at Raden Fatah State Islamic University, as one of the target universities in this study, writing a letter is taught as part of the English for Business course. The allocated time was only 3x50 minutes (Putri, 2021). At Tanjungpura University, another university taking part in this study, writing a letter is included in the Business Correspondence, an elective course. The type of letter taught in the course was business-related and it was only offered in one semester. Students are expected to learn how to write letters in English over a few meetings/classes only.

Letter writing taught at school and at the university directed the students to use the deductive pattern where the main idea or the purpose of sending the letter is located in the introductory paragraph. An example of an application letter, as a type of letter writing, is provided in the English textbook for year XII ([Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2015](#)). Here, the students are directed to introduce the main idea in the first paragraph. This is followed by paragraph(s) which provide supporting information about the applicant such as work experience. The letter should close by expressing a willingness to be interviewed at any time.

Despite the writing lessons learned at schools and universities directed the students to write deductively, Indonesian students, as EFL students, were found to diverge from the pattern learned in the classrooms ([Budiharso, 2006](#); [Sony & Munir, 2015](#)) which indicate the influence of the culture in which the students were raised.

3. METHODS

3.1 Participants

The study included 20 undergraduate students (four males and 16 females) from four Indonesian universities, ranging from 18 to 22 years old. They were English Education majors from different semesters at the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education. They were all native Indonesian speakers.

3.2 Instruments

In this study, participants were asked to write an essay and a letter in English on week one and an essay and a letter in the Indonesian language on week two. The topics for the essays were different and sourced from the [Cambridge IELTS book, 5th edition \(2006\)](#), and the [Cambridge IELTS book, 10th edition \(2015\)](#). The different topics were given to avoid translating ideas from one essay to another; a similar process was used by [Khodabandeh et al. \(2013\)](#), [Rusfandi \(2015\)](#), and [Hosseini \(2016\)](#) with their participants. However, for the letter writings, the topic was the same, provided by the researcher. The tests were administered to determine the elements of the 'location of the main idea', 'patterns', and 'summary statement' in the essays and letters of these Indonesian students.

Participants were asked to write approximately 250 words for an essay, and the time was limited to 40 minutes, as for a test. The topic for the English essay was, "It is important for children to learn the difference between right and wrong at an early age. Punishment is necessary to help them learn this distinction. To what extent do you agree or disagree with this opinion? What sort of punishment should parents and teachers be allowed to use to teach good behavior to children?" The topic for the Indonesian essay was, "Some people think that a sense of competition in children should be encouraged. Others believe that children who are taught to co-operate rather than compete become more useful adults" (note that this Indonesian topic was translated into the Indonesian language and in this form that the students were given the topic). The students were asked to provide supporting statements for their answers and provide examples and reasons based on their knowledge and experience.

For the English letter, the topic was, “Write a letter to a potential research supervisor in Australia and ask for his/her willingness to be your thesis supervisor”. The direction was, “Imagine that you will continue your study for a Master’s degree in a university in Australia. Before you can submit a university application form, you need to find a research supervisor who will supervise your thesis”. The topic for the Indonesian letter was the same except that it was given to the students translated into the Indonesian language. The only difference was that ‘supervisor in Australia’ was changed into ‘supervisor in Indonesia’ and ‘university in Australia’ was changed into ‘university in Indonesia.’ For the letter writing tasks, the participants were again given 40 minutes of writing time and asked to write approximately 150 words.

Prior to each writing task, the researcher briefed the students about the topic to ensure that the participants understood the topic. For the letter task, the researcher also gave the participants some ideas about the procedures to apply for a postgraduate study in Australia, especially about why they need to write such a letter to approach a potential supervisor before submitting an application form to a university in Australia.

3.3 Data Analysis Procedures

Assessments of the students’ writings were divided into three elements. The first element was the ‘locations of the main ideas’. Interpretation of the location of the main idea was based on the views of [Kubota \(1992\)](#). The first location is in the introduction (initial), where the author’s point of view is located in the introductory paragraph. An essay with the main idea found in the introductory paragraph, followed by paragraphs that constitute the reasons and evidence to support the main idea, has been referred to as a ‘deductive’ pattern. The last paragraph should summarize the main idea or the essential points in the essay. The main idea can also be found in the middle of an essay, where the essay begins with an introduction, and the main idea is stated in the middle. The next location is at the end of an essay (final). An essay with the main idea revealed at the end has an ‘inductive’ pattern since the reasons and evidence to support the main idea are stated in the preceding paragraphs. This pattern is the opposite of the deductive pattern. Another location, ‘collection’, means that the author repeated his position more than once in an essay. The last is an ‘obscure’ location where the author does not clearly mention his position in an argumentative essay.

The second element was the patterns in the students’ writing tasks, which were analyzed by using [Kirkpatrick’s \(1995\)](#) model of Rhetorical Patterns. [Kirkpatrick \(1995\)](#) divided the patterns into deductive and inductive patterns. In ‘the deductive pattern’, the main idea is presented in the introductory paragraph, followed by supporting statements. In ‘the inductive pattern’, the main idea is located at the essay’s final part, and the earlier statements create supporting reason(s) for it.

The last element was the presence or absence of a ‘summary statement’ ([Kubota, 1992](#)). A summary should come at the end of writing work. In this study, the summary statement is divided into three criteria; 1. Summary; a summary statement is added at the end of the essay; 2. Nothing; no opinion or summary found, and 3. Opinion; the writer’s opinion was offered at the end of the essay. The raters for the students’ essay and letter writings were the first author and one external marker who is a local English teacher in Indonesia.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Location of the Main Idea, the Pattern Used, and the Presence or Absence of a Summary Statement in Essays and Letters

The English and Indonesian argumentative essay and letter writings were analyzed in terms of the location of the main idea, the pattern used, and the presence or absence of a summary statement. Inter-rater reliability was computed using Pearson correlation coefficients to determine the level of consistency in scoring across the two raters. For the location of the main idea, patterns, and summary statement, these were .93, .89, and .87 for the English essays, and .82, .88, and .78 for the Indonesian essay. The results indicate a high positive relationship between raters' scores.

The locations of the main idea in students' essays were mostly in the 'initial' part of the essay: 50% of students chose the 'initial' location for their English essay, and 60% of them chose this location for their Indonesian essay. Most of the other students preferred to repeat the main idea (collection), and the rest did not clearly mention the main idea in their essay (obscure). For e-letters, the locations of the main idea were much more varied, but the largest number of students presented the main idea in the middle of the Indonesian letter (50%) compared to at the end of the English letter (35%). The results for the locations of the main idea for Indonesian and English essays and letters are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Locations of the main idea in English and Indonesian essays and letters.

Location of main idea	Essay		Letter	
	English (%)	Indonesian (%)	English (%)	Indonesian (%)
Initial	50	60	15	15
Middle	0	0	30	50
Final	0	0	35	25
Collection	40	30	10	0
Obscure	10	10	10	10

In terms of the patterns used, an essay was said to have been developed deductively if the main idea appeared in the first paragraph. On the other hand, if the main idea appeared towards the end of the essay, it was considered to have an inductive pattern. The same rule applied to the letters. The results presented in Table 3 show that all students used the deductive pattern for their essays. However, 60% of the students preferred an inductive pattern in organizing their English letters, and 80% used the inductive pattern for their Indonesian letters.

Table 2. Patterns in Indonesian and English essays and letters.

	Essay		Letter	
	English (%)	Indonesian (%)	English (%)	Indonesian (%)
Deductive	100	100	40	20
Inductive	0	0	60	80

In terms of summary statements, half of the students ended their essays and letters with a summary statement (summary). In contrast, some 30% of students gave neither a summary nor an opinion (nothing) to show the readers that their English or Indonesian essay had ended. For the letters, 30% of the students preferred to add their

opinion before closing their English letters. Another 35% chose no summary or opinion (nothing) to end their Indonesian letter.

Table 3. Summary statements in Indonesian and English essays and letters.

	Essay		Letter	
	English (%)	Indonesian (%)	English (%)	Indonesian (%)
Summary	55	50	55	55
Opinion	15	20	30	10
Nothing	30	30	15	35

The data revealed that all students' essays written in English and Indonesian follow the deductive pattern and no significant differences in organizing the essays in both languages. While for letters, the inductive pattern was preferred more than the deductive pattern.

4.2 Rhetorical Patterns of Essay Writings

Research in the rhetorical pattern has emerged since Kaplan (1966) hypothesized that international students from different parts of the globe produce academic writings using a different pattern to students from North America. However, Kaplan (1966, pp. 4-5) also admits the fact that "the English paragraph may use just the reverse procedure; it may state a whole series of examples and then relate those examples into a single statement at the end of the paragraph, which is the inductive method of reasoning." It is more consistent with the pattern that Asian students are asked to follow, i.e., the inductive pattern (Kirkpatrick, 1995). Although Asian, including Indonesian, students may also use the circular pattern where the main idea or position taken by the writer in an argumentative essay is not directly mentioned (Kaplan, 1966). This may be because many Indonesians, as noted by Geertz (1960, as cited in Kuntjara, 2004), prefer to say things implicitly but can still be understood by those who share or at least understand the culture. An example of an argumentative essay below written by Student No.7 shows that she organized her essay using the deductive pattern where the main idea (MI) is revealed in the introduction paragraph (underlined sentences). However, in the next three paragraphs, she provides supporting statements (SS) only for her side of the argumentation without stating the other side's statement and providing rebuttal.

Punishment for Children

As a parent, we should educate our children at an early age. The earlier, the better result we want to be. To educate our children, parents should know what techniques that they can implement to build our children good behaviour. Therefore, it is important for parents to teach their children between right and wrong at an early age. Punishment is one of the important technique to help them learn between right and wrong. (MI)

Many parents will give their children a punishment if they do a mistake. (SS-1) It is not for a reason. Punishment can make children understand if they had done something wrong. If parents do not give them they will never learn anything. They might assume what they have done is right and they might do it again and again. So, punishment is important to be applied by parents.

However, parents do not give punishment without any warning. (SS-2) Before they punish their children, they should tell their children what cause and effect if they do something wrong and what kind of punishment will be given. For example, if the children told to their parents they go to school but they go to somewhere else, the parents can tell the children if they do that,

parents will take back the motorcycle and do not give pocket money for one week. Thus, if we do this, tell them first they might think before act.

Beside, parents do not give punishment too hard. (SS-3) For example, by using violence because I think violence does not effective and does not give any effect for them. Some parents in my village will use violence if they did a naughtiness. But, in fact, it does not give them a lesson, and some of them become naughtier. They might assume violence as usual thing and they will like to fight with their friends. Thus, it is better to avoid violence in giving punishment.

In conclusion, punishment is an important technique that needs to be applied by parents. They can learn a lesson through punishment. However, parents should teach them first and give them a warning and punishment, not also by using violence. If parents teach them well, they might grow up well. (Summary)

The findings of the rhetorical patterns of essay writing in English and Indonesian show that students applied the deductive pattern in writing, as taught in writing courses in their university. However, it may be that the Indonesian culture is influencing their way of organizing their argumentative essay, which means that they fail to follow the Block Pattern or Point-by-Point Pattern as taught in their writing textbook (Oshima & Hogue, 2006). In the excerpt above, the student only provided arguments for her side but failed to mention the other side's argument and provide a counterargument.

This finding is consistent with previous research by Hirose (2003) on Japanese undergraduate students and a study by Rashidi and Dastkheyr (2009) on Iranian undergraduate students. These studies found that students preferred the deductive pattern in organizing their essays, either in English or their national language. The results also agree with the study by Zheng (2013) on Chinese and Korean EFL students, where the students also preferred the deductive pattern despite their cultural and social background influencing the writing contents. Therefore, it can be concluded that for essay writing, students were learning to use the deductive pattern as the pattern taught in writing subjects.

4.3 Rhetorical Patterns of Letter Writings

In contrast to the essay writings findings, there were mixed results for the participants' letters' patterns. The main idea, or the purpose of sending the letter, was found to be located in different parts of the students' letters, and the inductive pattern was favoured more by the students than the deductive pattern. An example of a letter using the inductive pattern was written by Student No.1.

Dear Sir,
This is to introduce myself. Student A. I am one of the best graduates of the English Dept at University A. (SS-1)
I would like to continue my study in EFYL at Canberra University this December 2018, I enclosed my proposal and curriculum vitae. (SS-2)
I have already read your research (SS-3) and hoping that you are willing to supervise my work (MI) because I found a new innovation for my work after I read yours. (SS-3) And if you see no interest in my proposal I will change into your interest.
I am waiting for your advice and will be very glad if you are willing to be my supervisor. (Summary)

Best Regards,
Student A

The selected excerpt uses the inductive pattern where the main idea (MI) is located in the third paragraph, and the preceding paragraphs constitute supporting reasons (SS) for the main idea. The student was found to use the circular pattern in paragraph three, where the student wrote, "I have already read your research... because I found an innovation for my work after I read yours." The sentence provides another reason for the main idea, followed by the main idea itself, then continues discussing the reason. The excerpt provides evidence for Kaplan's (1966) hypothesis that Asian students follow the circular pattern in organizing and developing their ideas in their writing.

The inductive pattern used by the majority of the students in composing their English and Indonesian letters suggests that these university students were still influenced by Indonesian culture in organizing their letters despite majoring in English. Safnil (2000, p. 188) argued that Indonesian writers prefer to use "an indirect writing style with various types of background information at the beginning of the introduction sections". Such information is used to attract and prepare the reader for the writing, which comes at the end. Furthermore, the results identified in terms of the patterns used for letters agreed with the findings of Budiharso (2006) that students who produced an essay with a linear pattern in English did not always use the same pattern when writing in Indonesian.

5. CONCLUSION

The present study revealed that Indonesian undergraduate students could use the deductive pattern in composing their essays. This was likely because the students were majoring in English Education, where they learned how to write essays by following the patterns learned from their textbook. However, a different result was found for letters where most of the students used an inductive pattern. It was likely to happen because of the limited time allocated to learn to write a letter compared to the study time for learning to write essays. Therefore, it is recommended that English teachers and practitioners give more time and attention to letter writing as it is an important skill for the students to communicate internationally, such as in an electronic letter.

This study finds no significant differences in using the pattern when organizing essays and letters, either in English or in Indonesian. The influence of Indonesian culture (consistent with many Asian cultures) can be found in the essays where the students only mentioned their side of the argument and avoided rebuttal of another side of the argument. The students in this study favour a circular writing pattern. This can also be found in the students' writing, where they repeated the main idea and supporting details both in essays and in e-letters. Since this study only included a small number of participants, the findings cannot be generalized to undergraduate students in Indonesia. However, additional research with a larger number of participants from different parts of Indonesia should help confirm the current study's findings.

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Aspects of Writing Knowledge and EFL Students' Writing Quality

Rofiqoh¹
Yazid Basthomi²
Utami Widiati²
Yunita Puspitasari³
Saiful Marhaban⁴
Teguh Sulisty⁵

¹English Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Tadulako, Palu 94118 INDONESIA

²English Language Department, Faculty of Letters, Universitas Negeri Malang, Malang 65146, INDONESIA

³Department of English Language Education, STKIP (Sekolah Tinggi Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan) PGRI (Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia) Jombang, Sengon 61418, INDONESIA

⁴English Language Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Syiah Kuala, Banda Aceh 23111, INDONESIA

⁵English Language Department, Faculty of Language and Literature, Universitas PGRI (Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia) Kanjuruhan Malang, Malang, 65147 INDONESIA

Abstract

Writing knowledge pertaining to process, system, content, and genre plays an essential role to produce an intelligible composition. The purpose of the present study is twofold – to investigate the correlation between aspects of writing knowledge and quality of writing, and to investigate the contribution of the overall and individual aspects of writing knowledge to writing quality. The participants were 54 second-year ELT undergraduate students of a university in Indonesia. A writing test and multiple-choice test on writing knowledge were used as the instruments of data collection. The analysis employed Pearson correlation coefficient and multiple

* Corresponding author, email: sulistyoteguh@unikama.ac.id

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regressions. The result revealed a significant positive correlation between writing knowledge and writing quality. As a unit, the knowledge of process, system, content, and genre, indicates a significant contribution to the writing quality. Individually, however, only process knowledge significantly contributes to the writing quality. It provides additional pieces of evidence that process knowledge be given special attention, thus writing instruction should allow students to learn writing knowledge explicitly and implicitly.

Keywords: EFL students, writing knowledge, writing quality.

1. INTRODUCTION

Writing is an activity of creating a written product done recursively. It requires a wide range of knowledge and the ability to produce an intelligible text. Knowledge about writing plays an important role as a source in the writing process and product. Various kinds of knowledge about writing are stored in long-term memory and used by writers during the writing process (Gillespie et al., 2013). The knowledge can enhance the fluency and quality of writing if it is accessible and creatively utilized by writers (Kellogg, 2008). However, knowledge about the first language (L1) writing which is different from the second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) writing can cause trouble to students' L2/FL compositions. L2/FL writers generally find it hard to write because of the issue or topic given as well as the language needed to express their ideas (Asraf et al., 2018).

Learning to write in an L2/FL does not simply compose and revise, writing instruction needs to include all knowledge about writing. Hyland (2007) classifies the knowledge about writing that ESL (English as a Second Language)/EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students need to possess into five, i.e., process, system, content, genre, and context knowledge. Process (meta-cognitive) knowledge plays an essential role in activating students' meta-cognition, which becomes the central element of writing tasks. It is also considered an integral component of self-regulated writing (Englert et al., 1992). The knowledge of process writing possessed by the students helps them prepare and complete a writing task. During the writing process, the students' meta-cognitive knowledge works for thinking about the topic and text type, the planning and the steps of writing, and the strategies used in completing the task. Different meta-cognitive knowledge degrees reflect various activities (Lee, 2006) and writing quality (Yanyan, 2010). In fact, Surat et al. (2014) reported insufficient metacognitive knowledge influenced the low score of L2 writing. Knowledge about the substantive writing process, which is ranged between text, was also found as a predictor of L2 students' writing scores (Gillespie et al., 2013).

Another knowledge believed as a predictor for writing quality is system knowledge or meta-linguistic. This knowledge refers to the rules in writing an academic text pertaining to vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics in writing (Hyland, 2003). These three components are considered necessary in rating compositions. In each writing scoring rubric, they are included as the traits of assessing writing, either by using a holistic scoring method (as in ETS, 2019) or by using an analytic scoring method (as in Brown, 2000; Hyland, 2003; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). Alderson (2005)

found a strong positive correlation between vocabulary knowledge and language skills and writing obtained the most significant effect on vocabulary knowledge. In line with Anderson, a straightforward relation was found between vocabulary knowledge and students' writing quality (Gillespie et al., 2013; Johnson et al., 2016). Writing quality is also determined by the degree of grammar knowledge since ideas or messages cannot be expressed in single words; instead, they must be cast in grammatical sentences that indicate relationships between constituent clauses containing those single words (Schoonen et al., 2003). Students' syntactic knowledge (Beers & Nagy, 2009), specific grammatical structures in terms of tenses (Javidnia & Mahmoodi, 2015), error correction and language analytic ability (Roehr, 2007), Grammar Judgment Tests (GJTs), and explanation of ungrammatical sentences (Gutiérrez, 2012) positively correlate to writing quality. Moreover, Gutiérrez's (2012) study revealed that implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar is significantly associated with writing quality. In addition, Talosa & Maguddayao (2018, p. 180) found that L2 learners' syntactic errors are significantly related to their year level and exposure to writing. The studies indicated system knowledge greatly contributes to writing quality.

The third aspect of knowledge about writing is content. It refers to topics or themes that students are demanded to write about (Hyland, 2003). It is the main point for developing a paragraph into a coherent idea. Content knowledge influences students in planning before writing. How well the students understand the topic or theme of the writing task affects organizing and translating ideas into text (Berry, 2001) as well as the writing quality. He adds that the familiarity of topic knowledge influences students' awareness of revision during the writing process. Esmaeili (2000) and Berry (2001) found a positive correlation between content or topic and writing quality. Suppose the issue is familiar to the students, their awareness of revising the draft increases.

The last two aspects are genre and context, which are interrelated. Genre is the classification of texts based on communicative purposes, which is the context. In this case, genre constructs the context of the situation, so students as writers can determine their position (persona), their audience, and their purposes before writing the task (Devitt, 2004). In addition, genre constructs the context of culture, referring to the rhetorical pattern of thought. Many studies on L2 writing have investigated the influence of genre knowledge on writing quality. The findings have proved genre knowledge as a predictor of writing quality. Gillespie et al. (2013), for example, found that students' knowledge about particular genres' characteristics positively affected their writing quality. Another study by Beers and Nagy (2011) focused on grammatical structures used in particular texts and found that students' grammatical knowledge positively correlated with their writing quality in different genres. In addition, Muñoz-Luna and Taillefer (2014) found a positive relation between metalinguistic knowledge, genre awareness, and writing performance. It showed that the high-scoring writers possessed higher knowledge of grammatical and discursive features, showed better awareness of a recursive way of writing, and structured their essays in clearer paragraphing and a sequential order than the lower-scoring writers.

Overall, the previous findings have shown that writing knowledge and writing quality have a positive correlation. However, the previous studies only investigated an individual aspect or several aspects of writing knowledge, not the aspects as a whole. The whole aspect of knowledge about writing is required to be mastered for writing development. The learning of these aspects cannot be separated from one to another

(Hyland, 2003). The investigation on the overall aspect of writing knowledge and writing quality is not known yet. Also, studies about how much writing knowledge has on writing quality were limited in number, so the results were unclear. Therefore, this study examined the correlation between the overall aspect of writing knowledge and the quality of an essay written by EFL undergraduate students. This study also examined the influence of each aspect on the writing quality as stated in the following research question.

1. Is there any relation between knowledge about writing and writing performance of EFL undergraduate students?
2. If any, how strong is the contribution of each aspect and sub-aspect of knowledge about writing to the writing performance?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Academic Writing in L2/EFL

Academic Writing in L2 reflects an interaction containing purposeful and contextualized communication involving four elements: L2 writers, L1 readers, L2 text or documents, and context for L2 writing (Silva, 1993). The L2 writers are the doers (the students) who express their personal knowledge, attitudes, cultural orientation, language proficiency, and motivation in their writing. The L1 readers refer to the primary audiences of academic context like teacher/lecturer and writer's classmates. The L2 text relates to genre, purposes, modes, discourse structures, syntax, lexis, and conventions. The context for L2 writing refers to a situation that informs the reader about why and how a text is written. It refers to the environment where the students learn (i.e., a college or a university). The four elements interact in a variety of authentic EFL/ESL settings.

In addition to the four main elements of writing, there are some other elements influencing students' writing products, i.e., interests, needs, values, beliefs, knowledge, requirements, limitations, and opportunities. From all of these elements, knowledge about writing is a key for the success of students' writing because it can be obtained by students through explicit or/and implicit learning. Knowledge about writing, as a result of the review of findings from previous studies, strongly affects the quality of writing.

2.2 Knowledge about Writing

Referring to Hyland's (2007) classification of writing knowledge, five aspects of writing knowledge were investigated in the present study: process, system, content, genre, and context knowledge. The process knowledge or metacognitive refers to declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge (Surat et al., 2014). Declarative knowledge is related to facts and information. It is 'knowledge about' or 'knowledge concerning' L2 writing such as knowledge about characteristics of good writing and good writers. Procedural knowledge is about 'how' to conduct cognitive activities related to strategies used in planning and writing the task. Finally, conditional knowledge refers to 'when' and 'why' a certain strategy or procedure is used. These three elements greatly contribute to students' way of producing good essays.

A system of rules is directed to writing as a formal text which is coherent and unified. System knowledge enables students to write compositions fluently and accurately. It is also called metalinguistic knowledge or language-related knowledge (Schoonen et al., 2003). System knowledge is differently classified by different authors. Moreover, Bowker (2007) categorizes it into punctuation and grammar. Cook (2001) and Cook and Bassetti (2005), on the other hand, refer to meaning-based (morphemes), sound-based (syllables and phonemes), and writing direction. Finally, Schoonen et al. (2003) refer it to vocabulary, syntax, and orthography (spelling). The present study refers to system knowledge to Hyland's (2003) classification: vocabulary (lexis), grammar (syntax), and mechanics (punctuation and capitalization).

Familiarity with topics or themes to write about is an influential knowledge for students to develop coherent writing. This knowledge is known as content knowledge (Hyland, 2003). Familiar topics give advantages to students. They can write better compared to when they write a text with an unfamiliar topic (Berry, 2001; Esmaeili, 2000; He & Shi, 2012). However, some topics for writing activities in the writing instruction may be unfamiliar for many students such as earthquakes, left-handedness, the computer revolution, and styles of popular music. For students who have personal knowledge of such topics, it is easy for them to organize and write meaningful texts about them (Hyland, 2003). For others who do not have experience with such topics, the topics become less or not familiar and they get difficulty in planning and writing the tasks. Therefore, familiar issues must be considered in designing writing instructions.

Genre is about text classification based on communicative purpose. It is closely related to three contexts i.e., the context of situation, culture, and other genres (Devitt, 2004). Language and its social function determine how a text is presented. The distinctiveness of social functions defines language use so a specific goal can be achieved. Genre is also constructed by the context of a culture which refers to the rhetorical pattern of thought. In the ESL context, the teachers can use genre to associate the formal and functional language properties that need to be associated (Kim & Kim, 2005). Cheng's (2008) study shows that genre improves the quality of the students' narrative paragraphs. Since genre and context knowledge cannot be separated, in this study, they are a unit aspect, i.e., genre knowledge.

3. METHOD

This study employed a quantitative correlation research design since it measured the relationship between Indonesian EFL undergraduate students' writing knowledge and the quality of their writing (Creswell, 2014). The correlation was seen from how many degrees of the students' writing knowledge reflected their writing quality. Furthermore, how much the students' writing knowledge contributed to students' writing quality was also scrutinized.

3.1 Participants

The participants were 54 second-year ELT undergraduate students of Universitas Tadulako, Central Sulawesi, Indonesia. Purposive random sampling was employed to obtain participants with sufficient writing knowledge. Only students who had passed

Sentence Based-Writing and Paragraph Based-Writing, and took Academic Writing courses were taken as participants. Referring to the curriculum implemented at this university, the students are expected to be skillful in writing academic topics about a thesis statement, structural pattern, organization, coherence, and unity of an essay (English Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, 2016). Thus, they were assumed to master writing knowledge.

3.2 Procedures

Firstly, the students were assigned to write a timed-opinion essay in 90 minutes. The students were given a writing prompt to help them understand the topic and instructions clearly. The students were asked to do the test on knowledge about writing for about 90 minutes on the following day. Prior to the writing knowledge test, the prompt test was administered to avoid the influence of the students' answers to the knowledge test on their composition. The written compositions were then rated using an analytic rubric by two raters holding doctoral degrees with experience in teaching EFL writing. The students' responses to the writing knowledge test in the answer sheets were input by the researchers. Both scores were analyzed to see the correlation between the overall aspect of writing knowledge and writing quality and examined the influence of writing knowledge on writing quality, as seen in Figure 1 (adapted from Hyland, 2007).

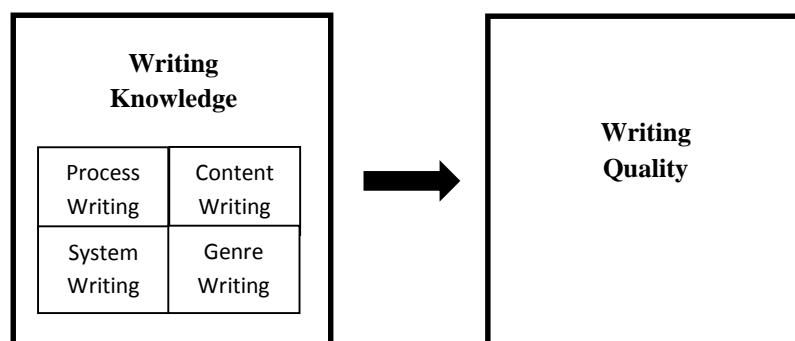


Figure 1. Correlation between writing knowledge and writing quality (Hyland, 2007).

3.3 Instruments

A multiple-choice test of writing knowledge (i.e., knowledge of the process, system - vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics, content, and genre) consisting of 116 items was administered to measure the students' writing knowledge. The test on aspects of writing knowledge was partly developed, partly modified from the tests used in the previous studies, and partly adopted from the existing tests. To evidence the validity of the knowledge test, the present study employed content validity in which expert judgment is necessarily needed (Creswell, 2014; Grimm & Widaman, 2012; Sudijono, 2012). The expert judgment referred to the representativeness of variables investigated and the dimension, the appropriateness of questions toward the variables, the purpose of testing, and the language used. Two experts who were experienced

English lecturers with at least five-year experience in teaching essay writing and expertise in constructing a test rated the link.

The two experts rated the reliability of the test on writing knowledge. The results of the computation showed that Cronbach's alpha was .828 indicating that the test of writing knowledge is considered highly reliable (see Table 1).

Table 1. The reliability of the test on knowledge about writing.

Aspect	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Process	.766	16
System:		
Vocabulary	.879	25
Grammar	.848	40
Mechanic	.813	10
Content	.828	10
Genre	.766	15
Total		116

The other test, the writing test used to measure the quality of students' writing, was a timed-impromptu test and developed based on the writing syllabus used in the Writing Course. Since the instructional objectives mentioned in the syllabus directing to guide the students to write opinion essays, the test used as the instrument of the current study asked the students to write reasons for attending a university. The validity and reliability tests of the test were carried out in a pilot study. The students' compositions in the pilot study were rated, input, and calculated by using Pearson correlation to examine the validity of the writing test (Table 2). The result shows that at the .01 level, the writing test is valid. Regarding the test of reliability, by using Cronbach's alpha, the reliability of the writing test is .903.

Table 2. Validity of writing test.

		Content	Organization	Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanic	Total	
Content	Pearson Cor.	1	.848**	.790**	.792**	.758**	.941**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	Valid
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	
Organization	Pearson Cor.	.848**	1	.825**	.761**	.781**	.942**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	Valid
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	
Vocabulary	Pearson Cor.	.790**	.825**	1	.860**	.869**	.918**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	Valid
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	
Grammar	Pearson Cor.	.792**	.761**	.860**	1	.807**	.892**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	Valid
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	

Table 2 continued...

Mechanic	Pearson Cor.	.758**	.781**	.869**	.807**	1	.880**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	Valid
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	
Total	Pearson Cor.	.941**	.942**	.918**	.892**	.880**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	79	79	79	79	79	79	

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The essay was scored analytically and based on five components: content/evidence (30), organization/purpose (30), vocabulary (15), grammar (15), and mechanics (10). Concerning writing knowledge, content refers to the content knowledge, the organization refers to the genre knowledge, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics refer to the system knowledge. The whole text written by the students was the reflection of the process knowledge.

3.4 Data Analysis

The set of writing knowledge in ordinal scale and writing quality was statistically computed using Pearson correlation by using a computer with an SPSS program. For the second question, the data were calculated using regression analysis. There were three stages of calculation by using regression analysis. Firstly, the data were calculated by using a simultaneous test (F-test) to examine the contribution of the overall aspect of writing knowledge to the writing quality. Secondly, the data were calculated partially by using a t-test to see the contribution of each aspect and sub aspect to the writing quality. Finally, the data were computed using Goodness of fit to examine the influence of the overall aspect of writing knowledge on writing quality.

4. RESULTS

The current research investigated whether the aspects of writing knowledge can simultaneously predict writing quality. Answering the research question, the finding presents the correlation between writing knowledge and writing quality, follows by the contribution of writing knowledge to the quality of writing.

4.1 The Correlation between Writing Knowledge and Writing Quality

The Pearson correlation result showed that the correlation between the students' knowledge of writing and their writing quality is significant. As seen in Table 4, the relation between the knowledge about writing and writing quality seen from the overall aspect and sub aspect is positive. The level of the relation is moderate ($r = .466$, $p < .01$). It means that the students' writing quality is average/fair since their knowledge about writing is fair.

In Table 3, based on the scoring of the test of knowledge of writing and the writing test, the students' highest score in writing performance was 77.49, while the lowest score was 46.60. Their average score was 60.26. When looking at the average score of each aspect and sub-aspect of knowledge about writing, the highest score was on content knowledge (58.91). In contrast, the lowest score was on vocabulary knowledge (27.06). Regarding the individual scores, the students' highest scores were on the content and mechanic knowledge, i.e., 80, whereas the lowest score they got was vocabulary knowledge, i.e., 4. In a nutshell, the students' mastery of writing knowledge was indeed at the acceptable level (Brown, 2004).

For the writing test, the students' compositions were rated by using an analytic scoring system. Based on their essay results, the students' highest score was 80, while the lowest one was 20. Their average score was 44.65, which meant that the students' writing performance was poor. Referring to the descriptive data of the students' writing quality and knowledge, it explains how much knowledge of writing a student has reflected the degree of his/her writing quality.

Table 3. Relation between knowledge about writing and writing performance.

		Knowledge about writing	Writing
Knowledge about writing	Pearson Correlation	1	.466**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	54	54
Writing	Pearson Correlation	.466**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	54	54
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)			

Dealing with the first question, as predicted, the finding of the present study is consistent with the results of the earlier studies. Even though this study focuses on the overall aspect, while the previous studies (Beers & Nagy, 2009, 2011; Crossley et al., 2014; Gillespie et al., 2013; Javidnia & Mahmoodi, 2015; Johnson et al., 2016; Olinghouse & Wilson, 2003; Yanyan, 2010) focus only on an individual or several aspects of knowledge about writing, the findings reveal positive relation between writing knowledge writing and writing quality.

4.2 The Contribution of Writing Knowledge to the Quality of Writing

Answering the second question about how much the students' writing knowledge contributes to their writing quality, employing a t-test, the correlation between the four aspects of writing knowledge was statistically computed. The result shows that only the process knowledge influences the writing quality among the four aspects of writing knowledge ($r = .027$, $p < .05$). The observed value of coefficient showed that process knowledge positively puts 29% contribution to writing quality. However, it is not the highest contributor to the writing quality. The system knowledge has the highest contribution of all aspects of writing knowledge ($b = .293$, $p < .05$), though it does not show significant relation. The other two aspects of writing knowledge contributing to writing quality are content ($b = .104$, $p < .05$) and genre ($b = .133$, $p < .05$). Based on Table 4, the contribution of the aspects of knowledge about writing to the writing performance is as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = -2.862 + .290 \text{ process knowledge} + .293 \text{ system knowledge} + .104 \text{ content knowledge} + .133 \text{ genre knowledge.}$$

Table 4. Aspects of knowledge of writing and writing quality.

Coefficients Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t.	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-4.030	11.813		-.341	.734
	Process	.290	.127	.297	2.286	.027
	System	.293	.191	.206	1.533	.132
	Content	.104	.104	.125	1.005	.320
	Genre	.133	.093	.183	1.426	.160

a. Dependent Variable: WP-Weighted

To see the contribution of the students' writing knowledge to the quality of writing, firstly, it was statistically analyzed by using a simultaneous test (F-test) to see the contribution of the overall predictor variable (a general aspect of writing knowledge) to the dependent variable (quality of writing). The result reveals a significant contribution to the writing knowledge's overall aspect of the writing quality ($r = .002$, $p < .01$). The simultaneous test indicates that writing knowledge is a predictor of writing quality (see Table 5).

Table 5. Simultaneous contribution of writing knowledge to quality of writing.

ANOVA ^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2180.145	4	545.036	5.063	.002a
	Residual	5275.407	49	107.661		
	Total	7455.552	53			

a. predictors: (constant), genre, process, content, system

b. dependent variable: wp weighted

The last step was to investigate how much the overall aspect of knowledge about writing affects the writing quality. By using Goodness of fit, the result indicates that the overall aspect of knowledge about writing contributes 29.2%, which is considered low (Table 6). The other 70.8% is affected by other aspects excluded in this study.

Table 6. Contribution of overall aspects of writing knowledge to writing quality,

Model Summary					
Model		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Dimension	1	.541 ^a	.292	.235	10.37600

a. Predictors: (Constant), Genre, Process, Content, System

In addition, the scores of the students' writing quality were rated by two experts in writing classes and the results of inter-rater reliability are shown in Table 7. The involvement of two raters aimed at providing reliability of the scoring. The scores given by the two raters were tested using inter-rater reliability Pearson Product Moment Correlation to measure the reliability of scoring the students' writing ability. Table 7 shows that the level of significance was significantly reliable at .323, so the two scores taken from both raters fulfilled the need for inter-rater reliability.

Table 7. The results of inter-rater reliability of the two scores.

Correlations		Rater1	Rater2
Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.323**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009
	N	64	64
Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.323**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	
	N	64	64

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

5. DISCUSSION

The present study comes with evidence that the four aspects simultaneously contribute to the writing quality. The finding of the present study is consistent with the results of the previous studies (Beers & Nagy, 2009, 2011; Crossley et al., 2014; Gillespie et al., 2013; Javidnia & Mahmoodi, 2015; Johnson et al., 2016; Olinghouse & Wilson, 2003; Yanyan, 2010), although these studies focus on individual aspects of writing knowledge on writing quality. The current findings endorse the requirement for FL/L2 writers to possess writing knowledge. Hyland (2003, p. 27) suggests that L2 writers are required to own “content, system, process, genre, and context knowledge” to produce suitable compositions. To produce good writing quality, the students certainly need to own a particular degree of knowledge in writing. The study confirms that the contribution of the knowledge about writing as a unit is considered necessary; thus, they should be taught explicitly.

The finding from the t-test analysis shows a different degree of knowledge on each of the aspects. It reflects that the contribution of each aspect of the writing knowledge on the quality of the students’ essay is various. Besides, this shows different degrees of the need for the knowledge to be taught. Thus, these multiple contributions can be used to select and develop the content (of writing materials), which aspect is chosen as the core element of the content material and presented at the beginning of a lesson which can be carefully determined.

On the correlation between process knowledge and writing quality, the present finding agrees with one of Yanyan’s (2010) results that meta-cognitive knowledge correlates positively with writing quality. She even found that meta-cognitive knowledge correlates positively with language proficiency which is not investigated in the present study. Unlike the majority of the previous studies, the present study investigated all of the EFL students’ writing knowledge covering process, system, content, and genre. Furthermore, the previous studies conducted by researchers (Gillespie et al., 2013; Saddler & Graham, 2007; Xinghua, 2010) involved L1 children whereas the present study involved FL adults. The subjects are different, but the findings are similar. The previous studies found that the L1 children’s process knowledge and quality of writing are low, and the correlation of the two variables is positive. The present study also revealed that EFL students’ writing knowledge is fair while their writing quality is low. Regarding the correlation, the present study also showed a positive relationship between the two variables.

The process knowledge in which the correlation is significant with the writing quality is the central element of doing writing tasks (Hyland, 2003). It is taught explicitly, and then it is practiced by the students while accomplishing a writing task. The process approach is dominantly applied in these activities. Furthermore, the system knowledge comprising vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics is explicitly taught by using the product approach. Even though nowadays, the teaching of English is directed to communicative competence which promotes the importance of learning the language rather than linguistic knowledge (Altasan, 2017), based on the present findings, the FL students still need to learn linguistic knowledge explicitly. Therefore, the product approach is yet required to be implemented in FL writing instruction.

Concerning the system knowledge, the finding of the present study supports Beers and Nagy's (2009) findings, which shows the strong influence of grammar on writing a specific text genre. Similarly, it fixes with the previous findings from Crossley et al. (2014) that grammar and mechanical accuracy positively correlate with writing quality even though the degree is different. The correlation between grammar and essay scores is weak, while the relation between mechanical accuracy and essay scores is strong. The finding also supports the previous findings from Johnson et al. (2016) in some cases. Johnson et al. (2016) investigated vocabulary on receptive vocabulary, aural vocabulary, productive vocabulary, and vocabulary use. Their findings show that receptive, aural, and productive vocabulary positively relates to writing quality, while vocabulary use refers negatively to it. Compared to the previous finding from the Indonesian context, the present finding is contradictory to Lutviana et al. (2015). She examines the correlation between vocabulary knowledge in terms of lexical richness (lexical frequency profile) and quality of argumentative writing and finds no significant correlation between advanced vocabulary possessed by EFL undergraduate students and overall writing score. Her study, focusing on diction, found a small or no significant contribution of the diction to the quality of writing.

In line with Esmaeili (2000) and Berry (2001), the third aspect of writing knowledge, i.e., content knowledge, shows a positive correlation with writing quality. The prompt test developed based on the syllabus required the students to write about their reasons for attending a university. The content was familiar to the students as they were in their second year; how well they understand the topic influences their writing quality. The finding shows that the students' content knowledge and other aspects positively contribute to the students' writing quality. In other words, students' writing quality can be predicted from their content knowledge. Furthermore, knowing the content helps the students plan what to write and present it in a coherent idea. Dealing with genre knowledge, similar to other aspects of writing knowledge is also found as a contributor to the writing quality. This finding supports Beers and Nagy (2011) and Gillespie et al. (2013) reporting that knowledge about genres positively influenced writing quality.

Both content and genre knowledge are developed at the beginning of the writing process phase. The teaching of the content knowledge is incorporated with the teaching of the genre knowledge. The students already know the purpose of the text, type of text, and audiences before making an outline and writing a draft. In producing a certain kind of text, the students need to learn knowledge about particular grammatical features, vocabulary, mechanics, and rhetorical structure used in the text. They also need knowledge about how to organize ideas, develop unified paragraphs, and revise

the particular text type. These activities are carried out by implementing the process and genre approaches called a process genre approach.

The pedagogical implication of the moderate relation of writing knowledge and writing quality ($r = .466$, $p < .01$) found in the present study is that writing knowledge needs to be taught to EFL students both explicitly and implicitly. Referring to the current finding, it is the process knowledge found significantly contributes to the writing quality. Thus, this knowledge should be prioritized to be taught and introduced to the students at the first lesson. In line with Mojica's (2010, p. 36) study, the present study suggests that students' metacognitive skills need to be concerned to help them become more aware of their processing strategies. Based on the finding pertaining to the contribution of the knowledge about writing as a unit, all of the aspects are considered important to be taught explicitly as they simultaneously contribute to writing quality. The teaching of the aspects can be integrated; some approaches can be used such as a synthesis approach of product, process, and genre approaches. Regarding the time allotment for each course's writing instruction, the portion of teaching each aspect and sub-aspect of writing knowledge is not the same. It depends on the writing instruction's priority – what aspects or sub-aspects of the writing knowledge become the primary materials, and the others become the complementary materials.

6. CONCLUSION

Writing knowledge can positively predict writing quality. In regard to how much contribution the writing knowledge put on the writing quality, the present study evidenced that the process, system, content, and genre knowledge as a unit significantly contribute to the quality of writing. The degree of the contribution of each aspect to the writing quality varies from one aspect to another.

Educational policymakers and teachers, considering the findings, need to present knowledge of writing explicitly in the curriculum and syllabus to enhance EFL students' writing quality, particularly those with low-level proficiency in writing. Moreover, writing instruction should allow the students to write frequently to make the students more skillful in writing. However, administering the test only once becomes one of the limitations of the present study. The scores obtained from the measure of writing knowledge have not reflected the students' real knowledge yet. Although the reliability of the tests is good, a single test only measures their short-term knowledge. If the test is carried out more than once, the reliability of the instruments will be accurate, and the scores will be more definite. Besides, such data collection might allow the extraneous variable to interfere. Future researchers can carefully design a method in which more reliable data can be obtained to void this.

Furthermore, the present study limited the investigation to one predictor of writing quality. In contrast, literature comes with other than writing knowledge as predictors of writing quality, such as motivation, interests, needs, limitations, and opportunities (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992), and L2 proficiency (Cumming, 1989; Yanyan, 2010). Thus, future researchers can study several variables as predictors of writing quality.

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The Effectiveness of Writing Techniques in Improving Students' Writing Ability with Different Self-Esteem

Ida Yulianawati*
Mursid Saleh
Januarius Mujiyanto
Djoko Sutopo

Post Graduate Program of English Education, Universitas Negeri Semarang,
Semarang 50229, INDONESIA

Abstract

Identifying appropriate writing techniques to help students with different self-esteem improve their writing ability needs to be considered by educators. This study attempted to examine the effectiveness of two writing techniques, Reflective Learning Portfolio (RLP) and Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in improving the writing ability of undergraduate students with different self-esteem. A quasi-experimental design was employed in this study. The participants of the study were 62 undergraduate students from a private university in West Java, Indonesia, which were divided into two groups that received different treatments, RLP and DJW techniques. A set of questionnaires to measure students' self-esteem and writing tests were utilized to collect the data. Data from questionnaires were analyzed by using Likert Scales. Data from pre-test and post-test, to know the effectiveness of RLP and DJW was administered by using a paired t-test. The finding revealed that the writing performance in RLP class was significantly better than in DJW class. In other words, RLP is more effective in teaching writing to students with different self-esteem. The use of explicit teaching, peer feedback, and teacher feedback in RLP class could have caused the RLP technique to be more effective in improving the students' writing ability compared to the DJW technique.

* Corresponding author, email: idayulianawati90@gmail.com

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1. INTRODUCTION

Writing is not easy and is probably the most complex and challenging skill in language learning (Harmer, 2007; Hyland, 2002). It requires many devices such as complex grammatical devices, stylistic skills, mechanical skills, a careful choice of vocabulary, and judgment skills (Hedge, 2005). Writing is also tricky because it deals with psychology, linguistics, and cognition (Byrne, 1995). Moreover, many students feel reluctant to engage in writing activities with enthusiasm (Harmer, 2007). Foreign language writers usually encounter a significant challenge in developing their writing skills (Evans et al., 2010). The teachers' main challenge in teaching writing is seeing that learners learn from their previous mistakes and acquire writing fluency and accuracy (Hemmati & Soltanpour, 2012).

Writing has become a widely researched topic around the world in the past few decades. To write a text, the students need to understand what they expect to write, why it is written in a particular way, and the form that their final text should take. Students at all levels of education should produce a text, whether it is simple or even more complex. For example, higher education students are expected to write syntheses after reading the texts (van Ockenburg et al., 2019). When students read a source text, they must consider what information is relevant for their purpose and is important enough to include in their synthesis text.

One of the texts that students have to write is argumentative text. They have to write argumentative text to fulfill the daily task or thesis (Hasani, 2016). Despite writing argumentative text is supposed to be a common task for higher students in the university, it is quite difficult (Deane & Song, 2015). The students usually face problems such as writing incomplete arguments, not asserting elements of arguments, not writing arguments clearly, having insufficient evidence to support arguments, and not comprehending or responding to other viewpoints (Hasani, 2016).

Some other challenges are also faced by the university students when they are expected to produce academic texts, including psychological problems when writing, such as low confidence and unenthusiastic writers (Harmer, 2007). Self-esteem is considered as one of the factors that influence the students writing ability. This is because both self-esteems could bring successful cognitive or affective activity by the attitude of approval or disapproval and could indicate the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy (Brown, 1994).

Classroom writing activities should be explicitly designed to build the students' writing habits that motivate them, build their confidence, and conform to writing (Harmer, 2007). Teachers need to provide extensive encouragement in meaningful contexts, peer involvement, primary texts, helpful feedback, as well as guidance in the writing process (Hyland, 2002).

Due to the difficulties in acquiring writing ability, many techniques were used by the teachers. This study discussed two writing techniques namely Reflective Learning Portfolio (RLP) and Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW). Both techniques try to develop reflective practice through social interaction. RLP is a teaching technique used to teach writing that contains a collection of students' works that exhibits their

efforts, progress, and achievements in writing class (Corley & Zubizarreta, 2012). Meanwhile, DJW is a teaching technique that contains a written conversation between the teacher and the students (Gebhard, 2006). Thus, self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness expressed in an individual's attitude towards themselves (Brown, 2000).

Earlier studies have shown that the reflective learning portfolio made students adapt to the classroom situation, promote reflective thinking, and improve their writing ability (Farahian & Avarzamani, 2018; Khodadady, 2012; Reyes-Chua et al., 2020; Sulistyono et al., 2020). Meanwhile, Dialogue Journal Writing helps enhance students' writing ability and improves their motivation to write English texts (Foroutan & Noordin, 2012; Liao & Wong, 2010; Rokni & Seifi, 2013).

This study aims to identify the effectiveness of RLP and DJW in improving the writing ability of students with different self-esteem and to examine the significant differences between the two techniques. This study is different from the previous studies because it used RLP and DJW to teach writing viewed from students' self-esteem. Accordingly, this research intended to answer the following questions:

1. How effective is Reflective Learning Portfolio (RLP) on improving the writing ability of undergraduate students with high and low self-esteem?
2. How effective is Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in improving the writing ability of undergraduate students with high and low self-esteem?
3. Is there any significant difference in the writing ability of students (with different self-esteem) who were taught with RLP and those who were taught with DJW?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Reflective Learning Portfolio and Dialogue Journal Writing

Teachers may need to change their techniques and even their classroom layout to engage all students in writing class. Engaging students in an interactive writing format will require teachers to teach in an authentic manner that is responsive to all students' needs (Jordan, 2009). According to Ruddell and Unrau (2004), several interacting components influence the writers' ability to make meaning from written text. Prior beliefs and knowledge affect the writers' construction of meaning. It includes both affective and cognitive conditions. Affective conditions include motivation to write, attitude toward writing and content, writer's stance, and socio-cultural values and beliefs.

Reflective Learning Portfolio (RLP) is a part of reflective learning which focuses on the context and learning process (O'Donoghue, 2010). This writing technique encourages the students to learn in a problem-solving environment that challenges their knowledge and encourages them to reflect on what they know and whether or not their knowledge is accurate and profound enough based on the course content (Hemmati & Sultanpour, 2012). The portfolio must include the students' participation in selecting contents, the criteria for selection, and the evidence of student self-reflection. It involves learners in continuous reflection and collaboration, focusing on selective evidence of learning (Hemmati & Soltanpour, 2012), making students evaluate themselves and monitor their progress over time (Zubizarreta, 2009). Moreover, the portfolio can have different forms, such as written text, electronic display, or other creative projects (Zubizarreta, 2008). A study conducted by Sabooni

and Salehi (2015) found that the students' writing accuracy performance was improved by using a reflective learning portfolio.

The second technique in teaching writing is Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW). DJW is a written conversation between two sides, the teacher and students (Gebhard, 2006). This technique encourages the students to write on a topic or topics of their choice, and the teacher will write individual responses. Dialogue Journal Writing is a written interaction between teachers and students that focuses on meaning rather than form. It is a means of improving students' linguistic competence, course content, and communication in written English (Peyton, 1993). Furthermore, DJW is one of the techniques to help students improve their writing ability through meaningful interaction. It has been used in educational settings to foster students' writing abilities, enhance students' reading comprehension, and help students retain content knowledge. In addition, DJW is also used to build classroom communities, teacher-student rapport, and students' self-awareness and confidence (Trites, 2009).

2.2 Self-Esteem and Writing Achievement

Writing as one of the English skills requires the learners to communicate the English language in written form that is by writing something. Harmer (2007) argues that the focus of teaching writing is on the product of that writing or on the process of writing itself. In comparison, Linse and Nunan (2005) say that writing is a combination of process and product.

The affective factors such as self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, and attitudes can have positive and negative effects (Brown, 2000). In recent years, the importance of affective factors such as self-esteem has been of interest in language learning because of their high effects on learning a foreign or a second language. Self-esteem is frequently considered as an evaluative part of the self-concept (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). People with high self-esteem are highly motivated to seek and acquire a high level of self-esteem, protect and increase it through their thoughts and actions (Rossouw, 2010). In contrast, low self-esteem is often seen as a threat that people are motivated to avoid and is typically dysfunctional. Individuals with a high level of self-esteem enjoy accurate descriptions of themselves and are more assured about their self-views.

Self-esteem is a psychological factor that is positively related to the students' ability in writing (Fahim & Rad, 2012). The importance of self-esteem as a crucial factor affecting motivation should not be underestimated. The role of self-esteem is used among the students as an aspect of motivation that is helpful for them in showing their ability in writing their papers. The students' writing achievement was significantly affected by their self-esteem (Khansir & Abdolahi, 2014). Students with high self-esteem had been shown to have high writing ability. In contrast, students with low self-esteem face many problems in their writing (Fahim & Rad, 2012). Furthermore, Swärd (2012) explained that there is a relationship between students' self-esteem and their writing ability. The students who scored high on the self-esteem questionnaire also had high writing tests and academic scores.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

A quasi-experimental design was used in this study to answer the research questions. The quasi-experimental design was carried out through factorial design 2x2 to explore some of the salient qualities of the effectiveness of Reflective Learning Portfolio and Dialogue Journal Writing on students; writing abilities with different self-esteem (Fraenkel et al., 2012). As the research design used quasi-experimental, the study utilizes quantitative instruments to collect the data. Among types of non-probability sampling techniques, the purposive sampling technique was chosen. The study was conducted in the English Department of Wiralodra University, Indramayu, West Java, Indonesia.

3.2 Participants

The participants of this study were sixty-two students enrolling in two writing groups, whose ages were from 18 to 23 years old. Each group consists of thirty-one students. The students were all native speakers of Bahasa Indonesia. Two classes were treated differently: the first experimental group was treated using the RLP technique, and the second experimental group was treated by using DJW. As this study also deals with students' self-esteem, the students in each group were classified into high and low self-esteem groups which were determined by administering a questionnaire of Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) to the students. High self-esteem students are highly motivated, more confident, and have a good academic performance, meanwhile, low self-esteem students are uncertain about themselves and have a low academic performance (Baumeister et al., 2003)

3.3 Instrument

The instruments for collecting data include writing tests and questionnaires about the students' self-esteem. All of the instruments had been tried out in the earlier semester. The try-out students' characteristics are similar to the actual student participants –the fourth-semester students of the English Department of the university. The validity and reliability had also been calculated using SPSS.

To assess the students' writing achievement, the researchers used a writing test. In this test, the students were assigned to write a short essay consisting of four paragraphs. The test was given to students of each experimental group before the treatment (pre-test), and after the treatment (post-test). To score the writing, two independent lecturers were chosen as the raters of students' writing. This scoring scale was based on Cohen (1994). It consists of content, organization, language in use, grammar, and mechanics.

The questionnaire used to measure the students' self-esteem is a ready-made questionnaire developed by Rosenberg (1965) called Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). The Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale consists of a ten-question instrument scored on a four-point response system. It reflects a two-dimensional construct: a positive self-image (items 1, 3, 4, 7, 10) and a negative self-image (items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9). It requires the participants to indicate their level of agreement with a range of statements

about themselves. Among the many instruments for assessing self-esteem, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) remains the most popular and the most widely applied measurement because its simplicity has encouraged its translation into many languages (Schmitt & Allik, 2005). Acceptable reliability (internal consistency and test-retest) and validity (convergent and discriminant) information are available for the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale has been translated into 28 languages in 53 nations (Schmitt & Allik, 2005). This includes Italian, Persian (Khansir & Abdolahi, 2014), and Bahasa Indonesia. The scale of Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale reflects a two-dimensional construct: a positive self-image (items 1, 3, 4, 7, 10) and a negative self-image (items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9).

3.4 Data Collection

There were two phases of data collection done to answer the research questions. Phase one is the preparation of teaching writing using RLP and DJW. Subsequently, the researchers prepared the lesson scenario for each class based on the syllabus of the Academic Writing subject at the university under study. The researchers also prepared the instruments for the research. Meanwhile, phase two was the implementation of writing techniques, including data collection activities, such as giving pre-test and post-test as well as distributing the RSES questionnaire.

In the first week, the participants were given a writing test to gain data about the student participants' writing achievement. After that, RSES (Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale) was also distributed to them to gain data about their self-esteem. From the second to the fourteenth week, the participants in both treatment groups, namely RLP class and DJW class, had one meeting each week. Each class session lasted for 100 minutes. The first experimental group was taught by using RLP, and the second group was taught by using DJW.

There were six steps in the implementation of the RLP technique in Class A. The first step was writing a draft, the second step was self-revising, the third was writing the second draft, the fourth was receiving teacher and peers' feedback, the fifth was writing the final draft, and the sixth was reflecting on the achievement made in the final writing draft. From the second to the fourteenth meeting, the RLP class had a break for about 20 minutes at the end of each meeting to write a reflective journal about the lesson. The reflective journal covered the description of the course, what they have learned, and whether their self-development was improved because of the situation. The participants were asked to save all of their works, including worksheets are done in the class, notes kept after reflection on the teacher's feedback, drafts of their essays, homework, and their learning portfolio forms.

Meanwhile, the DJW technique was implemented in Class B with four steps. The first step is planning, the second is drafting, the third is editing, and the last is collecting the final version of the student participants' essays. Each meeting in the DJW class also had a break of about 20 minutes at the end of the class. In this class, the participants were required to write to their teacher in their dialogue journal. The participants were told not to worry about grammar or spelling and to express their thoughts and feelings freely. After the class ended, the teacher read what the learners had written and gave feedback in their journals. Finally, after all of the groups were taught by using the RLP and DJW techniques, a test on essay writing composition was conducted as a post-test to gain the participants' writing achievement.

3.5 Data Analysis

The next step after collecting the data was analyzing the data. The writing scoring scale used was based on Cohen (1994). It consists of content, organization, language in use, grammar, and mechanics. The data gained from the student participants' writing scores and responses to close-ended questionnaire items were analyzed by using statistical analysis through SPSS. The data of the participants' writing scores were further analyzed by using parametric tests. This parametric test was used since it is assumed that the shape of variance of the writing scores in the population is normally distributed (Gall et al., 2007). Before using the inferential statistics to test the hypothesis, the data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics, and the pre-requisite tests, normality, and homogeneity tests were also conducted.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 The Effectiveness of Reflective Learning Portfolio to Improve Writing

4.1.1 *Students with high self-esteem*

Before calculating the inferential analysis, the researchers applied a pre-requisite test analysis to test the normality and homogeneity of the variance. Based on the Kolmogorov Smirnov test, which was done to test the normality of the writing scores of high self-esteem students who were taught by using RLP, the p-value of the students' pre-test was 0.91. Since the p-value ($0.91 > 0.05$), the pre-test distribution was normal. The p-value of the students' post-test was 0.48. Since the p-value ($0.48 > 0.05$), the test distribution was normal.

Based on the homogeneity test, the variance distribution of pre-test writing achievement scores of students with high self-esteem in RLP class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.30 > 0.05$. Meanwhile, the variance distribution of post-test writing achievement scores of students with high self-esteem in RLP class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.49 > 0.05$. The descriptive analysis also found that the N-Gain score for the students who were taught by using RLP was 0.67. This indicates that the implementation of RLP for the students with high self-esteem was effective (in the good category).

To determine whether the implementation of RLP was effective for teaching students with high self-esteem, the researchers analyzed the data from the students' pre-test and post-test by using an independent sample test. Based on the analysis result, it was found that Sig. (2-Tailed) = $0.00 < 0.05$. In other words, the implementation of RLP could significantly improve the writing ability of students with high self-esteem.

4.1.2 *Students with low self-esteem*

The researchers applied a pre-requisite test analysis to test the normality and homogeneity of the variance before calculating the inferential analysis. Based on the Kolmogorov Smirnov test, which was done to test the normality of the writing scores of low self-esteem students who were taught by using RLP, the p-value of the students' pre-test was 0.65. Since the p-value ($0.65 > 0.05$), the test distribution was normal.

The p-value of the students' post-test was 0.99. Since the p-value (0.99) is >0.05 , the test distribution was normal.

Based on the homogeneity test, the variance distribution of pre-test writing achievement scores of students with low self-esteem in RLP class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.30 > 0.05$. Meanwhile, the variance distribution of post-test writing achievement scores of students with low self-esteem in RLP class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.49 > 0.05$.

To determine whether or not there is an effect of the implementation of RLP on the writing ability of the students with low self-esteem, the researchers used paired t-test and analyzed the data using SPSS. The analysis found that the N-Gain score for the students who were taught by using RLP was 0.43. This indicates that the implementation of RLP for the students with low self-esteem was effective (in the good category).

To determine whether the implementation of RLP was effective for teaching students with high self-esteem, the researchers analyzed the data from the students' pre-test and post-test by using an independent sample test. Based on the analysis result, it was found that Sig. (2-Tailed) = $0.03 < 0.05$. In other words, the implementation of RLP could significantly improve the writing ability of students with low self-esteem.

4.2 The Effectiveness of Dialogue Journal Writing to Improve Writing

4.2.1 Students with high self-esteem

A pre-requisite test analysis to test normality and homogeneity of the variance was applied before calculating the inferential analysis. Based on the Kolmogorov Smirnov test, which was done to test the normality of the writing scores of high self-esteem students who were taught by using DJW, the p-value of the students' pre-test was 0.52. Since the p-value (0.52) is >0.05 , the test distribution was normal. The p-value of the students' post-test was 0.66. Since the p-value (0.66) is >0.05 , the test distribution was normal.

Based on the homogeneity test, the variance distribution of pre-test writing achievement scores of students with low self-esteem in RLP class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.30 > 0.05$. Meanwhile, the variance distribution of post-test writing achievement scores of students with high self-esteem in DJW class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.49 > 0.05$.

To determine whether or not there is an effect of the implementation of DJW on the writing ability of the students with low self-esteem, the researchers used paired t-test and analyzed the data using SPSS. The analysis found that the N-Gain score for the students who were taught by DJW was 0.57. This indicates that the implementation of DJW for the students with high self-esteem was effective (in the good category).

To determine whether the implementation of DJW was effective for teaching students with high self-esteem, the researchers analyzed the data from the students' pre-test and post-test by using an independent sample test. Based on the analysis result, it was found that Sig. (2-Tailed) = $0.00 < 0.05$. In other words, the implementation of DJW could significantly improve the writing ability of students with high self-esteem.

4.2.2 *Students with low self-esteem*

A pre-requisite test analysis to test normality and homogeneity of the variance was applied before calculating the inferential analysis. Based on the Kolmogorov Smirnov test, which was done to test the normality of the writing scores of low self-esteem students who were taught by using DJW, the p-value of the students' pre-test was 0.82. Since the p-value (0.82) is >0.05 , the test distribution was normal. The p-value of the students' post-test was 0.85. Since the p-value (0.85) is >0.05 , the test distribution was normal.

Based on the homogeneity test, the variance distribution of pre-test writing achievement scores of students with low self-esteem in RLP class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.30 > 0.05$. Meanwhile, the variance distribution of post-test writing achievement scores of students with low self-esteem in DJW class was homogenous. This was because the significant value is $0.49 > 0.05$.

To determine whether or not there is an effect of the implementation of DJW on the writing ability of the students with low self-esteem, the researchers used paired t-test and analyzed the data using SPSS. The analysis found that the N-Gain score for the students who were taught by DJW was 0.49. This indicates that the implementation of DJW for the students with low self-esteem was effective (in the good category).

To determine whether the implementation of DJW was effective for teaching students with low self-esteem, the researchers analyzed the data from the students' pre-test and post-test by using an independent sample test. Based on the analysis result, it was found that Sig. (2-Tailed) = $0.03 < 0.05$. In other words, the implementation of DJW could significantly improve the writing ability of students with low self-esteem.

4.3 The Difference in Writing Ability of Students with High and Low Self-Esteem through Reflective Learning Portfolio and Dialogue Journal Writing

The third research question examined the significant difference between RLP and DJW on the writing ability of students with high and low self-esteem. The students' self-esteem data and their post-test in RLP dan DJW class were used to answer this research question by using descriptive and inferential analysis.

Based on the t-test analysis, it was found that Sig. (2-Tailed) = $0.00 < 0.05$. It means that there was a significant difference in the effectiveness of the RLP and DJW implementation in teaching writing to students with high self-esteem. RLP is more effective to be implemented in teaching writing to students with high self-esteem. Furthermore, it was also found that Sig. (2-Tailed) = $0.03 < 0.05$ which indicates a significant difference between the RLP and DJW implementation in teaching writing to students with low self-esteem. RLP is more effective in teaching writing to students with low self-esteem.

5. DISCUSSION

The research questions in this study were concerned with the effectiveness of Reflective Learning Portfolio (RLP) and Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in improving the writing ability of undergraduate students with different self-esteem. The

study is also concerned with the significant difference between RLP and DJW in improving the writing ability of students with high and low self-esteem. The finding showed that both RLP and DJW were effective in improving the writing ability of students with different self-esteem. Furthermore, the analysis indicated that the students in RLP class performed better than those in DJW class.

The significant improvement in the students' writing performance proved that implementing the RLP technique impacted their writing ability. Other research findings, supported the positive effects of the RLP technique found in [Sabooni and Salehi \(2015\)](#) who claimed that the students' writing accuracy performance was improved by using the RLP technique. Moreover, [Reyes-Chua et al. \(2020\)](#) also found that RLP effectively enhances the students' writing ability. This finding also supported the earlier study done by [de Silva and Graham \(2019\)](#), who said that strategy instruction helps high and low attainment students to solve their writing problems and to improve their writing performance. It is asserted by [Defazio et al. \(2010\)](#) that university students need to understand the importance of good writing skills and critically assess the writing of others, particularly at the graduate level as well as in the professional programs.

Additionally, this finding was also in line with the research result reported by [Warni \(2016\)](#). She said that writing with RLP makes the students feel comfortable working with their writing tasks. Besides, [Boumediene et al. \(2018\)](#) also supported this research finding and stated that writing about topics requiring reflection enables students to express their feelings, thoughts, and judgments more comfortably. [Mazlan et al. \(2015\)](#) added that RLP allows the students to provide feedback to their peers; the feedback may include arguments, compliments, corrections, and suggestions of the writing task, improving the way the students communicate in the written form. RLP provides opportunities for both the students and teachers to see the learning goals and the progress toward the goals. [Lo \(2010\)](#) reported that RLP facilitates the students to be autonomous learners; they plan their writing to achieve the objectives of improving their writing, expanding their world views, engaging in critical thinking, and becoming aware of the valuable resource available for problem-solving.

The reflection in RLP is the process that allows the students to evaluate their work and think about what they are doing, for taking charge of their growth and development ([Boumediene et al., 2018](#)). The comments, corrections, and suggestions in RLP help the students to evaluate their writing progress. RLP provides students with opportunities to observe their weaknesses through the teachers' comments on their papers. The RLP also helps the students to become self-directed learners in analyzing and solving their problems.

According to [Deane and Song \(2015\)](#), and [Hasani \(2016\)](#), the students might face some problems when they write English text due to the limited vocabulary and limited grammar knowledge. In addition, the students might also not comprehend or respond to other viewpoints because there is no discussion with peers or teachers. The findings reported that RLP was a good technique that helps students with high and low self-esteem to solve those aforementioned problems.

In terms of social improvement, RLP seemed to allow the students to communicate in written form. They shared with their peers through the comments, compliments, and suggestions comfortably. They also corrected their peers' writing. In this case, they improved their written communication unconsciously ([Mazlan et al.,](#)

2015). In terms of cognitive improvement, high and low self-esteem students could handle their vocabulary problems and grammar error in writing argumentative text.

More importantly, in this present study, the teacher plays a significant role in improving the students' writing skills. In this study, the teacher gave adequate and meaningful guidance to help students to write better and to build their confidence and motivation. The guidance from the teachers was unquestionably crucial for the students. In line with this, Warni (2016) reported that teachers' reflection on the students' work is constructive, particularly to develop the students' achievement.

Furthermore, based on the statistical analysis gained from pre-test and post-test scores of students with high and low self-esteem, it could also be inferred that the implementation of the DJW technique could also improve the students' writing performance. This finding supported earlier research; firstly, a study done by Dabbagh (2017), who showed that DJW had a significant effect on the content quality of learners' writing performance. Secondly, this finding also supported the study conducted by Larrotta (2008) and Foroutan and Noordin (2012), who found that the DJW allows shy students to express their minds and feeling. Thirdly, this finding also supported the study conducted by Hapsari et al. (2018), who argued that DJW gave a friendly atmosphere in students and teacher interaction in writing class.

Based on the discussion mentioned above, it can be concluded that implementing RLP and DJW could be an alternative solution to writing problems in the writing classes. The use of explicit teaching, peer feedback, and teacher feedback in RLP class could have caused the RLP technique to be more effective in improving the students' writing ability compared to the DJW technique. However, sharing problems with peers and lecturers in DJW also leads to the students' writing ability improvement.

6. CONCLUSION

The present study has elaborated the effectiveness of Reflective Learning Portfolio (RLP) and Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in improving the writing ability of students with different self-esteem. It can be concluded that despite some limitations, the implementation of RLP and DJW improved writing skills for students with high self-esteem and low self-esteem. The students learned to write a greater length; with a clearer schematic structure. This indicates the students' improvement in constructing the organized texts successfully. However, it is important to highlight that the students taught by RLP have better writing achievements compared to those taught by using DJW. Furthermore, the implementation of both RLP and DJW techniques could be used to solve the writing problems faced in class, particularly by implementing group discussion, peer feedback, and teacher feedback using the RLP technique. Meanwhile, DJW was less effective compared to RLP.

Since the scope of the research is very limited to the Academic Writing classes, it is necessary to conduct further research in different writing classes. It is recommended that the techniques implemented in this study should be tried out in various contexts and levels of education in Indonesia to test its effectiveness in helping students to promote their English capacity. English teachers, material developers, and syllabus designers can gain insight from the result of the study to enable students to do self-reflection and self-evaluation. RLP also allows the teachers to design the instructional strategy for teaching writing, preparing the materials, and more

meaningful activities to improve students' motivation to learn English. Furthermore, this study only used one psychological factor as the moderator variable that is self-esteem. Several other factors can also influence the students' writing ability. Therefore, it will be necessary to conduct further studies by involving other psychological factors.

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Effects of Affective Variables and Willingness to Communicate on Students' English-Speaking Performance in Thailand

Budi Waluyo*
Rahmah Bakoko

Department of Languages, School of Languages and General Education,
Walailak University, Nakhon Si Thammarat 80160, THAILAND

Abstract

Recently, Willingness to Communicate (WTC) has been explored and proposed to be one of the key concepts for identifying when one decides to initiate communication in the target language. The attention, nonetheless, has been concentrated on how WTC interacts with other learners' variables. This study, on the other hand, intends to offer empirical evidence on the direct roles of affective variables (self-confidence, anxiety, motivation, and grit) and WTC variables (WTC inside the classroom, WTC outside the classroom, and WTC in a digital setting) in Thai students' English-speaking performance. The data were obtained from 35 undergraduate students (17.1% males; 82.9% females) using a survey questionnaire. Then, a speaking test was taken from an English Communication Skills course and was analysed using correlation and hierarchical regression. The results disclosed positive correlations among self-confidence, motivation, grit, WTC in a digital setting, WTC inside the classroom, WTC outside the classroom, and speaking performance, and negative correlations among self-confidence, anxiety, and grit. However, motivation was the only significant predictor of speaking performance. The findings offer some implications for English teachers in improving students' English-speaking performance.

Keywords: Affective variables, Thai EFL learners, speaking, willingness to communicate.

* Corresponding author, email: mind_87@yahoo.com

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1. INTRODUCTION

Studies exploring factors influencing the degree of proficiency attained by individuals learning a foreign language have been conducted since the 1970s, the findings of which generally suggest two influential factors in L2 (second language) or foreign language learning: cognitive and affective variables. Cognitive variables involve aptitude and intelligence, while affective variables include individual characteristics such as attitude and motivation (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1978). According to Schumann (1975), cognitive variables are commonly stable and operate independently and naturally, but affective variables are dynamic and can be influenced by the language learning environment or setting, which offers fruitful insights into the investigations of successful L2/foreign language acquisition. Regardless, it has been found that cognitive variables have as much influence on learning as do affective variables (Chastain, 1975). The difference lies in the stage of learning development, i.e., childhood or adulthood, because affective variables will tend to play more significant roles in adult L2/foreign language learning (Taylor, 1974). Hence, given the relevance of the subjects, the investigation of the present study is centred on the roles of affective variables rather than cognitive ones.

In the past two decades, there has been a growing interest in exploring the relationships between affective variables and willingness to communicate (WTC) in L2/foreign language (e.g., Lee & Drajeti, 2019; Lee & Hsieh, 2019). The assumption is that WTC is a vital variable in the interpersonal communication process as it conceptualizes the probability of initiating conversation when met with opportunities to do so (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). Moreover, exploring variables affecting learners' WTC can potentially help improve learners' WTC, which will probably increase the learners' chance of using L2/foreign language in oral communication (MacIntyre, 1994). Studies on WTC can potentially help orient theory and research to attain the ultimate goal of language learning: being able to engage in authentic communication with people from different languages and cultural backgrounds (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Waluyo, 2019).

These days, being able to communicate in English in either oral or written forms is important for both education and career. Therefore, studies examining variables that have significant correlations and can potentially become direct predictors of communicative competence and performance would be of great significance. Several studies have investigated the relationships between affective variables and learners' WTC, which have generated encouraging results for teaching and learning practices. However, there are still a few empirical studies examining the direct roles of affective variables and learners' WTC in influencing learners' English-speaking performance. The present study, hence, continues the exploration of the interplay between affective variables and WTC with the primary focus on the examination of correlations and predictive roles of affective variables and WTC in learners' English-speaking performance in Thailand. It addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the relationships between affective variables (self-confidence, L2 anxiety, motivation, and grit), willingness to communicate (inside the classroom, outside the classroom, and in a digital setting), and students' English-speaking performance in Thailand?
2. What predictive roles do affective variables and willingness to communicate play in students' English-speaking performance in Thailand?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Affective Variables

The concept of affective variables underlies those emotionally relevant characteristics possessed by learners which affect how they will respond to situations occurring in their L2/foreign language learning (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). The first affective variable is L2 communication self-confidence, which results from the outcomes of self-rating proficiency and the level of L2 use anxiety (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). Self-confidence in L2 communication will only develop if one has high self-perceptions of L2 competence and low anxiety (Clément et al., 1994). Early studies have confirmed positive correlations between self-confidence and L2 language proficiency (Clément et al., 1994; Labrie & Clement, 1986). Positive correlations have also been observed among self-confidence and English-speaking skills (Gürler, 2015) and fluency (D'Amico, 2012). However, the latest study by Waluyo and Rofiah (2021) disclosed that students' self-confidence did not predict their English-speaking performance. Furthermore, there has been an increasing number of studies investigating the correlations between self-confidence and WTC. Some of the key findings indicate that L2 communication self-confidence predicts learners' L2 WTC (Fallah, 2014; Khajavy et al., 2016), positively correlates with learners' oral achievement (Pyun et al., 2014), and plays a crucial role in making learners willing to communicate in the target language (de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009; Yashima et al., 2004). Teachers who can enhance learners' L2 communication confidence will likely trigger active learner-learner interaction in a group work setting (Fushino, 2010; Ohata, 2016). Learners with high self-confidence and risk-taking features are likely to have high levels of L2 WTC outside the classroom and be willing to be engaged in frequent intercultural experiences in digital settings (Lee & Lee, 2019).

The second variable is L2/foreign language anxiety, which is defined as a "...distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). It has been considered as one contributing factor to successful speaking performance (Kasap, 2019), effects of which can be different across genders (Hwa & Peck, 2017). A low level of anxiety will likely increase learners' willingness to communicate in the target language (MacIntyre et al., 2003), and the latest meta-analysis study by Shirvan et al. (2019) has confirmed the moderating effects of language anxiety on WTC. However, in a digital learning setting, Lee and Drajeti (2019), who examined the relationships between language speaking anxiety and WTC, found positive correlations, but the anxiety was not a significant predictor. Additionally, in a previous study by Alemi and Pahmforoosh (2012), learners' WTC was found to have positive correlations with language proficiency, but not with anxiety.

Motivation is the third variable, which is a multifaceted construct in which the interpretation requires specific contexts; it can be interpreted as, for instance, an effect, personality trait, set of beliefs, stimulus appraisal, etc. (Dörnyei, 1998). In the present study, the concept of motivation refers to learners' personal beliefs about their English learning and it adopts Gardner's (2007) interpretation, according to which, the term 'motivated learners' describes individuals who are motivated to learn L2/foreign language, have a genuine interest in using L2/foreign language for communication

either in oral or written forms and possess a favourable attitude toward the language learning environment. The importance of motivation lies in the impact that it has on learners to stay in the learning process, despite facing obstacles and failures, until the learning goal is achieved. Nonetheless, there have been various results about the effects of motivation on learners' L2 WTC. While several studies have indicated that motivation is one of the significant predictors of learners' L2 WTC (Fallah, 2014; Lin, 2019; Shirvan et al., 2019), others have found that motivation influences learners' L2 WTC through other variables such as confidence (Peng & Woodrow, 2010), learning behaviour and resultant competence (Yashima et al., 2004). Hashimoto (2002), who examined affective variables and L2 use in classrooms of Japanese ESL students, found that motivation has a significant influence on L2 communication frequency in classrooms. In a digital learning setting, motivation can significantly predict learners' WTC (Lee & Drajati, 2019).

The last variable is grit, which is defined as perseverance and passion in the process of attaining long-term goals and is influential in the outcomes of educational attainment (Duckworth et al., 2007). In L2/foreign language learning, studies around grit contribute to the discussion of what makes learners successful and unsuccessful; in short, the grittier the learners are, the better outcomes they will achieve (Keegan, 2017). A recent study by Wei et al. (2019), who explored the relationships between grit and foreign-language performance among middle school students in China, unveils the positive effects of grit on students' performance in a foreign language; they concluded that grit not only positively supports foreign language performance but also has a crucial role in fostering a classroom environment that can potentially shape better performance in a foreign language. Previous studies have also indicated that the positive influence of grit on students' foreign language achievement will get stronger with high levels of care, support, and control from teachers (Banse & Palacios, 2018; Yoon et al., 2020). Concerning WTC, the examination of grit is often combined with other affective variables such as motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence. Empirical findings suggest that high levels of grit positively correlate with high L2 WTC inside the classroom (Lee & Lee, 2019), also that grit is one of the significant predictors of WTC (Lee & Drajati, 2019). Figure 1 exemplifies the components of affective variables.

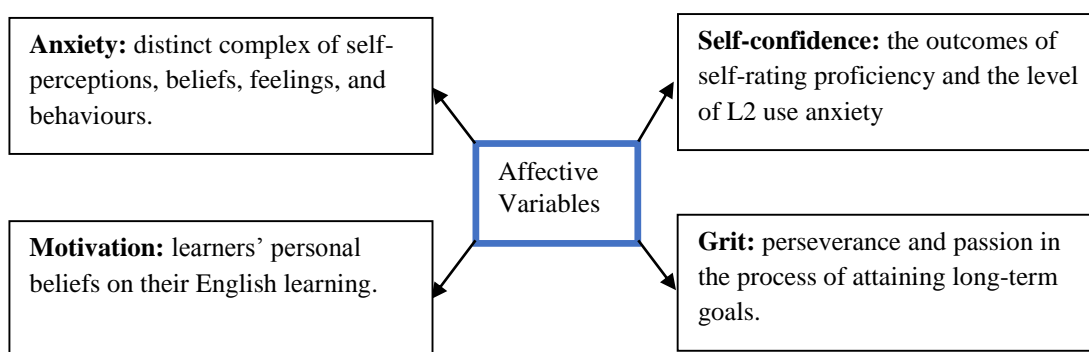


Figure 1. Affective variables and their brief definitions.

2.2 Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

The growing attention to the investigation of learners' WTC is closely tied to the constant search for determining variables that hold significant influences on making learners communicate orally across contexts and settings. WTC is considered a personality construct that can be affected by situational constraints, leading to the outcome of whether a person is willing to communicate with another person (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). To date, there are two areas of investigation explored by previous studies on WTC. The first area is the influence of affective variables on learners' WTC in L2/foreign language learning. Some of the key findings from previous studies have disclosed that communication apprehension and perceived competence determine an individual's WTC (Burroughs et al., 2003; MacIntyre, 1994), and four affective variables including self-confidence, motivation, anxiety, and grit, have been identified to hold significant influences on an individual's level of WTC (Lee & Drajati, 2019; Lee & Hsieh, 2019; Lee & Lee, 2019). The other area that has been explored is the correlation between learners' WTC, frequency of communication in L2/foreign language, and reported use of L2/foreign language. MacIntyre and Charos (1996), for instance, examining affective variables as predictors of success in L2/foreign language learning communication, realized significant paths from WTC to the frequency of communication. Similarly, Hashimoto (2002) found WTC as a significant predictor of reported L2 use. Comparing these two areas, the number of studies exploring the influence of affective variables on WTC is much higher, implying that much more studies are needed to examine the direct effects of WTC on learners' use of L/foreign language in communication.

In terms of communication settings, previous studies have also focused on investigating learners' WTC in L2/foreign language inside and outside the classroom. The studies were foundationally driven by the question of why some students actively look for chances to use their L2/foreign language for interactions in class while others are reluctant to communicate, regardless of their proficiency levels; the findings were expected to help teachers facilitate WTC in the L2/foreign language classroom (Zarrinabadi et al., 2014). Some factors that have been confirmed to have significant effects on learners' WTC in the classroom encompass self-confidence, perceived opportunity to communicate, and classroom conditions including task, topic, interlocutor, teacher, and class size, coupled with linguistic factors (Cao & Philp, 2006; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Meanwhile, high levels of L2 self-confidence and risk-taking in communication have been reported to be positively correlated with higher L2 WTC outside the classroom (Lee & Lee, 2019). Similarly, Guntzville et al. (2016) examined the role of foreign language communication anxiety in WTC outside the classroom and found a negative association between social anxiety and WTC. Exploring factors influencing learners' WTC both inside and outside the classroom seems to have attracted a considerable amount of interest from scholars as the number of studies in this area is increasing in the literature.

Nowadays, social media and online games are inseparable from student life and are starting to show their usefulness in L/foreign language learning through creative methods of teaching and learning, WTC in a digital setting is the next area of exploration apart from the inside and outside the classroom. The types of digital settings that have been explored by recent studies include online games, e-mail, and online chat (Reinders & Wattana, 2015). The findings sustain the argument that

learners' WTC can be influenced in a digital setting and will likely lead to the use of the target language in real communication. Thus, Lee and Drajati (2019) developed the scales for assessing learners' WTC in digital and non-digital EFL contexts, offering a comprehensive measurement of learners' WTC in all related settings. Given the fact that most language learners are familiar with various social media, play online games, and even use online websites and applications for learning L2/foreign languages, more empirical studies investigating learners' WTC and how it links to learners' use of the target language in real communication are needed.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This study employed a quantitative research design that involved survey and correlational analysis to address the research questions (Cook & Cook, 2008). The research was specifically designed to delve into the roles of affective variables and WTC on Thai EFL learners' English-speaking performance. The design is illustrated in Figure 2.

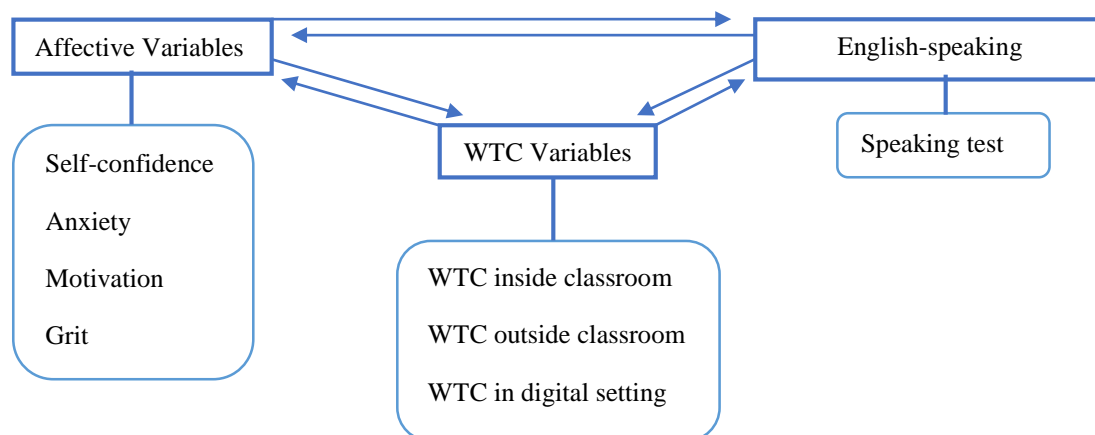


Figure 2. Illustration of the research design.

3.2 Participants

This study was conducted in an academic English course, English Communication Skills, aimed at enhancing both receptive and productive skills through integrated methods involving various conversation settings through role-play activities. The participants were first-year Thai EFL learners at Walailak University, Thailand. They consisted of 6 males (17.1%) and 29 females (82.9%), who came from non-English disciplines such as Nursing, Pharmacy, Architecture, and Design. The mean age of the learners was 18.54 years, varying from 18 to 20 years. The learners had more than five years of experience in learning English and when this study was conducted, it was the first time they began learning English at a university level. Learning English at the university level could give a different experience from that at elementary or high school levels in Thailand. One of the apparent differences was that at this university, the learners were taught by foreign English lecturers, including

native and non-natives; in this instance, students had no chance of communicating in their first language with the lecturers, encouraging the use of English in communication. In terms of English proficiency, most of the students were at A2 while the others were at B1 in the Common European Framework of References (CEFR).

3.3 Instrument and Measure

3.3.1 Survey questionnaire

This study used a survey questionnaire to collect data on the students' affective variables and WTC in learning English. It adopted the questionnaire employed by [Lee and Hsieh \(2019\)](#) who examined the interplay between affective variables and WTC in class, outside class, and digital contexts. The affective variables consisted of four constructs, namely L2 communication self-confidence (6 items), L2 anxiety (6 items), motivation (4 items), and grit (5 items), while learners' WTC was divided into three categories, namely WTC inside the classroom (4 items), outside the classroom (4 items), and in digital settings (4 items). The responses ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The reliability of these constructs has been examined by [Lee and Hsieh \(2019\)](#) and several previous studies (e.g., [Pyun et al., 2014](#)), and the results showed high internal consistency among the items; thus, these constructs were utilized in this study. However, this study ran its own reliability analysis, which also served as a means of checking the consistency of the reliability results.

Table 1. Factor loading and reliability.

Constructs	FL	h ²	Skew	Kurt	M (SD)	α
Self-confidence	.591	.551	-1.879	5.631	3.74 (.757)	.924
Anxiety	-.666	.447	.214	-.004	2.66 (.702)	.854
Motivation	.661	.741	-.311	-.311	3.99 (.575)	.584
Grit	.691	.721	.493	-.489	3.63 (.634)	.454
WTC inside the classroom	.469	.446	.485	-1.658	3.39 (.455)	.824
WTC outside the classroom	.422	.808	-.093	-.323	3.29 (.504)	.754
WTC in digital settings	.502	.610	.039	.347	3.46 (.681)	.752

Note. FL: Factor Loading; h²: Communalities; Skew: Skewness; Kurt: Kurtosis; α : Cronbach's alpha.

As shown in Table 1, the results of the factor and reliability analyses were slightly different from what was observed in the mentioned previous studies. The noticeable differences are in L2 motivation and grit in which poor and very poor internal consistencies were obtained. Initially, the α coefficients were even lower before certain items were eliminated. In L2 motivation, items 2 and 4 were eliminated; in grit, items 2, 4, and 5 were eliminated because they resulted in coefficients of less than .70 – the criterion for good internal reliability. The elimination of items also occurred in WTC inside the classroom, in which items 1 and 2 were omitted to get a higher alpha coefficient. Meanwhile, the other constructs maintained the same items from the beginning. [Dunn et al. \(2014\)](#) argue that fulfilling the alpha requirements has been a challenging task for constructs with a few numbers of items and reaching the minimum alpha of .70 has involved item deletion; this argument seems to be appropriate to explain what happened to motivation, grit, and WTC inside the classroom. The constructs were then continued to the next stage of the data analysis, excluding the deleted items.

3.3.2 English-speaking performance

The speaking test was conducted in weeks 11 and 12 of the course. The test applied an interview format consisting of three parts: 1) self-introduction, 2) talking about three-week of an independent learning experience, 3) question-answer. The teacher could also ask other questions related to the materials that students had learned in the course. One speaking test lasted 5-10 minutes. An assessment rubric, developed based on CEFR and IELTS, was used to assess fluency and coherence, lexical resource, grammatical range and accuracy, and pronunciation, encompassing pre-A1 (score 1) to C2 (score 10) levels. Descriptively, the mean of the students' scores was 6.4 at B2 level ($SD = .65$, $Skew = -.625$, $Kurt = -.523$). An independent t-test was performed and no significant difference between male and female students was observed ($p = .686$, $SE = .295$).

3.4 Data Analysis

The data analysis began with the identification of the learners' profiles of affective variables and WTC descriptively. Then, to answer the first question, correlational analysis was performed to seek the association between affective variables and WTC. Afterward, hierarchical linear regression with 2 and 3 models (Table 2) was run to unveil the predictive roles of affective variables and WTC concerning the student's speaking performance. Affective variables and WTC were entered separately. Hierarchical linear regression enables us to determine if an exogenous variable's effect on a dependent variable, is 'unique' to this exogenous variable with another predictor variable (Lindenberger & Pötter, 1998). The hierarchical models followed the following orders:

Table 2. The sequence of the variables in 2 and 3 models.

Step	2 Models						
1	Confidence	Anxiety	Motivation	Grit	WTC inside	WTC outside	In Digital Setting
2	Anxiety, Motivation, Grit	Confidence, Motivation, Grit	Confidence, Anxiety, Grit	Confidence, Anxiety, Motivation	WTC outside, in Digital Setting	WTC inside, in Digital Setting	WTC inside, outside
Step	3 Models						
1	Confidence	Anxiety	Motivation	Grit	WTC inside	WTC outside	In Digital Setting
2	Anxiety	Motivation	Grit	Confidence	WTC outside	In Digital Setting	WTC inside
3	Motivation, Grit	Confidence, Grit	Confidence, Anxiety	Anxiety, Motivation	In Digital Setting	WTC inside	WTC outside

4 RESULTS

4.1 Students' Profiles of Affective Variables and WTC

The constructs were arranged on a five-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The interpretations were divided into three levels based on mean scores: Low (1–2.49), Moderate (2.5–3.49), and High (3.5–5). Concerning affective variables, the students demonstrated a high level of L2 communication self-confidence ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .757$), motivation ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .575$), and grit ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .634$), while exhibiting a low level of anxiety ($M = 2.66$, $SD = .702$) when it came to learning English and communicating in English. Additionally, students demonstrated moderate levels of WTC in the classroom ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .455$), outside the classroom ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .504$), and in the digital environment ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .681$). Independent t-tests were then performed, and it was observed that there were no significant differences across gender for all these variables. Figure 2 illustrates the means of affective and WTC variables.

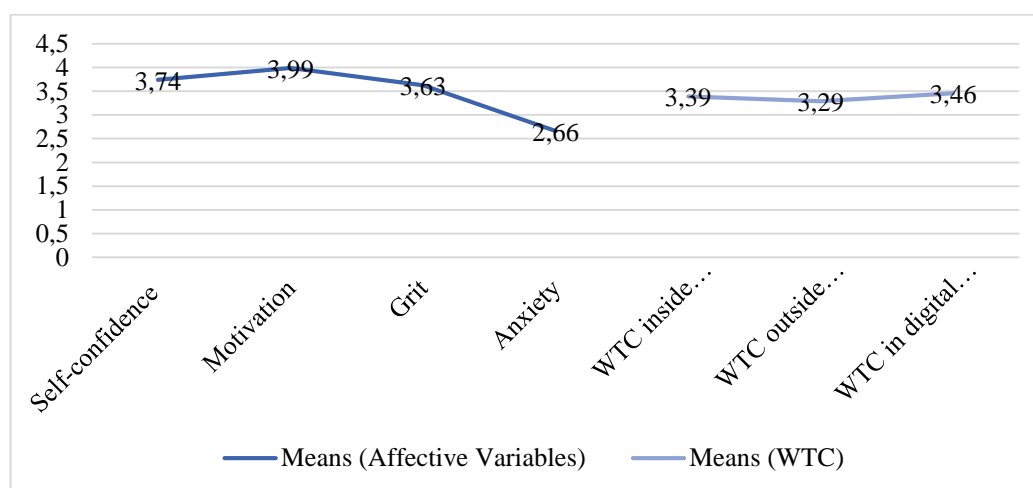


Figure 3. The means of affective and WTC variables

4.2 Correlation Analysis

There were significant and positive relationships between self-confidence and WTC outside the classroom ($r = .46$, $p = .005$), motivation and grit ($r = .43$, $p = .01$), motivation and speaking performance ($r = .41$, $p = .02$), grit and WTC in a digital setting ($r = .44$, $p = .01$), and WTC inside the classroom and WTC outside the classroom ($r = .39$, $p = .02$). In comparison, negative correlations were discovered between self-confidence and anxiety ($r = -.37$, $p = .03$) and anxiety and grit ($r = -.44$, $p = .01$).

Table 3. Correlations among variables.

		2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Self-confidence	-.37*	.22	.18	.16	.46**	.15	.17
2.	Anxiety		-.31	-.44**	-.18	-.18	-.14	-.21
3.	Motivation			.43*	.25	-.11	.31	.41*
4.	Grit				.10	.17	.44**	.16

Table 3 continued...

5.	WTC inside classroom				.39*	.12	.16
6.	WTC outside classroom					.06	.05
7.	WTC in the digital setting						.08
8.	Speaking performance						

Note. *p<.05, **p<.01

4.3 Hierarchical Regression

All the models were run in sequence as displayed in Table 2. In two models, the hierarchical regression unveiled that motivation at stage one had a significant contribution to the regression model ($F(1,33) = 6.62, p = .01$), which accounted for 17% of the variance in speaking performance. This reflected that motivation was influential in the students' English-speaking performance. However, when the other three variables (self-confidence, anxiety, and grit) were added, the regression model did not reflect statistical significance ($F(1,30) = 1.66, p = .19$) despite having a higher R square ($R^2 = .18$). In fact, self-confidence, anxiety, and grit might have reduced the influence of motivation on the students' English-speaking performance. Then, in three models, at stage one, motivation still emerged as a significant predictor of speaking performance ($F(1,33) = 6.62, p = .02$), explaining 17% of the variance in the outcome variable. Nonetheless, non-significant results were observed in stages two and three involving the other three variables (self-confidence, anxiety, and grit), except for motivation, as seen in Table 4. The hierarchical regression also showed that none of the models (Table 2) involving WTC variables showed significant results on speaking performance.

Table 4. Hierarchical regression: Affective variables on speaking performance.

2 Models					
Predictors	B (SE)	β	<i>t</i>	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1 (Constant)	4.56 (.72)		6.27***	.17	.17
Motivation	.46 (.18)	.41	2.57*		
Step 2 (Constant)	4.90 (1.34)		3.65	.18	.014
Motivation	.45 (.21)	.39	2.12**		
Confidence	.05 (.15)	.06	.339		
Anxiety	-.09 (.18)	-.09	-.09		
Grit	-.06 (.20)	-.06	-.06		
3 Models					
Step 1 (Constant)	4.56 (.72)		6.30***	.17	.17
Motivation	.46 (.18)	.41	2.57*		
Step 2 (Constant)	4.60 (.80)		5.74	.17	0
Motivation	.47 (.20)	.42	2.34*		
Grit	-.02 (.18)	-.02	-.13		
Step 3 (Constant)	4.90 (1.34)		3.65**	.18	.25
Motivation	.45 (.21)	.39	.21*		
Grit	-.07 (.20)	-.06	-.33		
Confidence	.05 (.15)	.06	.34		
Anxiety	-.09 (.18)	-.09	-.48		

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

5. DISCUSSION

The primary goal of this study is to explore the correlations and predictive roles of affective variables and WTC on English-speaking performance. The outcomes of the correlation analysis suggest three positive conditions. First, students who develop high levels of L2 communication self-confidence will likely be more willing to communicate in English outside the classroom. It follows the findings of recent studies (e.g., Fallah, 2014; Khajavy, et al., 2016; Lee & Lee, 2019); further, with regards to speaking performance, an increase in self-confidence can potentially lead to student progress in English speaking skills (Gürler, 2015), fluency (D'Amico, 2012) and oral achievement (Pyun et al., 2014). Second, students who have high levels of motivation for learning English will likely make more attempts, which can lead to advancement in their English-speaking performance. In this case, the findings of the previous studies have been divided into two categories: the ones suggesting positive correlations and the ones indicating mediation. The present study endorses positive correlations between motivation and grit and motivation and speaking performance, as confirmed by Fallah (2014), Lin (2019), and Shirvan et al. (2019).

Third, students who make more attempts at learning English will likely be more willing to communicate in English in digital settings, such as on Facebook and in online games. Keegan (2017) argues that successful L2/foreign language learners possess high levels of grit, as the grittier the learners are, the better outcomes they will achieve. Wei et al. (2019), examining the interplay between grit and foreign-language performance among students in China, claim that grit positively influences foreign-language performance and the classroom environment; in this instance, the findings of the present study add the positive influence of grit on student communication in digital settings. The last suggestion is that students who are more willing to communicate in English inside the classroom will likely be more willing to use the target language outside the classroom. As students actively look for chances to use their L2/foreign language for interactions in class, they are likely to do so outside the classroom (Zarrinabadi et al., 2014).

Additionally, the outcomes of the correlation analysis disclose that students with low levels of anxiety in learning English will be inclined to possess high levels of self-confidence in using English for communication; they will also tend to put more effort into their English learning, regardless of their gender. About this outcome, an early study by Clément et al. (1994) indicated a negative association between self-confidence and anxiety, and this seems to follow human psychological common sense, but this study adds one fresh understanding of the negative relationship between anxiety and grit. At this point, students' levels of anxiety need to be kept low during the whole L2/foreign language learning process, and the previous studies by Banse and Palacios (2018) and Yoon et al. (2020) advise that the positive influence of grit on students' foreign language achievement will get stronger with high levels of care, support, and control from teachers.

Furthermore, the hierarchical regression results indicate motivation as the only significant predictor for students' English-speaking performance when self-confidence, anxiety, and grit are involved in the regression model. In the present study, none of the WTC variables were considered as significant predictors of speaking performance. It is natural to assume that despite the claims from previous studies about the correlations between affective variables and WTC (Lee & Drajadi, 2019; Lee &

Hsieh, 2019; Lee & Lee, 2019) and between WTC, frequency of communication in L2/foreign language, and reported use of L2/foreign language (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996), it is the only motivation that has a significant, predictive role in students' English-speaking performance. Such assumption defines motivated students as individuals who are motivated to learn L2/foreign language, have a genuine interest in using L2/foreign language for communication either in oral or written forms and possess a favourable attitude toward the language learning environment, as explained by Gardner (2007).

6. CONCLUSION

The present study examined the correlations and predictive roles of affective and WTC variables on speaking performance. The results disclosed five positive relationships (self-confidence and WTC outside the classroom; motivation and grit; motivation and speaking performance; grit and WTC in a digital setting; WTC inside the classroom and WTC outside the classroom) and two negative relationships (self-confidence and anxiety; anxiety and grit). Meanwhile, motivation was the only significant predictor of speaking performance. These results sustain the findings from previous studies as discussed in the earlier section, yet it is also important to mention that these results do not support the argument that affective and WTC variables can significantly predict students' English-speaking performance.

The results of this study can also be considered as a sign of inconsistency in the studies around affective variables, WTC variables, and communication competence. Peng (2013) has brought such inconsistent results to attention by claiming, "measuring L2 WTC in EFL contexts appears to remain a challenging task" (p. 288). Peng notes that it is challenging because the developed WTC scales available in the literature apply to certain specific learning tasks and are dominated by western-originated items. Items should be scrutinized and examined before they are used to assess WTC in daily encounters in EFL contexts. Together with the growing number of empirical studies around WTC, one can notice that there are inconsistencies among the reported findings. Thus, the present study encourages more empirical studies investigating the direct effects of affective and WTC variables on L2/foreign language speaking or communication performance as it will supervise teachers specifically towards useful specific speaking tasks; one has been done by this study.

The empirical evidence obtained in this study implies that to enhance students' speaking performance, L2/foreign language teachers should include materials that can potentially enhance both students' self-confidence and motivation in English learning because escalations in these two affective variables can contribute to the enhancement of students' WTC outside the classroom and digital setting as well as encourage students to put more effort into their language learning. Besides, motivation can significantly predict students' speaking performance in English.

Given the fact that the participants in the present study are originally from Thailand, it is important to learn the findings from Vongsila and Reinders's (2016) study that suggest a vital role of teachers in encouraging WTC to make Asian learners talk. The vital role of teachers is also evident in a class full of high-performing students since teachers can create a positive emotional classroom climate that helps decrease

students' anxiety levels, thereby increasing their WTC in English (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2018; Waluyo, 2020).

Regarding the limitations, it should be noted that the findings of this study may or may not represent students in another context although some results may remain consistent given the statistically proven reliability level in this study. Then, this study specifically examines students' English-speaking performance in an individual interview setting; different types of speaking tasks may or may not produce similar results. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies investigate the predictive roles of affective and WTC variables in students' speaking performance in various speaking tasks and disclose any significant differences as it will offer valuable insights for L2/foreign English teachers in attaining one of the ultimate goals of English learning, i.e., making students use English communication across contexts or settings.

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Language Learning Strategies Used by Indonesian Learners in IELTS

Juli Yanti Damanik*

English Discipline, Study Program of Bioprocess Engineering, Faculty of
Biotechnology, Institut Teknologi Del, Sitoluama, 22381, INDONESIA

Abstract

This study investigated the frequently used language learning strategies (LLS) by Indonesian learners in learning English for a high-stakes exam, IELTS. In addition, differences in the LLS use among participants with different proficiency were examined. Using a quantitative approach, data were collected by using an online survey by utilizing Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) as the instrument. Sixty-one Indonesian adult learners who had taken IELTS were involved in this study. Their IELTS score indicated their proficiency levels. Data analysis was carried out using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). It involved a descriptive analysis to find the frequency and an independent samples t-test to see the LLS use based on proficiency. The findings revealed that the participants used various LLS in learning English for IELTS. The most frequently used strategies were metacognitive, followed by cognitive, compensative, social, affective, and memory strategies. Meanwhile, the independent samples t-test showed that the difference in the LLS use among participants with different proficiency was not noticeable. Reflecting on the results, it is proposed that English teachers in Indonesia may start growing their learners' awareness of LLS benefits and teach them to use them properly in their learning English for IELTS.

Keywords: IELTS, Indonesian learners, language learning strategies, SILL, quantitative.

* Corresponding author, email: juli.damanik@del.ac.id

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1. INTRODUCTION

The wake of globalisation has opened access for people around the globe to migrate to different countries, be it for living, working, or studying. In relation to migrating and entering a different country, the ability to speak the language spoken in the country is important. To show that a person can speak the language spoken in the destination country, proof of language proficiency may be required. In many countries where English is spoken, International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is recognised as proof of English language proficiency.

Today there is a trend showing growth in the number of Indonesian students studying abroad. In Australia alone, for instance, there were 8748 Indonesian students (Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education of the Republic of Indonesia, 2016). The trend was the result of financial sponsorships available in Indonesia to prepare Indonesia's younger generation to pursue higher education in high-rank universities around the world.

Nonetheless, in some cases, the requirement of a standard language proficiency test can be a challenge for Indonesian prospective applicants. Basically, they have the opportunity to study abroad as a great number of scholarships are available both from the government and from the target country, but meeting the language proficiency requirement, in this case, IELTS can be challenging at one point. There are probably several reasons why IELTS is problematic to Indonesian students. First, they are not prepared for a high-stakes testing system such as IELTS during their studying English at school or university. This reason, Bachman (1988) argued, can cause difficulties in undertaking the test. Second, the status of English in Indonesia is as a foreign language (EFL). This implies that English is not spoken as often as where English functions as the first or the second language.

On the other hand, many of the students were able to successfully achieve a high score. Identifying what strategies these successful learners do in their learning is essential so that they could be taught to other learners who are less successful in their learning (Rivera-Mills & Plonsky, 2007). Nakatani (2005) argued that the awareness of learning strategies is advantageous for learners as it can help them acquire the knowledge better. It resonates with the idea that learning can be enhanced by employing learning strategies (Griffiths, 2018; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Research on language learning strategies (LLS) has become a great interest in educational research (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Griffiths, 2018; Oxford, 1990). It initially sparked from the seminal work of Rubin (1975) by which the term "good language learner" (p. 43) appeared. The idea of a good language learner suggested that using LLS leads learners to successful learning (Rubin, 1975). What is more important is that LLS used by successful language learners can be taught to less successful learners to help them improve (Oxford, 1990). Therefore, many researchers have attempted to study LLS in various contexts (Amerstorfer, 2018; Griffiths, 2018; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Oxford, 1990; Psaltou-Joycey et al., 2018; Wharton, 2000). A shift in the view of students' and teachers' roles in second/foreign language learning has made researchers in educational contexts interested in the study of LLS (Griffiths, 2018). Success in language learning involves collaboration between teachers and learners (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998). From the side of learners, LLS used by learners indicates what actions they can do to improve their own learning (Griffiths, 2018). To

gain maximum outcomes in second or foreign language learning, the roles of teachers are demonstrated in several aspects such as their teaching strategy practice and their perception of learners' LLS use and how they respond to it (Chamot, 2008). Recognising teachers' and learners' roles in second/foreign language learning will enable them to maximize the outcomes in their own learning through collaboration (Psaltou-Joycey et al., 2018). Therefore, the research on LLS keeps on growing.

In multiple contexts, there have been a plethora of studies in LLS. Researchers investigated the relationship between LLS use with variables, such as proficiency gender, and nationality (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006), proficiency, age, and self-efficacy (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007), gender, and proficiency (Green & Oxford, 1995). In Indonesia, a number of studies in the LLS area have been conducted, for example, the relationship between LLS use and proficiency (Alfian, 2018), with gender (Mahmud & Nur, 2018), and LLS used by Indonesian high school students in speaking English (Syafryadin, 2020). To my knowledge, studies about LLS in Indonesia focusing on LLS use in IELTS is scarce. Indeed, Yunianika (2018) explored LLS used in Indonesian learners preparing for IELTS with the SILL. However, in Yunianika's (2018) study, the participants were limited to affirmation scholarship awardees of a scholarship scheme in Indonesia which demanded lower scores to pass compared to other similar scholarship schemes, and the instrument reliability in the context was not informed. Besides, the relevance of the LLS used to learning IELTS was not deeply discussed.

Therefore, this study aims at investigating LLS used by adult Indonesian learners in learning English for IELTS and examining whether there is any difference in the LLS use based on the learners' proficiency. This study is expected to be significant for teaching practitioners and learners of English for IELTS, and English for any purpose in general in the Indonesian context by demonstrating how the strategies are relevant to learning English for IELTS. Further, this study is expected to enrich the research of LLS use, especially in Indonesia.

This study was driven by these research questions:

1. What LLS are frequently used by Indonesian learners learning English for IELTS?
2. Is there any significant difference in the use of LLS use among learners with different proficiency levels in IELTS?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Language Learning Strategies (LLS) and Theoretical Underpinning

Despite abundant studies and the popularity of LLS, the field of LLS has been known as vague (Griffiths, 2018). There has not been any common foundation in terms of its definition and theoretical underpinnings despite great interest in the field. While defining a concept is essential as the foundation to understand the concept, LLS definition is diverse according to previous researchers. Bialystok (1978) defined LLS as tools to exploit linguistic information to increase learners' competence in a target language. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) conceptualised LLS as steps in language learning which enable learners to acquire, retrieve, and use linguistic information. Meanwhile, according to Oxford (1990), LLS is "specific actions taken by the learner

to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to a new situation” (p. 8).

Despite scholars’ varying definitions of LLS, there is a commonality in the aforementioned definitions. It seems that scholars agree with the idea that LLS facilitates learners to gain success in their language learning. This study draws on Oxford’s (1990) definition of LLS. This study investigates LLS which Indonesian learners use in learning English for IELTS. As a high-stakes exam, IELTS requires learners or test-takers in the context to prepare well if they aim for a high score. In this case, the definition by Oxford (1990) proposes an idea that LLS can decrease the pressure of learning, especially if the task to be completed is uninteresting or challenging. In addition, as LLS can lead to self-directed learning, the concept of LLS by Oxford might be beneficial for learners in the context of this study. Thus, with LLS, learners can improve their independence in learning to reach their goals.

Besides the various definitions of LLS proposed by scholars, LLS research is known to be controversial in terms of underpinning theories. According to Griffiths (2018), LLS can be theorised from several theoretical positions in many ways, including behaviourism, structuralism, information processing theory under cognitivism, and socio-culturalism. She viewed, in the behaviourism paradigm, learning a language can be done through repeating learning behaviours until learners succeed. The learning behaviours are expressed by drilling, repeating, and practicing. On the other hand, structuralists believe that learning a language can be enhanced by learning the target language patterns and system (Griffiths, 2018). From the perspective of information processing theory, learning strategies are crucial for cognition development. Meanwhile, the socio-cultural theory argues for the importance of social interaction as strategies to improve learning (Vygotsky, 1978). This study draws on the last two theoretical concepts as they are useful to help understand the use of LLS in language learning.

2.2 Categorisation of LLS

Oxford (1990) categorised LLS into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are strategies in which mental processing of linguistic information is involved. Indirect strategies are those used to support and manage learning in accomplishing language tasks and argued that they can be applied in all learning tasks. She said that direct strategies cover memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Oxford further added, on the other hand, indirect strategies are comprised of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. They are explained as the following:

1. Memory strategies

Memory strategies are used to remember a language being learned (Oxford, 1990). In other words, memory strategies are specific strategies to help learners to store and retrieve new information. Overall, the memory strategies are related to learners’ endeavours to master elements of English such as vocabulary and grammar. This is important for learners studying English for IELTS as the strategies help develop and retain learners’ vocabulary and grammar.

2. Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies help learners think of how they can enhance their learning, for example how they understand and create a product such as a text in a target

language (Oxford, 1990). Besides, the cognitive strategy helps language learners to manipulate and transform the language they are learning to comprehend it better.

3. Compensative strategies

Compensative strategies indicate how learners compensate for the lack of their knowledge and competence in a target language so that they can reflect and make use of their limitations in the target language to succeed in using the language (Oxford, 1990).

4. Metacognitive strategies

The metacognitive strategy helps learners manage how they learn (Oxford, 1990). The focus is on the process of their learning. Zhang (2010) corroborated that when learners are aware of their learning process and strategies, they are most likely to achieve success in their learning. Learners gain from using metacognitive strategies because they help learners plan, monitor, evaluate their learning, and modify their learning strategies when necessary (Oxford, 1990; Zhang, 2010). Zhang (2010) suggested that the use of metacognitive strategies could be one factor that distinguished successful learners from less successful ones. He explains the former group gains from monitoring their learning and modifying their learning strategy when found ineffective while the latter group does not perform similar behaviours.

5. Affective strategies

Affective strategy is beneficial for learners to be able to regulate their affective state in their own learning process. Affective state in learning refers to learners' attitudes, beliefs, emotions, and motivation (Oxford, 1990). Referring to the Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982), a negative affective state will result in difficulty in learning. Employing affective strategies enables learners to maintain and improve positive attitudes, beliefs, emotions, and motivation in learning. Shawer (2016) found that affective strategies are beneficial in language learners' development particularly in receptive skills (reading and listening).

6. Social strategies

Social strategies help learners learn with other people through social interaction (Oxford, 1990). She argued for the importance of social strategies in language learning. The strategies lead to increasing interactions between learners and other people in terms of learning and using the language being learned.

Among all the strategies mentioned, there is not any strategy which is more important than the others (Oxford, 1990). In other words, all strategies complete the others. They even work more effectively when combined, not in isolation (Anderson, 2008). The types of strategies are presented in Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

2.3 IELTS and LLS in Indonesia

IELTS is a high-stakes exam whose purpose is to show test-takers' proficiency level in English and to measure their communicative competence (Uysal, 2010). Currently, it has been recognised in approximately 135 countries as proof of English language proficiency when people manage to migrate overseas for academic, professional, and other migration purposes (Hoang & Hamid, 2017). Countries such as Australia, New Zealand, and Canada recognise the IELTS as an entry requirement for universities and immigration (Uysal, 2010). She explained that, as a high-stakes

language test, IELTS plays an important role in their admission to their target university or country. The other thing to be concerned about is the registration fee for the IELTS which keeps increasing (Hoang & Hamid, 2017). Therefore, passing the targeted IELTS score is crucial for test-takers.

IELTS is mainly administered by highly reputable organisations, namely the British Council, IDP IELTS Australia, and the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations or usually known as Cambridge ESOL. IELTS is categorised into 2 types: academic and general modules. The IELTS itself consists of four sections: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. They are all assessed in score ranges from 0 to 9, with an interval of 0.5. A test taker's overall band score results from the mean of the scores for the four sections (Hoang & Hamid, 2017). Given the nature of the IELTS as a high-stakes exam, test takers tend to put much effort to obtain their target score. In Indonesia, an adequate IELTS score is not only important for targeting a university admission or immigration, but also for attaining sponsorship to study abroad or in a local university. Based on a report of IELTS™ (2019), the average score in Indonesia was 6.5. The score indicates the skill level of a competent user who can use the language effectively, but inaccuracies and inappropriate use of language, and possible misunderstanding may still present (IELTS™, n.d.).

In regard to IELTS, Yunianika (2018) conducted a study on Indonesian learners' LLS use. The participants were awardees of a scholarship scheme in Indonesia. She found that the participants used metacognitive strategies most frequently (M=4.18) and memory strategy as the least frequently used strategy (M=3.29). In addition, it was also found that female participants used LLS more frequently than male participants. Further, in terms of LLS use based on proficiency, she categorised the participants into four proficiency levels: "Very good (score ≥ 7), Good ($6 \leq$ scores < 7), Moderate ($5 \leq$ scores < 6) and Low ($4 \leq$ scores < 5)". The study revealed that participants, who had the highest proficiency level used social strategy most frequently. She argued that the high use of social strategy indicated that the learners in the category were active and benefitted from peer collaboration in their own learning. On the other hand, the participants with the lowest proficiency employed affective strategy the most.

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants' Demography

There were 61 participants in this study. They were adult Indonesian learners who had taken IELTS. The link to the questionnaire was advertised to several online platforms whose members are Indonesian who study, work, and stay abroad because they might have taken IELTS prior to their departure to their destination country. Their latest score was used as the indicator of their proficiency.

The background questions also informed that all participants' first language was not English. They perceived that scoring high in IELTS was considered important (N=20) and very important (N=41). Based on the participants' latest IELTS score, the indicator of their proficiency level, Table 1 informs about the groups of the participants. They were good users (IELTS score = 6.5-9) (N=46) and moderate users (IELTS score = 3.5-6) (N=15).

In language learning, adult learners are known to have specific characteristics. Due to their experience in life, it has been argued that adult learners have a wide range of learning strategy repertoire (Knowles, 1984). Knowles also identified adult learners as self-directed learners who can direct their own learning. In their language learning, adults tend to be motivated to learn when they already have a clear objective of learning (Cozma, 2015). In learning English for IELTS, participants in this study expressed the importance of reaching a higher score in IELTS as ‘important’ and ‘very important’. It could become their sound motivation in their language learning as they realised that scoring high in IELTS had a high level of importance.

Table 1. Participant groups based on their latest IELTS score.

Proficiency level	Frequency	Percentage
Moderate User (IELTS Score =3.5-6)	15	24.6
Good User (IELTS Score = 6.5-9)	46	75.4
Total	61	100.0

3.2 Research Design

This quantitative study was conducted by using an online survey in collecting data. A survey is one of many methods scholars have opted for in LLS research (Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Wharton, 2000). Online surveys enable researchers to reach their participants easily despite geographical issues which lead to quick response (Bryman, 2016). The data obtained then was analysed statistically using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 28. It resulted in mean scores which were interpreted as the level of frequency. There are three levels of frequency (Oxford, 1990): low (means between 1.0-2.4), medium (means between 2.5-3.4), and high (means between 3.5-5.00). Additionally, to see the differences in LLS use due to different proficiency levels, an independent sample t-test was performed.

As for the instrument, the SILL developed by Oxford (1990) was employed in this study, along with a few background questions covering their latest IELTS score and their perceptions of IELTS. The SILL used was version 7.0 which is targeted at those whose first language is not English. It consists of 50 items which are divided into 6 parts based on Oxford’s LLS taxonomy, namely memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social, and compensative strategies. The measurement of the instrument is in a five-point Likert type, ranging from 1 for ‘never or almost never true of me’, 2 for ‘usually not true of me’, 3 for ‘somewhat true of me’. 4 for ‘usually true of me’, and 5 for ‘always or almost always true of me’ (Oxford, 1990, p. 293).

The SILL validity and reliability are argued to be high and consistent (Ardasheva & Tretter, 2013; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). The SILL is reported to be highly reliable (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Referring to Cronbach’s alpha as one commonly used measurement to determine an instrument’s internal reliability (Bryman, 2016), the SILL reliability is reported to be above the acceptable value of the Cronbach’s alpha. Most of the studies using the SILL as their instrument have shown a value above 0.80 (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Wharton, 2000). In this study, the SILL’s reliability is high with the Cronbach’s alpha of 0.89 (see Table 2).

Table 2. The SILL reliability test.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's alpha	N of items
.897	50

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 LLS Frequently Used by Indonesian Learners in Learning English for IELTS

In Table 3, the result of a descriptive analysis of LLS used by the participants is presented. The participants used all six strategies in their learning: memory, cognitive, compensative, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

Table 3. Indonesian learners' use of LLS in learning English for IELTS based on the six categories in the instrument (SILL).

Strategies	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Memory	61	3.06	.56
Cognitive	60	3.77	.48
Compensative	60	3.66	.56
Metacognitive	58	3.89	.59
Affective	58	3.13	.64
Social	56	3.62	.58
Average		3.52	.57
Valid N (listwise)	56		

Referring to the LLS user profile mentioned before, the analysis showed a high mean score of overall strategies used ($M=3.52$), ranging between 3.06 and 3.89. The overall mean score could be interpreted as 'usually used' (Oxford, 1990, p. 300). Metacognitive strategies were used most frequently ($M=3.89$), followed by cognitive ($M=3.77$), compensative ($M=3.65$), social ($M=3.62$), affective ($M=3.13$), and memory strategies ($M=3.06$).

From Table 3, it could be seen that the number of valid cases was different because several participants did not complete all the items to the last part. Social strategies ($N=56$) were put in the last part of the instrument, and it could be the reason for the declining number of valid cases. Overall, the average mean score of LLS used by Indonesian learners in IELTS was considered high ($M=3.52$).

The following sub-sections explain the LLS used by the participants starting from the most frequently used strategies to the least frequently used strategies.

4.1.1 Metacognitive strategies

The findings showed that metacognitive strategies were at the top of the six strategy categories. This finding is similar to what Alfian (2018) and Yunianika (2018) found in their study in the same context. Apparently, the participants in this study seemed to be aware of ways to plan, manage, and assess their own learning. In connection to their purpose of learning English, which was to do well in IELTS, they probably realised that their way of learning should be different from when they learn English for general purposes considering the nature of IELTS as a high-stakes exam.

They already had a clear goal in their language learning by which their motivation in learning could be improved as well (Zhang, 2010). For those who learn English for a specific purpose which is crucial for their further progress or plan, having a goal to reach and fear to fail the goal could encourage them to manage and control their own learning (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006). Managing and controlling their learning can be done by using metacognitive strategies.

In the metacognitive category, item number 32 ('I pay attention when someone is speaking English') was on the first list (M=4.27). This item is echoing the sociocultural theory which suggests the importance of interaction with other people to learn. Amerstorfer (2018) suggested that paying attention to someone speaking English was beneficial for learning English. It could be possible that English language learners may not comprehend all the things their interlocutors say in English communication. To avoid missing the message delivered through the communication, this strategy is effective (Amerstorfer, 2018). Besides, this strategy could help learners improve their listening skills as well.

In IELTS, test-takers can apply this strategy in the listening and speaking sections. In the sections, they must respond to English speeches. If they are aware and used to employing the strategy, they should be able to understand the instructions or questions given. Consequently, they would be able to give responses to the questions accordingly.

Meanwhile, item number 34 ('I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English') was the least frequently used in the category (M=3.09). However, it should be noted that the item was still used in a medium frequency. Planning the learning is useful for more maximum outcomes (Oxford, 1990). Planning a schedule, for example, can be useful as learners can allocate their time for learning. As the participants were all adults who might have other activities to do, they may need to plan when to learn, work, relax, and do other activities. Thus, this strategy is helpful to manage learning.

4.1.2 Cognitive strategies

In this study, the participants used cognitive strategies at a high level of frequency (M=3.77). Among the SILL items, item number 15 ('I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English'), which is one of the cognitive strategies, was in the top position. The mean score (M=4.38) showed that the participants used it at a high frequency.

In the previous part, the characteristics of adult learners have been explained. One of them is their ability to use various types of resources to learn, including media such as movies (Albiladi et al., 2018). Albiladi et al. (2018) conducted a study in the US to investigate adult English language learners' perspectives on learning English through watching movies spoken in English. They concluded that the learners found watching movies spoken in English as an effective and interesting way to learn English. They said that watching movies in English facilitates learners' development in speaking, listening, writing, reading, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Besides, it can make learning English interesting and enjoyable since movies as 'authentic sources' of language learning offer 'natural and real' English language use from which cultural awareness could be learned as well (Albiladi et al., 2018, p. 1571). This finding is interesting considering Indonesia as an EFL context. In other words, there are limited

opportunities for learners to experience the real use of English. Therefore, by watching movies, learners can experience more exposure to natural English use. Exposure to English language use has been argued to be useful for improving language acquisition (Ardasheva & Tretter, 2013). Thus, learning English by watching movies or TV shows spoken in English may improve learners' proficiency.

4.1.3 Compensative strategies

Compensative strategies are important when learners have difficulties in using the language, they learned due to their limited knowledge of the language (Oxford, 1990). In this category, item number 29 ('If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing') was on the top of the items in the category (M=4.20). The mean score means that the participants always or almost always use it. As English is not the participants' first language, there could be possibilities to face difficulties in any English communication they encounter in terms of vocabulary or grammar. For example, they had to deliver their ideas in the speaking and writing sections of IELTS according to the given instructions. Being aware of the strategy would be helpful for them when they experience problems finding the correct words. Using another word or phrase with a similar meaning would help them to deliver their answer instead of losing points due to a lack of fluency when they paused to think about the unfamiliar or difficult words.

On the other hand, item number 26 ('make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English') (M=3.22) showed the lowest means score in the category. Nonetheless, the mean score still showed that the participants used it in a medium frequency. It is interesting to relate this finding to Amerstorfer's (2018) study in which the participant suggested that making up new words in English would not be considered wise as those words might be wrong in terms of their meaning. Speaking of the possibility of the wrong meaning of the made-up words, IELTS test-takers may lose points for lexical resources if it occurs. Therefore, this strategy should be carefully taught to learners, particularly when their purpose of learning English is for taking a language exam.

4.1.4 Social strategies

Social strategies are useful for learning through interactions that learners experience with their peers or more capable others such as their English language teachers or instructors (Oxford, 1990). As the purpose of IELTS is to measure its test takers' communicative competence, interactions with others could be useful to improve competence. It is because the interactions allow learners to use the language they learn (Griffiths, 2018).

Despite being in the fourth position after metacognitive, cognitive, and compensative strategies, this study found that the participants used social strategies at the range of high frequency (M=3.62). On the top of the social strategy items, there was item number 45 ('If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again') (M=3.98). This strategy may be helpful to clarify meaning. This strategy is essential to aid learners to be involved in a conversation in English so that they could provide correct responses. In addition, learners could gain from asking questions since their interlocutors' responses could be indirect feedback

to determine whether learners' speech was understandable or not (Oxford, 1990). Meanwhile, item number 46 ('I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk') showed the lowest mean score among the social strategies (M=3.18). Basically, this corrective strategy has been argued as an effective strategy to improve learners' speaking (Oxford, 1990). In other words, learners were aware that they could take advantage and learn through feedback provided by an English speaker or the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO). Nonetheless, the participants might find it uneasy to find English speakers considering the context of Indonesia as an EFL context. This could be one reason for the lower mean of this strategy compared to the other items in social strategies.

In learning English for IELTS or in the test itself, the strategy of asking questions is useful, especially in the speaking section. The participants had to answer questions from their interviewer accordingly. The strategy could prevent learners from giving wrong responses when they do not understand the question which might lead to losing points. Considering the importance of social strategies, learners should be trained to use them properly.

4.1.5 *Affective strategies*

Affective strategies function to maintain and improve learners' positive emotions, motivation, and attitudes in learning a language as they are important to improve language learning outcomes (Oxford, 1990). The findings of this study showed that affective strategies were the strategies with the second lowest mean seen from the six categories (M=3.13). From the individual strategy analysis, item number 40 ('I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake') (M=3.93) was in the first position in the affective category. This strategy is interesting to the extent in which learners could grow their encouragement towards themselves to speak English rather than waiting for encouragement from other people. The encouragement enables them to practise more through an interaction or communication in English which could lead to oral proficiency improvement (Oxford, 1990).

On the other hand, item number 43 ('I write down my feelings in a language learning diary') (M=2.14) was the least frequently used in the category. Regarding item number 43, a study conducted by Amerstorfer (2018) suggested a similar result. It was suggested that adult learners were not in favour of writing their feelings in a diary. Instead, they might write problems or difficulties they found when learning some topics so that they could ask other people or learn more about the problems (Amerstorfer, 2018).

As the nature of the task in this study is scoring in IELTS as a high-stakes exam, it is worth noting that it might be possible for the participants to suffer from anxiety which is a negative emotion. Therefore, using affective strategies could be helpful in that case, both in their learning process and in the test to perform well.

4.1.6 *Memory strategies*

Memory strategies were identified as the least frequently used by participants (M=3.06). Even an analysis on the mean of each item shows that item number 6 ('I used flashcards to remember words') (M=1.98) was on the bottom of the 50 items. It

could be influenced by the participants' proficiency level. Oxford (1990) said that learners whose proficiency is intermediate or advanced might not use the memory strategies as frequently as those at the beginning level. As the participants' proficiency level was beyond the beginning level and most of them were good users (N= 75.4%), this explanation could be plausible.

In learning a second or foreign language, mastering vocabulary is essential to support the development of reading, listening, speaking, and writing. This is to say that great mastery of target language vocabulary may enable learners to communicate in the target language (Oxford, 1990). This strategy is one of the items in memory strategies whose purpose is to learn vocabulary in a target language. However, there is a tendency for lower use of memory strategies (Oxford, 1990). It could be because using flashcards was not significant for them and preparing flashcards would take time and effort (Amerstorfer, 2018).

Among all items in the memory strategies, item number 1 ('I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English') was the most frequently used item (M=3.84). This strategy is one example of memory strategies which can be done by creating mental linkages (Oxford, 1990). In other words, learners could gain from the strategy by associating available linguistic information they already have with new inputs. Oxford (1990) contended that the linkage between the old and the new linguistic inputs helps learners understand and remember the new inputs more easily which finally enables learners to retrieve the inputs when needed.

4.2 Differences in the LLS Use among Learners with Different Proficiency Levels in IELTS

To study the differences in the LLS use among learners with different proficiency levels in IELTS, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Table 4 presents the results of the independent samples t-test based on the proficiency levels shown by the participants' IELTS score group.

Table 4. LLS use based on participants' proficiency level.

Strategy categories	Proficiency group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Memory	Moderate	15	3.01	.46	.678
	Good	46	3.08	.60	
Cognitive	Moderate	15	3.58	.59	.071
	Good	45	3.84	.43	
Compensative	Moderate	15	3.49	.53	.183
	Good	45	3.71	.56	
Metacognitive	Moderate	14	3.62	.68	.056
	Good	44	3.97	.54	
Affective	Moderate	14	3.12	.56	.915
	Good	44	3.14	.66	
Social	Moderate	12	3.35	.53	.062
	Good	44	3.70	.57	

From Table 4, it can be seen that different groups of participants showed different mean scores in using each category of the LLS. The mean score of the participants with higher proficiency was higher than those of the participants with

lower proficiency. However, from the result of the independent samples t-test, the differences were not significant.

The significance (2-tailed) value was referred to determine whether the differences in the LLS use were significant or not. In all strategy categories, the statistical analysis showed $p > 0.05$. The strategies with the highest value of p were affective strategies and memory strategies ($p = .915$ and $p = .678$). In other words, the good use and the moderate user groups showed a slight difference in the use of those strategies. Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, showed the lowest p -value among all strategies. Despite $p > 0.05$, metacognitive strategies showed the biggest gap between proficiency levels in this study ($M = 3.97$ for the good user group, and $M = 3.62$ for the moderate user group).

This finding is slightly similar to [Alfian's \(2018\)](#) finding which suggested similar LLS use among the participants regardless of their proficiency levels difference. Meanwhile, [Yunianika \(2018\)](#) found that learners in the category with the highest proficiency, very good users, employed social strategy the most ($M = 4.5$) compared to the other three categories whose mean scores were below 4. However, the use of metacognitive strategy was also noticeably high in good and moderate user categories with $M = 4.19$ and $M = 4.24$, respectively ([Yunianika, 2018](#)). According to several scholars ([Alfian, 2018](#); [Green & Oxford, 1995](#); [Griffiths, 2018](#); [Hong-Nam & Leavel, 2006](#); [O'Malley & Chamot, 1990](#); [Zhang, 2010](#)), higher use of metacognitive strategies has been associated with highly proficient learners. Therefore, they argued for the importance of applying a higher use of metacognitive strategies while using the other strategies in learning a language.

According to several scholars in the LLS area, there are several speculations why insignificant differences in the LLS use among learners with different levels of language proficiency could be found ([Cohen, 1998](#); [Lai, 2009](#)). First, it could be due to the ability of more successful learners to complete tasks by selecting fewer appropriate LLS instead of using all strategies while less successful learners show a tendency in trying different LLS which leads to higher use of various types of LLS ([Cohen, 1998](#)). Second, how LLS improves learners' language proficiency does not always depend on the total number and the frequency of LLS use ([Lai, 2009](#)). Effective use of LLS could work better for language learners ([Lai, 2009](#)). In addition, this study merely had two proficiency levels whose intervals were short. They were moderate users whose scores ranged from 3.5-6, and good users whose scores ranged from 6.5-9. For example, some participants who fell into the first group might score 6 while some of the second group might score 6.5. It means that their proficiency level was not significantly distinct, therefore, their LLS use could be insignificantly different as well.

In brief, the LLS used by Indonesian learners in IELTS has been identified in this study. The discussion on the use of the LLS category and several specific items in each category and how they are relevant to enhance learning English for IELTS has been presented as well. Participants' LLS preference based on their proficiency has been shown. Compared to the similar previous study, similarities and differences can be seen. It is interesting to learn that investigating the difference in LLS use with the variable of participants' proficiency level may be influenced by the proficiency categories created in the study. In the proficiency categories, there is an IELTS score interval that must be considered. Through this study, the reliability of the instrument was tested and proven statistically high.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This study has investigated Indonesian learners' LLS use in learning for IELTS and differences in the LLS used based on their proficiency. Based on the findings, the following conclusions were drawn. Firstly, the participants used all categories of LLS. Metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used strategies among all six categories, followed by cognitive, compensative, social, affective, and memory strategies. High use of metacognitive strategies suggested that the participants had the awareness that it is important to manage their learning. Secondly, it was found that the participants with higher proficiency used LLS more frequently than those with lower proficiency although the difference was not significant. Both groups used the LLS at a high range of frequency with a minor gap in their overall mean scores.

There were several limitations found in this study. First, the size of this study sample was small compared to other quantitative studies in the LLS research area. Besides, having only two groups of proficiency level restricted possible various responses. Thus, using a bigger sample and determining more categories would probably provide more various proficiency levels as well which could result in more varied responses. As for the short interval between categories, for example, scores 6 and 6.5, it can be controlled by having a distinct difference in intervals and starting each category with the score in the border. Second, the author was given feedback that there were too many items in the instruments which could make participants hesitate to finish all the items. This feedback was relevant as there were several responses which were not completed to the end part of the instrument. This situation should be considered by other researchers who intend to conduct a study using the SILL through an online survey. As for future research in LLS, studying the LLS use based on other variables such as social-economic status (SES), educational background, and purpose of learning would be worth investigating to gain richer findings in LLS literature. Further, an investigation on relationships among strategy categories would be interesting as well.

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Am I Getting My Point Across? Microstructure of English Classroom Discourses by Acehese Teachers

Meta Keumala^{1,2}
Dohra Fitriisia*¹
Iskandar Abdul Samad¹
Sofyan Abdul Gani¹

¹Department of English Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,
Universitas Syiah Kuala, Banda Aceh 23111, INDONESIA

²Insan Qurani Islamic Boarding School, Aceh Besar 23363, INDONESIA

Abstract

For English teaching practice, productive talks that spur students' comprehension, creativity, and problem-solving ability are vital. This research aimed at finding out the spoken discourse based on six phases of microstructure in English classrooms. The data were obtained recordings and observations of two English teachers, chosen through purposive sampling, from Islamic senior high schools in Aceh. The data were concerned with the lexical density or the ratio of content to grammatical or function words within a clause. They were analyzed through thematic analysis which consists of five steps: data familiarization, code generation, theme search, themes revision, and theme definition. It was found that the total lexical density obtained by the first teacher in Class A was 63.66% and in class, B was 66.52%, while the second teacher in Class A was 71.74% and in Class B was 68.12%. The second teacher 2 in Class A had a higher lexical density than the first teacher even though both of them are considered to produce a high lexical density of around 60-70%. The formality of spoken discourse of the two teachers shows that the first teacher produced 172.5 while the second teacher produced 184. It means that the second teacher's spoken discourse was more formal than the first teacher's discourse. To analyze the utterances of teachers and to find the density of language used in the classrooms during the teaching and

* Corresponding author, email: dohra_fitrisia@unsyiah.ac.id

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learning process is important because they implicitly inform whether the language used is understandable for the students or not.

Keywords: Classroom spoken discourse, critical discourse analysis (CDA), microstructure, non-native English teachers.

1. INTRODUCTION

Classroom discourse is a crucial way of establishing linguistic awareness and understanding the meaning of language—in this case, English—in the classroom. The idea is that students need frequent and consistent opportunities to catch up on important materials during teacher talks in the classroom. For English teaching practice, it is important to deliberate productive talks that spur students' comprehension, creativity, and problem-solving ability. When the materials are delivered in a well-organized structure, teachers can boost the possibility of their understandings (Garton, 2012).

Teacher talk refers to how language teachers approach language students in ways that vary from how they address other types of students in the classroom (Ellis, 1985). They acclimate to both the structure and the work of the language to promote communication. Teachers play an important role in teaching and learning classrooms as language input providers and language models to be imitated by students, similar to classroom interaction. As far as acquisition, teacher talk is essential since it is most likely the significant wellspring of fathomable target language feedback the student is probably going to get. The sum and sort of teacher talk is even viewed as a definitive factor of progress or disappointment in classroom instruction (Ur, 2000).

While the complete frameworks of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) are often perplexing, activities that incorporate CDA components have been recommended for use in language classrooms to develop basic language awareness (Cots, 2006; Wharton, 2011). Until this point in time, notwithstanding, there has been generally little research directed into the adequacy of these CDA-based exercises in bringing Critical Language Awareness (CLA) up in English Foreign Language (EFL) students. According to Jorgensen and Phillips (2002), discourse analysis refers to the general idea that language is structured based on different patterns that people use in different areas of social life. Discourses are contexts that are broader than sentences, and teacher talks can also be classified as discourses.

Discourse analysis has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline that finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences affecting language in use. It is also now, increasingly, forming a backdrop to research in applied linguistics, and second language learning and teaching in particular (McCarthy, 1992). Learners must master not only new vocabulary, syntactic patterns, and phonology, but also discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and interactional competence. They require opportunities to examine language's systematicity at all linguistic levels, particularly at the highest level (Riggenbach, 1999; Young & He, 1998).

One problem for second language learners is limited understanding with a variety of interaction techniques in the target language (Demo, 2001). As a result, one

of the objectives of second language instruction is to expose students to various discourse patterns in various texts and interactions. Allowing students to study language, or making them discourse analysts, is one way for teachers to incorporate discourse studies into the second language classroom (Johnson, 1995). Learners get a better awareness and comprehension of the discourse patterns associated with a certain genre or speech event, as well as the sociolinguistic elements that contribute to linguistic variance across settings and situations, through experiencing natural language use in authentic settings (Hatch, 1992).

The problem that can be spotted in the material explanation of English classes in high schools is the current classroom discourses. Halliday (1985) states that there is a strong relationship between discourse and language learning. From the researchers' experience and preliminary observation, teachers do not follow any sequential rules in delivering the materials. To some extent, this condition has an impact on students' comprehension and achievement in English subjects. Cazden (2001) supports that nowadays, most teachers still use non-traditional classroom discourse where there is no structure to follow in classroom talks. Skidmore (2000) further adds that in this classroom discourse, teachers, seen as someone who knows and possesses the truth, dominates the class, while the students are those who are ignorant and in error. Therefore, what teachers say to students and how they say it is important to be further analyzed in the micro and macro level of analysis.

There are some previous studies related to CDA. First, in the context of EFL, an analysis was done by Nesia and Ginting (2014) who focus on finding the lexical items formed in reading texts of the 'Look Ahead' textbook and the type of genre that has the highest lexical density in the reading texts. The results reveal that the lexical density of explanation texts is 58,42% and 52,05%, review texts are 55,73% and 53,51%, narrative texts are 48,96% and 43,97%, and discussion texts are 47,79% and 42,57%. The highest lexical density of the reading texts is the explanation text with a percentage of 58.42%. This meant that explanation text is the most difficult text to be comprehended in the textbook.

Outside the educational context, CDA explores the internal meaning of the Indonesian anthem from the CDA perspectives in which it uses the stages of Fairclough's (1989) Critical Discourse Analysis framework (1989). The study, carried out by Surjowati (2021), includes the microanalysis concerning lexical features in the text, meso analysis concerning the process production and interpretation of the text, and macro analysis concerning ideological effects and hegemonic processes in discourse. This study analyzed the attitude system of appraisal where the results showed that from the affect viewpoint, the Indonesian anthem composer is seen as an educated young man who witnessed people suffer and did not only express his feeling of joy with the coming independence of Indonesia and the gratefulness, but also the insecurity and anxiety with the possibility of other forms of colonialism.

Hanafiah and Yusuf (2016) construed the lexical density (LD) and the grammatical intricacy (GI) in linguistic thesis abstracts written by undergraduate English department students. This study proves that the average score of GI and LD successively is 1.84 and the LD index is 0.57. Those abstracts are characterized as written language because of having a high degree of LD index which is more than 0.4 and the use of simple language represented by a low degree of GI index.

The 'microstructures' refer to minor structures within a type of material. Glowalla and Colonus (1982) describe microstructure as the study of individual

sentences and the relationships between sentences and words. What is measured in terms of microstructure analysis is the lexical density of a clause or sentence. Lexical density is the complexity that develops when a person speaks or writes as the sentences develop (Halliday, 2004). As proposed by Ur (2000), lexical density is the number of specific running words. The following example provides a brief illustration of the conceptual development of lexical density:

The Trust has offered advice to local government authorities on cemetery conservation (Halliday, 1985, p. 61).

There are eight lexical items in this sentence that are printed in bold. And four items are not printed in bold. This means that there is a proportion of eight lexical items out of twelve items in total, and using Ur's (2000) original method, the lexical density would be 67% or 0.67; which is the result of eight divided by twelve.

Therefore, analyzing the utterances by classifying the phrasing, formality, and verbal tense to decide the density of language used by the teacher in the classrooms during the teaching and learning process is important. Concentration on dissecting the sort of language can be enlightening, powerful, or promotional, depending on the text genres (O'Hair et al., 2004). The verbal composition (i.e., the genre of language, contemplating the motivation behind each utterance produced by the teachers) is determined after classifying it according to its tense, aspect, modality, and voice (Downing, 2014). Hence, the researchers focused on the microstructure analysis of morphological and lexical density analysis, which is the sentences uttered by teachers in the classrooms and whether they were understandable for the students. The research question to be answered is, 'what are the microstructures employed by English teachers in their classrooms?' Studies that investigate the teacher discourse during teaching are still limited, especially in Aceh, Indonesia. Thus, the researchers carried out this study in order to find out the microstructures of the classroom spoken discourse in relation to English language teaching performance.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Microstructure points to the local meaning of the discourse, by observing the semantics, syntactic, stylistic, and rhetoric aspects. The use of words, proposition, and certain rhetoric in media is understood by van Dijk (1989) as part of the writer's strategy. The use of certain words, sentences, and stylistic is not only viewed as the way of communication but also as a method of communication politic to influence common premise, create the backing, strengthen legitimate, and evacuate the adversary or the opponent (Rosidi, 2007). Furthermore, the microstructure is an effective way to observe the next rhetorical and persuasive process when someone conveys the order (van Dijk, 1989). Certain words perhaps are chosen to clarify the choice and posture. The microstructure is divided into four aspects, those are, semantic, syntactical, stylistic, and rhetoric aspects.

Casan-Pitarch (2017) exposes that there are seven divisions of microstructures. To begin with, language typology as stated by Schneider and Barron (2014), can be classified into a different narrative, descriptive, directive, expository, and argumentative categories. The first item of microstructure analysis focuses on the

study of types of language. Second, the analysis of morphology includes the quantification of the different word categories into percentages: nouns, determiners, adjectives, prepositions, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, and interjections. By this analysis, the most common word composition of a genre can be explained (Casan-Pitarch, 2017). Third, the morphological formality divides words into two broad categories in this analysis (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999). Fourth, is the terminology of microstructures analysis. It focuses on showing the relevance of certain words in the text, and consequently, their presence should be more or less obligatory. Fifth is the verbal analysis which concerns the verbal components of the genre. Sixth, the analysis of personal pronouns focuses on the use of personal pronouns. Last, the analysis of syntax focuses on the classification of the clauses into simple, compound, or compound-complex.

Referring to this theory, the researchers limit this microstructure analysis research to morphological analysis and lexical density. The morphological analysis of this research calculates the total of content and function words in teachers' spoken discourse in order to see the formality of the utterances. Meanwhile, the lexical density analysis seeks the dense of the utterances. In brief, the review of the references is discussed in the next sub-sections.

2.1 Morphological Analysis

The microstructure concerns the morphological structure produced by the teachers in the classroom. Morphology is characterized as the words in a language (Shore et al., 2013). This examination includes the evaluation of the diverse word classifications into rates: things, determiners, modifiers, relational words, action words, pronouns, qualifiers, conjunctions, and interpositions. With this investigation, the most well-known word arrangement of a class can be clarified. The utilization of certain word classifications is more typical than others. Subsequently, it appears that this investigation is important to clarify the genre of a sort.

Everyone can tell the difference between formal and casual ways of expressing themselves. In a relaxing conversation among close friends or family members, normal-informal speech might be created. However, a precise and broad definition of 'formality' is not readily apparent (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999). Nouns, adjectives, prepositions, and articles belong to the formal, non-deictic category of words, whose frequency is predicted to rise with the formality of a text. Pronouns, verbs, adverbs, and interjections fall within the deictic category, which is projected to decrease in frequency as speech styles become more formal. There is no pre-existing relationship between formality and the remaining category of conjunctions.

To decide the degree of level of formality of a certain text, the equation displayed below by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) is typically used.

$$F = \frac{(\text{noun freq.} + \text{adjective freq.} + \text{preposition freq.} + \text{article freq.} - \text{pronoun freq.} - \text{verb freq.} - \text{adverb freq.} - \text{interjection freq.} + 100)}{2}$$

Figure 1. The formula to analyze Formality.

Figure 1 displays the formula for analyzing the level of formality used in a verbal composition. When the formal category frequencies are added, the deictic category frequencies are removed and normalized to 100, a measure that will always grow as formality increases is obtained. As a result, the formula in Figure 1 is used.

The frequencies are represented as a percentage of the total number of words in the excerpt divided by the total number of words in the excerpt. The value of “F” will then fluctuate between 0 and 100 percent (but has never reached these limits). The higher the value of F, the more formal the language extract is anticipated to be. Although the subclasses (nouns, verbs, etc.) are mentioned above, the formula can be made more comprehensive by simply enabling or disabling whichever words appear to be more formal and whichever words appear to be more deictic. This is useful in cases where the above grammatical categorizations are uncertain or data is unavailable, such as when the number of nouns is known but the number of articles or interjections is unknown (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999).

The ability of a second language classroom to enhance learners’ communicative skills in the target language is limited, even with the most communicative approaches. This is due to a limited number of language contact hours, limited opportunities to connect with native speakers, and limited exposure to a variety of functions, and limited exposure to the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that occur outside the classroom.

2.2 Lexical Density Analysis

Lexical density is a term that is used in text analysis. Thornbury and Slade (2006) state that lexical density is a measure of the ratio of the text’s content words to its function words. It is different from Johansson (2008), in which he states that lexical density is the term that is most often used for describing the proportion of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) to the total number of words. Moreover, Halliday (1985) gives a more detailed explanation of lexical density. He defines lexical density as the number of lexical items, as the proportion of the number of running words. Halliday refers to using lexical items than a lexical word because they may consist of more than one word, for example ‘stand up’, ‘take over’, ‘call off’, and other phrasal verbs that function as single lexical items. A text with a high proportion of lexical items or content words has high information than a text with a high proportion of function words (prepositions, interjections, pronouns, conjunctions and count words).

In other words, Rahmansyah (2012) states that the higher the lexical density of a text is, the more information there is and the more difficult it is for readers to understand. If the text has more grammatical items than the lexical items, the text is categorized as having a lower lexical density. On the contrary, if the text has more lexical items than the grammatical items, the text is categorized as the high lexical density. Moreover, Sholichatun (2011) notes that a high lexical density measures of around 60–70%, a medium lexical density measures of around 50-60%, and a lower lexical density measure of around 40-50%. Lexical density is calculated by dividing the number of content words by the number of words. The lexical density measures the density of information in any passage of text, according to how tightly the lexical items (content word) have been packed into the grammatical structure.

Furthermore, lexical items or content words are those which contain the main semantic information in a text, and they are fallen into the four main lexical word classes: noun, verb, adjective, and adverb (Jeffries, 2006). According to Thornbury and Slade (2006), content words are words that carry a high information load such as nouns, adjectives, lexical verbs, and some adverbs. Moreover, Halliday (1985) defines lexical items as part of an open system rather than a closed set because it is possible to new items can be added. In conclusion, lexical items or content words are parts that carry high information in text and are called open classes in which new words can be added.

3. METHODS

In this study, the researchers used discourse analysis which analyzes the spoken discourses made by English teachers in Aceh, Indonesia. The subjects of this research were chosen by purposive sampling. The participants of this study are two English teachers from Islamic senior high schools in Aceh Besar, Oemardiyah Islamic Senior High School, and Al-Falah Abu Lam U Islamic Senior High School. Only one teacher of each school could participate in this study because they met the criteria of: (1) the teacher has been teaching for at least two years; (2) the teacher teaches high-school students; and (3) the teacher is an English teacher.

The source of the data in this study is the spoken discourse produced by the teachers during teaching. The data were audio-visually recorded using the camera Canon EOS 600D, for two meetings for each teacher. The recordings were further transcribed for data analysis. The teachers were coded as School I/Teacher I (T1) for Oemardiyah Islamic Senior High School and School II/Teacher II (T2) for Al-Falah Abu Lam U Islamic Senior High School. The data were also collected through observations on the classroom situations during the teachers students interactions by focusing specifically on the teachers' spoken discourses.

The techniques used in analyzing the data were thematic analysis and interactive analysis. The microstructure data were analyzed through thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006). The transcript of spoken discourse produced by English teachers was familiarized, then generated. After the code generation process, the researchers searched for related themes.

4. RESULTS

The microstructure in this research concerns the lexical density, the ratio of content words (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs), to grammatical or function words (e.g., pronouns, prepositions, articles) within a clause. The results for each of these concerns are explained in the next sub-sections.

4.1 Lexical Items

Knowing the number of lexical items is one of the important processes in microstructure analysis in order to obtain the amount of lexical density contained in the spoken discourse produced by the teachers. The researchers first counted and

analyzed the lexical items in the transcript. The transcript was separated into two schools, School I and School II. Each school was then divided into two classes, Class A (CA) and Class B (CB).

Table 1. Types of lexical items (content words) in the spoken discourse.

School/meeting		Types of lexical items (content words)				Total
		Noun (%)	Adjective (%)	Verb (%)	Adverb (%)	
I	CA (%)	386 (39.91%)	128 (13.23%)	235 (24.30%)	218 (22.54%)	967
	CB (%)	397 (35.35%)	167 (14.87%)	317 (28.22%)	242 (21.54%)	1123
	CA+CB (%)	783 (37.46%)	295 (14.11%)	552 (26.41%)	460 (22%)	2090
II	CA (%)	176 (38.93%)	48 (10.61%)	126 (27.87%)	102 (22.56%)	452
	CB (%)	278 (41.55%)	132 (19.73%)	153 (22.86%)	106 (15.84%)	669
	CA+CB (%)	454 (40.49%)	180 (16.05%)	279 (24.88%)	208 (18.55%)	1121

Table 1 shows that T1's classrooms, specifically in Class A (CA), there were 386 nouns (39.91%), 128 adjectives (13.23%), 235 verbs (24.30%) and 219 adverbs (22.54%). Meanwhile, in Class B (CB), there were 397 nouns (35.35%), 167 adjectives (14.87%), 317 verbs (28.22%), and 242 adverbs (21.5%). The number of values obtained for both classes are 783 nouns (37.46%), 295 adjectives (14.11%), 552 verbs (26.41%), and 460 adverbs (22%).

In T2's classrooms, it was found in Class A (CA) that there were 176 nouns (38.931%), 48 adjectives (10.61%), 126 verbs (27.87%) and 102 adverbs (22.56%). In Class B (CB), there were 278 nouns (41.55%), 132 adjectives (19.73%), 153 verbs (22.86%), and 106 adverbs (15.84%). The number of values obtained for both classes are 454 nouns (40.49%), 180 adjectives (16.05%), 279 verbs (24.88%), and 208 adverbs (18.55%).

4.2 Grammatical Items

Other data calculated in the microstructure are grammatical items produced by both teachers. The calculation and classification methods applied were similar to the previous lexical items' calculations. Items that enter the calculation include auxiliary verbs (aux.), pronouns (pron.), preposition (prep.), determiners (det.), conjunctions (conj.), adverbs interrogative (adv. int.), and interjections (interj.).

Table 2. The classification of grammatical items in the spoken discourse.

School /Meeting		Types of grammatical items (function words)						Total	
		Aux. (%)	Pron. (%)	Prep. (%)	Det. (%)	Conj. (%)	Adv. Int. (%)		Interj. (%)
I	CA (%)	90 16.30	72 13.04	129 23.36	85 15.39	144 26.08	17 3.07	15 2.71	552
	CB (%)	90 (15.92%)	107 (18.93%)	127 (22.47%)	42 (7.43%)	179 (31.68%)	10 (17.6%)	10 (17.6%)	565
	CA+CB (%)	180 (16.11%)	179 (16.02%)	256 (22.9%)	127 (11.36%)	323 (28.91%)	27 (2.41%)	25 (2.23%)	1117
II	CA	22	23	42	34	36	16	5	178

(%)	(12.35%)	(12.92%)	(23.59%)	(19.10%)	(20.22%)	(8.98%)	(2.80%)	
CB	32	40	83	51	48	38	21	313
(%)	(10.22%)	(12.77%)	(26.51%)	(16.29%)	(25.5%)	(12.14%)	(6.70%)	
CA	54	63	125	85	84	54	26	491
+CB	(10.99%)	(12.83%)	(25.45%)	(17.3%)	(17.10%)	(10.99%)	(5.29%)	
(%)								

Table 2 shows that for T1 in School I, specifically in CA phase, the grammatical items (function words) produced were 90 auxiliaries (16.30%), 72 pronouns (13.04%), 129 prepositions (23.36%), 85 determiners (15.39%), 144 conjunctions (26.08%), 17 adverbs interrogative (3.07%) and 15 interjections (2.71%). In CB, there were 90 auxiliaries (15.92%), 07 pronouns 1 (18.93%), 127 prepositions (22.47%), 42 determiners (7.43%), 179 conjunctions (31.68%), 10 adverbs interrogative (1.76%) and 10 interjections (1.76%). The total of each item in both classes were 180 auxiliaries (16.11%), 179 pronouns (16.02%), 256 prepositions (22.9%), 127 determiners (11.36%), 27 adverbs interrogative (2.41%), and 25 interjections (2.23%).

In T2's classes, it was found that the grammatical items (function words) produced in CA were 22 auxiliaries (12.35%), 23 pronouns (12.92%), 42 prepositions (23.59%), 34 determiners (19.10%), 36 conjunctions (20.22%), 16 adverbs interrogative (8.98%) and 5 interjections (2.80%). In CB, there were 32 auxiliaries (10.22%), 40 pronouns (12.77%), 83 prepositions (26.51%), 51 determiners (16.29%), 48 conjunctions (2.55%), 38 adverbs interrogative (12.14%) and 21 interjections (6.70%). The total of each item in both classes are 54 auxiliaries (10.99%), 63 pronouns (12.83%), 125 prepositions (25.45%), 85 determiners (17.3%), 84 conjunctions (17.10%), 54 adverb interrogatives (10.99%) and 26 interjections (5.29%).

4.3 Lexical Density

After obtaining the total lexical items, the researchers then calculated the percentage of lexical density from the teachers' utterances in two schools and two different classrooms. The percentage of results from applying the formula can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. The percentage of lexical density.

Lexical density characteristics					
	Teacher 1		Teacher 2		AV
	C A	C B	C A	C B	
Total content words	967	1123	452	669	
Total words	1519	1688	630	982	
Total lexical density (%)	63.66%	66.52%	71.74%	68.12%	67.51%

It can be seen in Table 3 that the total content of T1's Class A and Class B were 967 and 1123. Meanwhile, the total words of Class A were 1519, and Class B with 1688. These results obtained a percentage of the lexical density of 63.66% in Class A and 66.52 % in Class B. Furthermore, in T2's Class A and B, she produced 452 and 669 content words, and the total words produced were 630 in Class A and 982 in Class B. So, the total lexical density of T2 in Class A was 71.74% (high lexical density), and in-Class B, it was 68.12% (medium lexical density).

To exemplify the findings, the following transcripts from the audio-video recordings during the observations are displayed to provide samples of the lexical density calculations.

- (1) As usual, before we start our lesson, I will check your attendance list first.
(Transcript Code SP/T1/CA)

The utterance in (1) is produced by T1 which consists of 7 content words from 14 words with the lexical density of 20% (0.2). It was a simple sentence to begin the lesson. The teacher used the modal 'will' to express what she planned the students to do that day.

Next, in the content phase, T1 tried to review the lesson by expressing two clauses, present perfect tense, and simple present tense. The example in (2) shows 5 content words out of 13 words with a total lexical density of 38% (0.38).

- (2) As we have discussed yesterday, explanation text is about social, natural, political phenomenon.
(Transcript Code CP/T1/CA)

The example in (2) shows the verbal group which is the constituent that functions as finite plus predicator (or as predicator alone if there is no finite element) in the mood structure (clause as an exchange), and as a process in the transitivity structure (clause as representation). On the contrary, T2 in Class B tended to produce short sentences when she explained and commanded her students. The following transcript, to lead, has three simple sentences produced at one time. The example in (3) has 13 content words out of 24 words with a lexical density of 54% or 0.54.

- (3) There is a text about Malin Kundang. You have to read the paragraphs carefully. I give you 10 minutes to read the text, ya.
(Transcript Code: CP/T2/CB)

In the interaction phase of (3), T2 actively involved students in the learning process through questions and answers and instruction. For example, T1 asked a question to discuss the contents of the text attached in the book, as shown in (4).

- (4) If it has erupted, so what will it be?
Ya, dia akan solidify dan membentuk batu sehingga menjadi pegunungan yang kita temukan saat ini.
[Tr: Yes, it will solidify and form rock so it becomes volcanoes that we see Today.]
(Transcript Code: IP/T1/CA)

In (4), the question asked by T1 is a conditional clause. The lexical items are 4 out of 9 words with a lexical density of 40% or 0.4. This is an interrogative clause asking cause and effect. While in the next sentence, there are also two clauses in the Indonesian language and an English word 'solidify' that seems to be one of the words that the students must memorize. The mixture of Indonesian and English languages is also found on many other occasions. The main purpose is as communicative strategies for the teacher to make sure that the students understand the lesson. The lexical density of this stage has the greatest amount compared to the other five phases. The ratio of lexical items found in structural items in the exemplification, evaluation, and

conclusion phases sentences, are more or less the same as the previous phases. The examples are provided as follows:

- (5) *Kalau di dalam teks, yang mana orientation teks tersebut? Dari mana? Sampai mana? Tolong kalian lihat.*
 [Tr: If the one in the text, which one is the orientation part? From where? Until? Please take a look.]
 (Transcript Code: EP/T2/CB)
- (6) Back to the performance, you have to make an opening, for example, Assalamu'alaikum, good morning, everyone. Today, I am going to explain to you about an example of explanation text. Mention the title.
 (Transcript Code: EP/T1/CA)
- (7) Now, answer the questions below the texts. I give you 15 minutes. I divide you into groups. I appoint you with a number. Remember your own number.
 (Transcript Code: EvP/T2/CB)
- (8) I will conclude the lesson, we have learned about explanation text, the examples as explained by you in your performances.
 (Transcript Code: CoP/T1/CA)

In data (5), the Indonesian sentence stated by T2 has 5 content words out of 16 words. The students were guided to see the examples in the textbook. She asked simple questions and gave them instructions to look at the text carefully. Data (6) is one of the utterances produced by T1 in the exemplification phase process. In one part of the process of interaction between teacher and students, in three sentences there was a total of 14 content words out of 32 words. This example shows that lexical items with not many content words can make it easier for students to understand the teacher's explanation. The same case is also seen in data (7) and (8).

4.4 Morphological Formality

Morphological formality is counted in order to know the formality of language produced by the teachers in their spoken discourses. Earlier, Figure 1 has shown the equation used to decide the degree of formality level of a certain text. It is the guidance for the researchers to measure the formality of spoken discourses of the two teachers, calculated based on the frequency of noun, adjective, preposition, article, pronoun, verb, adverb, and interjection. From the results of the equation, it shows that T1 produced 172.5 while T2 produced 184.

Teacher I:

$$F = \frac{783 + 295 + 256 + 127 - 179 - 552 - 460 - 25 + 100}{2} = \frac{345}{2} = 172,5$$

Teacher II:

$$F = \frac{454 + 180 + 125 + 85 - 63 - 279 - 208 - 26 + 100}{2} = \frac{368}{2} = 184$$

From the results of the equation, the morphological value of formality from T2 is higher than T1. The difference occurs because the number of frequencies of each lexical and grammatical item from each teacher is not equal.

5. DISCUSSION

As previously detailed in the results section, it was found that lexical and grammatical items have different amounts for each teacher in every meeting. After examining the data, the researchers found that T1 produced a higher total of lexical and grammatical items than T2. Thus, T1, for example in Class A, tended to produce fewer spoken discourses, 63.66% compared to Class B at 66.52%. This happens because, in Class B, students needed more explanation compared to the previous class. Likewise, T2 also had fewer total spoken discourses than T1. For T2, it was found that in Class A there was a value of 71.74%, greater than Class B with 68.12%. The acquisition of lexical items affected the percentage value lexical density and average value. In brief, T1 has a lower lexical density value than T2, as well as its morphological formality value.

[Saragih \(2006\)](#) explains that lexical density describes the number of content words (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb) per clause. Then, the lexical density of a text can be calculated by expressing the number of contents carrying words in a text/sentence as a proportion of all the words in the text/sentence ([Eggins, 1994](#)). To add, [Halliday \(1985\)](#) considers that the use of the conditional clause is as the interpersonal metaphorical of mood in the form of declarative sentence proposing an indirect command. It is the same as the T2 who also used the same modal verb but in the past form 'would'. A verbal group is the expansion of a verb, in the same way, that a nominal group is the expansion of a noun, and it consists of a sequence of words of the primary class of verb. He further notes that, with a material process, on the other hand, the present-n-present has become the norm, and the simple present has a noticeably 'habitual' sense, as in the examples given earlier. Treating the tenses as a simple list also suggests that there is a clear-cut distinction between those tenses that exist and others that do not.

[Thomson and Martinet \(1995\)](#) say that a conditional sentence has two parts, the 'if'-clause and the main clause. They also state that a conditional sentence has three kinds or types, in which each kind contains a different pair of tenses in some variations. Just as [Azar \(2002\)](#) says that a conditional sentence consists of an 'if' clause (present condition) and a result clause.

According to [Moattarian and Tahririan \(2013\)](#), the ways which help people to solve communication problem is called communication strategies. [Maldonado \(2015\)](#) states that five factors affect the use of language as communication strategies, such as students' proficiency level, the situational context, source of communication difficulty, students' personality, and students' closeness of the language. By mixing some words in two different languages, the teachers' expectation of the students' comprehension is achieved.

Another study on microsystemic organization of phonological system by [Oh \(2015\)](#) shows that the general cross-language tendencies and language-specificities of the organization of phonological subsystems among nine languages, within the complex systems framework in which language is defined as a complex adaptive

system adjusting itself to its environments by means of self-organization. The results confirm the following two hypotheses that (i) consonants play a more important role in lexical access than vowels and that (ii) only a few phoneme contrasts play an important role in lexical access due to cognitive efficiency and robustness in speech communication, regardless language-specific differences.

Results of the studies conducted in microstructure analysis (Oh, 2015; Rao et al., 2017) did not show significant differences between morphological formality and lexical density in the classroom spoken discourse. On the other hand, in the current study, a significant difference was found between the spoken discourse of two teachers in two different schools. This reflects the effect of lexical density of the teachers which impacts the students' understanding. In Indonesia, Aceh particularly, the teachers' spoken discourse plays a vital role in the teaching and learning process. This condition, in fact, has contributed to the difference in results of the research to the previous studies.

After presenting the findings, the researchers give some suggestions for improvement of the quality of teaching and learning in EFL classrooms. First, teachers should make sure that their utterances are understandable for the students. It is needed for the teachers to mix the native and target language to gain a better comprehension of the lessons by the students. The teachers should also use correct grammar. This is an essential point of learning a language. Finally, the teachers should follow the sequence of processes in teaching the English language as written in their lesson plans to ensure that the goals of learning are achieved at the end of the lessons.

6. CONCLUSION

The results of lexical and grammatical items calculations show that T1 produced them more than T2. In T1's classrooms, the number of values obtained were 783 nouns (37.46%), 295 adjectives (14.11%), 552 verbs (26.41%), 460 adverbs (22%), 180 auxiliaries (16.11%), 179 pronouns (16.02%), 256 prepositions (22.9%), 127 determiners (11.36%), 27 adverbs interrogative (2.41%) and 25 interjections (2.23%). In T2's classrooms, it was found that the numbers of values obtained for both classes were 454 nouns (40.49%), 180 adjectives (16.05%), 279 verbs (24.88%), 208 adverbs (18.55%), 54 auxiliaries (10.99%), 63 pronouns (12.83%), 125 prepositions (25.45%), 85 determiners (17.3%), 84 conjunctions (17, 10%), 54 adverbs interrogative (10.99%) and 26 interjections (5.29%).

Furthermore, the total lexical density obtained by T1 in Class A was 63.66% and 66.52% in Class B, while T2 in Class A was 71.74% with 68.12% in Class B. This means that T2 had a higher lexical density than T1 even though both of them are considered to produce high lexical density (i.e., 60-70%). To calculate the formality of spoken discourse of the two teachers, the researcher looked at the frequency of nouns, adjectives, prepositions, articles, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, and interjections where T1 produced 172.5 while T2 produced 184, indicating that T2's spoken discourse was more formal than T1.

Even though this study has answered the research question, its limitation is apparent due to the time constraint in conducting the research. Therefore, future related researches are expected to gain more data from more EFL teachers and with more

classes to observe to reinforce and better comprehend the results achieved from this present study.

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Analysing Authorial Identity Construction in the Review Article Genre in Applied Linguistics

Ali Sorayyaei Azar^{*1}
Azirah Hashim²

¹Department of Education, School of Education and Social Sciences, Management & Science University, Shah Alam 40100, MALAYSIA

²Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur 50603, MALAYSIA

Abstract

Authorial identity construction is one of many professional rhetorical strategies employed by authors in academic review genres. Authors usually create a persona to represent themselves, their seniority in the field, and the community to which they belong. The author's visibility is made possible through several rhetorical devices. Perhaps the most remarkable way of such authorial identity construction in the review article genre is self-mentions. The aims of this research are (1) to find out what types of self-mention are frequently used in review articles, (2) to determine the frequency of use and distribution of self-mentions in the review articles, and (3) to investigate the rhetorical function of self-mentions in the different analytical sections of the review articles. The data, drawn from a randomly selected corpus of thirty-two review articles, were analysed using WordSmith Tools Version 6. The findings indicated that first-person plural pronouns were more frequently used than singular pronouns in the whole corpus except in the two review texts. It was also observed that the frequency of occurrence for the exclusive and inclusive pronouns was very close to each other. Most importantly, the inclusive pronouns were used not only as a politeness strategy to appreciate the readers and keep the writers' claims balanced but also as a persuasive tool to seek the readers' agreement in the evaluation of research developments. This study revealed that authors construct various professional personae

* Corresponding author, email: ali_sorayyaei@msu.edu.my

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as a rhetorical strategy to carve their authorial identity and credibility in the review article genre. The findings of this study have pedagogical implications in the field of academic writing in applied linguistics as well as other disciplines.

Keywords: Authorial identity, metadiscourse, review article, rhetorical strategies, genre stance, self-mention markers.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the field of academic discourse analysis has paid increasing attention to authorial identity construction. In the genre of academic reviews, identity construction is one of the key topics of study. Authorial identity construction is one of the main rhetorical strategies that interest genre analysts amongst the different available genres. Through this strategy, authors in research genres, particularly in academic-review genres as one of the sub-branches of research genres (Swales, 2004), try to construct their ‘persona’ (i.e., authorial identity or voice) as a representation of themselves or their works, and to identify the community which they belong. The persona engages the readers with the authors’ argument; in other words, it engages the readers with the propositions the authors argue or evaluate in the research genres, particularly as readers’ engagement often happens in academic review genres. Additionally, authorial identity also serves as a personal signifier that demonstrates their seniority, experience, credibility, and works (Azar & Azirah, 2014, 2019). The visibility of an author’s persona in academic review genres is made possible through several rhetorical strategies, one of which includes explicit self-mention markers, especially ‘first-person pronouns’ (i.e., ‘I,’ ‘we’).

The analysis of a writer’s rhetorical strategies and ‘first-person pronouns’ is a widely researched topic in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). According to Ädel (2022), explicit references to the current writer and/or imagined or actual readers are used to make the writer and/or imagined or actual readers visible. It is typically done with first-person pronouns. There have been plenty of studies conducted since the late 1990s (Ädel, 2022; Bondi, 2012; Chen, 2020; Harwood, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2010, 2011; Ivanič, 1998; Ivanič & Camps, 2001; Khedri, 2016; Khedri & Kritsis, 2020; Molino, 2010; Tang & John, 1999; Vassileva, 1998, 2000; Walková, 2018, 2019; Xia, 2018) that have yielded a great deal of insight into the construction of authorial identities and writer’s visibility.

While these extensive studies have also included the sub-genres of academic reviews such as book reviews (Groom, 2009; Moreno & Suarez, 2008; Motta-Roth, 1995), literature review chapters (Kwan, 2006; Ridley, 2008; Thompson, 2009), and book review articles (Diani, 2009), only a few studies focusing on academic review articles exist (e.g., Grant & Booth, 2009; Myers, 1991; Noguchi, 2006, 2009; Swales, 2004). The corpora of the previous studies did not address the review articles in the field of applied linguistics. The previous studies, for example, Noguchi’s (2006) works, mostly focused on textual analysis of the science review article genre and the move structures of science review articles. Therefore, researching the review article genre in applied linguistics would highlight not only the genre-specific features that

govern this genre but also clarify the authors' rhetorical strategies employed in constructing an authorial identity.

Applied linguistics in review articles was selected as the subject discipline because it is the researchers' area of experience and interest. Another reason is the existing gap in the literature of academic review genres, particularly the review article genre. As stated before, there have been only a few studies addressing the review article genre, and not particularly in the field of applied linguistics. Besides, it should be stated that in the current study, Kaplan's (2002) view about 'Applied Linguistics' and its subfields was followed. He believes that "applied linguistics is too broad, and it can be interpreted as a discipline with a core and a periphery, and the periphery blurs into other disciplines that may or may not want to be allied" (Kaplan, 2002, p. 9).

The main focus of applied linguistics is to find answers to the language-based problems that people may face in the real world. Moreover, applied linguistics typically incorporates other disciplinary knowledge beyond linguistics in its efforts to address language-based problems. This field also includes several other sub-fields of study, including second language acquisition, forensic linguistics, language testing, corpus linguistics, lexicography, and dictionary-making, language translation, and to name a few more. That is why some members of these fields do not consider themselves applied linguists, but their work addresses practical language issues. In sum, applied linguistics has broad coverage in all the social sciences and these are the main reasons why the researchers have limited themselves to the field of applied linguistics.

This study attempts to investigate authors' stance strategies taken in the review article genre. In other words, it is intended not only to analyse the overall frequency of explicit self-mentions used in the corpus but also to study the methods utilized by writers to present themselves and their credibility in the review article genre. According to Hyland (2005b), self-mention and attitude markers, the two major features of metadiscourse, lead to the development of a relationship between authors and readers. Thus, this part of the research was limited to focus on self-mentions in review articles in applied linguistics due to several reasons, which are as follows: (1) to find out which self-mention resources the writers employ in their review article genre, (2) to determine the frequency of use and distribution of self-mentions in the review articles, and (3) to analyse the rhetorical function of self-mentions in the different analytical sections of the review articles. The following research questions are formulated based on the objectives of this research:

1. Which self-mention resources do authors opt for to construct their identity in the review articles in applied linguistics?
2. What is the frequency of use and distribution of self-mentions in the review articles?
3. What rhetorical functions do first-person pronouns fulfil in the review articles?
4. What are their functions in the different analytical sections of the review articles?

In the following section, the theoretical framework of this research and reviews of related literature are described and discussed to indicate how the authors take a stance and construct their authorial identity in the propositions they argue or evaluate in the review article genre.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Framework

The term metadiscourse was first coined by the structural linguist Harris (1959) and later further developed by writers like Kopple (1985) and Crismore (1989). Hyland (2005b, p. 37) expands on their work, claiming that “metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text”. The writer’s involvement here is defined as anticipating the reader’s anticipated reactions, objections, and processing needs. It consists of two parts: (1) an ‘interactive’ component that is used to organise propositional material in a way that a projected target audience will find cohesive and persuasive; and (2) an ‘interactional’ component that focuses on the participants’ interactions and it attempts to reflect the writer’s persona and a tenor that is consistent with the disciplinary community’s standards (Hyland, 2005a).

It is worth noting that the current study focused on interactional metadiscourse, for these resources are at the heart of academic communication as a socio-rhetorical activity that provides authors of research genres a variety of ways to mark their presence, negotiates knowledge claims, and engages their readers. Different scholars have used different terminologies to refer to different components of academic communication interaction: attitude (Hyland, 1994), epistemic modality (Hyland, 1998), appraisal (Martin, 2000), stance (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hyland, 1999), and metadiscourse (Crismore, 1989; Hyland, 1999). Despite the abundance of studies, Hyland’s (2005b) interaction model provides a comprehensive and integrated model for academic argument and engagement. Interactions in academic writing, according to Hyland (2005b), are achieved by selecting choices from interpersonal systems of stance (including attitude markers, hedges, boosters, and self-mention markers) and engagement (including directives, questions, reader pronouns, shared knowledge, and personal asides). Hyland (2005b, p. 178) proposed an overall stance paradigm for academic writing that focused on “writer-oriented features of the interaction and referred 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 to it, or the attitude they want to convey to an entity, a proposition, or the reader”.

The visibility of the authors’ persona is made possible through self-mention markers in the propositions developed by the authors. The term self-mention has been defined as the explicit use of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives by authors in written discourses. Self-mention resources can represent the writers’ presence in academic discourses (Hyland, 2008). These features can be measured by the frequency of first-person pronouns, objective pronouns, and possessive adjectives (e.g., ‘I,’ ‘me,’ ‘my,’ ‘we,’ ‘our,’ ‘us’). As has been highlighted by several experts (Ädel, 2022; Wang & Zeng, 2021), the most visible and prominent presence of authorial identity is the first-person pronoun. All written discourses carry information about the writer, but the convention of personal projection through first-person pronouns is perhaps the most potent means of self-representation (Ivanič, 1998). One of the essential aspects of academic review genres is to present the authors’ interaction and persona. Thus, this significant feature happens through the authors’ involvement, and it can be presented explicitly with self-mention resources through the texts. There

is a range of discursual features to construct this authorial identity. However, the most significant one can appear in the form of self-reference.

This study, following Hyland's (2002a) functional classification for personal pronouns, focuses on the classification of four different discourse functions for the aspect of self-mentions in the review article genre. They are as follows: (1) stating a purpose, (2) explaining a procedure, (3) elaborating an argument, and (4) stating results or claims. Hyland's classification refers to the fact that certain functions contain more powerful authoritativeness (i.e., 'elaborating an argument' and 'stating results or claims') than others (i.e., 'stating a purpose' and 'explaining a procedure'). The writers strategically use an exclusive 'we' to refer to themselves or an inclusive 'we' to refer to themselves, discourse community members, or readers. It is the exclusive 'we' and explicit self-mention resources that this study is concerned with because WordSmith tools cannot spot and identify the implicit features of written texts, being one of the shortcomings of text analysis tools. In the following section, several studies analysing self-mentions in academic genres are reviewed.

2.2 Review of Related Studies

Hyland (2002b) believes that one of the fundamental factors in pragmatic competence is constructing authorial identity and conveying the main message of the research without simply reporting results or taking a stance to persuade their readers. The authors often adopt these communicative social practices and rhetorical features of a community they belong to and take a stance to carve out their different identities based on personal styles and formality. Personal styles and preferences may be considered crucial factors in constructing authorial identities in research genres. According to Ädel (2022, p. 53), "there is the possibility that certain discourse phenomena rely on individual preferences to a relatively large extent, such that in-group variation regarding for instance (im)personal style is also due to individual choice". This identity can be taken as a community member having adjusted their choice of discursual features to be following the values and beliefs of that specific community.

Another contribution in constructing authorial identity refers to Ivanič's (1998) study. Ivanič (1998) classified writers' identities into three aspects, including (1) 'autobiographical self' (the writers bring their life-history in a text to establish a unique territory and claim significance and centrality of their knowledge in that field), (2) 'discursual self' (the writers bring their image or voice in a text), and (3) 'authorial self' (the writers intrude into a text, and they stand in a position of a creator). Although the focus of the current study was on the third aspect of authorial identity, an attempt has been made to find out if the authors of review articles in applied linguistics have tried to take various voices and stand in different positions. Taking various voices and standing in different positions helps the authors to establish their positions. This rhetorical strategy indicates the degree of authoritativeness in their academic genres. Research has shown that writers often choose various stances in their clauses in the form of first-person pronouns (i.e., 'I' and 'we') to indicate that they oversee their claim, to influence the readers with their argument, and include their life history to establish a strong territory, taking over interaction in their texts (Gosden, 1993; Ivanič, 1998). Therefore, the self-mention aspect of stance markers is essential to affirm writers' credibility in their respective academic genres explicitly.

A noteworthy study related to self-mention resources is [Tang and John's \(1999, p. S31- S32\)](#) typology. They have proposed a typology of six different identities behind the first-person pronouns in English. The classification of their typology is as follows: (1) a representative role (e.g. 'as we already know...'), (2) a guide through the text (e.g. 'let us refer to this example...'), (3) an architect of the text (e.g. 'In this research, I will argue...'), (4) a recounter of the research process (e.g. 'I asked the participants to answer the questions...'), (5) an opinion-holder (e.g. 'I disagree with him/ her...') and (6) an originator (e.g. 'one part of the problem here, as I see it, refers to...').


Referring to this study ([Tang & John, 1999](#)), the range of the identities as mentioned varies from the most authoritative author to the least authoritative one. The former author, the most powerful one, holds the role of the originator. This type of writer claims authority and reveals that he/she has the capability to create new ideas. These writers can be identified through exclusive pronouns. The latter author, the least powerful one, holds a representative role. This type of writer does not claim authority nor creates any views or ideas. He/she may introduce himself/herself alongside other researchers and writers. He/she can be recognized through inclusive pronouns.

The use of self-mentions in academic writing of various disciplines was explored by [Hyland \(2001\)](#). He focused on using self-citation and exclusive first-person pronouns in a corpus of 240 published research articles in eight disciplines. The result revealed a greater use of first-person pronouns in soft disciplines. Hyland believes that self-mention plays a crucial role in mediating the relationship between writers' arguments and their discourse communities. It allows writers to create an identity as both a 'disciplinary servant' and 'persuasive originator.' Writers in the hard sciences downplay their roles in the research. In contrast, the higher frequency of personal pronouns in the soft sciences indicates their voice and authorial visibility in texts. He also emphasizes that arguments in soft knowledge domains are different from those of hard science domains due to the nature of these sciences. As [Wang and Zeng \(2021\)](#) contend, the use of first-person pronouns varies based on the discursive rules of each discipline. In a recent study, [Hyland and Jiang \(2018\)](#) found that self-mention pronouns have increased dramatically in sociology, biology, and electrical engineering over the last 50 years but have decreased in applied linguistics.

In another study, [Hyland \(2002a\)](#) has suggested his functional classification for personal pronouns in an academic setting. As discussed above, the current study follows his taxonomy, which suggests classifying four different discourse functions in terms of self-mentions in an academic setting. His classification, like that of [Tang and John \(1999\)](#), refers to the fact that certain functions contain more powerful authoritativeness. All in all, there are different classifications proposed in the literature for self-mention resources. The different classifications have been compared in Table 1 below to highlight their discursal functions.

The four basic identities and functions overlap and share the same functions as self-mention markers, as shown in Table 1. As 'we' descends the continuum from top to bottom, the writer's role changes from least authoritative to most authoritative as 'opinion holder' and 'originator', as identified by exclusive pronouns (such as 'I' and 'we').

Table 1. Identities and functions of self-mention resources.

Identities (Tang and John, 1999)	Functions (Hyland, 2002a)	The least powerful writer
Representative Role e.g., “As we already know...”		
Reader Guide e.g., “Let us see two examples...”		
Architect of the Text e.g., “In this paper, I will discuss...”	Stating { a background or a purpose	
Recounters of the research process e.g., “I administered the questionnaire to two groups...”	Explaining a procedure	
Opinion holder e.g., “I agree with him/ her...”	Elaborating an argument	
Originator e.g., “Part of the problem here, as I see it, is...”	Stating { results or Claims	
		The most powerful writer

Nevertheless, in another study, [Tse and Hyland \(2008\)](#) analyse a corpus of academic book reviews written by male and female writers, along with interviews with academics both from philosophy and biology. They discovered that both genders used interactional metadiscourse features twice as much as interactive markers, with male writers using them twice as much as female writers, demonstrating the genre’s evaluative nature. Male writers made more use of ‘engagement markers,’ ‘hedgies,’ ‘boosters,’ and ‘self-mentions; the interviews with academics also confirmed this finding. As for interactive features, female writers made more transitions, which was the second most significant feature in male writers’ texts. It can be proven by both genders’ tendency to make a clear argument for their readers. Female writers were heavy users of evidential markers, and this was confirmed in academic interviews. There was, however, no significant difference between them in the use of code glosses. In summary, according to the genre (spoken or written) and community of practices in which genres happen, both genders apply meta-discourse features differently.

To conclude this section, authorial identity is used broadly through ‘stance’ features. Stance is broadly defined as linguistic features employed by authors to indicate their views, attitudes, evaluations, and judgment. [Hyland \(2008\)](#) contends that the perspective of stance can be referred to as “the writer’s textual voice or community recognized personality” (p. 5). Stance features such as self-mentions may indicate the writer’s authorial identity in academic review genres, so we have focused on analysing self-mentions in the review article genre in Applied Linguistics.

3. METHODS

3.1 The Corpus

The corpus was limited to applied linguistics discipline as described and specified in applied linguistics academic handbooks (e.g., Kaplan, 2002; Schmitt, 2002). The data of this research was drawn from a randomly selected corpus of thirty-two review articles, published between 2000-2007, from a discipline-related key journal in the field of applied linguistics (Annual Review of Applied Linguistics published by Cambridge University Press). The prestige and reputation of this journal in publishing review articles were taken into consideration. Another step in the sampling methodology of this study is to consult specialist informants in that particular field (i.e., ‘informant nomination’) and is an established procedure in sampling and selecting the corpus-based studies (Azar & Azirah, 2017a, 2017b; Hyland, 2000; Kuhl & Behnam, 2011; Kuhl et al., 2012). These specialist informants, who were the writers of review articles in applied linguistics, were asked to name the most prestigious journals with a high reputation among academics in which their review articles were published. The informants’ recommendation was to refer to review articles in applied linguistics in the ARAL journal for sampling methods.

3.2 The Corpus Tool

WordSmith Version 6 (Scott, 2012) is used to identify and extract self-mention markers automatically. The corpus tool identifies and reads plain text files, which end with a .txt directory. WordSmith Version 6 extracts lists of linguistic features in n-grams using statistical measures. In order to analyse, identify, and extract self-mention markers in the corpus, the computer-readable review texts were carefully scanned and analysed in search of self-representation resources.

3.3 Data Analysis Procedure

The study on the use of self-mentions was based on Hyland’s (2002a) model and classification. The analysis of self-mentions in the corpus was conducted in the subsequent steps. First, thirty-two review articles were analysed using WordSmith Version 6 (Scott, 2012). A list of eight markers was selected and developed based on previous works and literature lists, especially Hyland (2002a). The focus was on the investigation of explicit self-representation features used in the corpus. At the same time, a rigorous manual analysis of the context was also carried out to ensure authorial identity was expressed, focusing on frequency, type, and function of the self-mentions.

Several important factors and steps were considered at this stage of analysis. First, the analytical sections of the review articles were analysed in detail and carefully screened and marked. Then, the frequency and functions of individual self-mentions were presented and tabulated. Second, several cases were found to be irrelevant for the study and were deleted from the results (e.g., ‘I’ was found in the review texts as the term for ‘Internalized (I) Language’ was used by scholars). All first-person pronouns in integral and non-integral citations which denoted other writers’ ideas and positions were also deleted from the results. In order to analyse the first-person plural pronouns in the single-authored and multiple-authored review articles, all cases of the first-

person singular and plural pronouns identified in the entire corpus were reviewed in detail. The investigation of these pronouns in the corpus indicated that they were present in the review articles with varying frequencies. We standardised the frequency counts at 1,000 words and applied them for the entirety of this study.

In addition, at this stage, to obtain higher reliability in the findings of the current study, the second-rater's analysis was also included. Four different sections of review articles were reviewed thoroughly (i.e., the four analytical sections of the review articles were read word by word to ensure that the features stood for self-mention resources). This stage of the analysis was necessary to ensure the reliability of the findings. The second-rater double-checked the items. The inter-rater reliability was above 95%, which suggests high overall reliability in this research.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the current study are presented in three sub-sections: (1) describing the type of self-mentions in the corpus, (2) explaining the frequency of use and distribution of self-mentions in the corpus, and (3) discussing their rhetorical functions in the different analytical sections of the review articles.

4.1 Type of Self-Mentions in the Review articles

There are two main types of self-mentions, namely first-person singular pronouns (such as 'I,' 'me,' and 'my') and the first-person plural pronouns (such as 'we,' 'us,' and 'our'). These pronouns include subjective, objective, and possessive cases. Generally, it was noted that first-person plural pronouns were more common than first-person singular pronouns, which was also the case in single-authored review articles. Table 2 summarizes the type of self-mentions in the entire corpus tabulated by WordSmith. It also shows the number of hits per 1,000 words for the different self-mentions in the corpus.

Table 2: Type of self-mention markers in the review articles.

No.	File	Overall words	Hits	per 1,000
	Overall	198426.00	534.00	2.69
1	we	198426.00	302.00	1.52
2	I	198426.00	102.00	0.51
3	our	198426.00	73.00	0.36
4	us	198426.00	43.00	0.21
5	me	198426.00	2.00	0.01
6	my	198426.00	3.00	0.02
7	the author	198426.00	7.00	0.03
8	the writer	198426.00	2.00	0.01

The findings indicated eight types of self-mention markers in the corpus, including 'we,' 'I,' 'our,' 'us,' 'me,' 'my,' 'the author,' and 'the writer.' The subjective pronoun 'we,' with a frequency of 302 items/1.52 in 1,000 words were used more frequently than other types of self-mentions (e.g., 'I,' the second most frequent feature in this study with 102 items/0.51 in 1,000 words). Overall, there were 534 hits/2.69 items in 1,000 words in the corpus.

4.2 Frequency of Use and Distribution of Self-Mentions in the Review Articles

It was noted that self-mention resources appeared in the four analytical sections with different frequencies. For example, 36 self-mentions (7.25 per 1,000 words) were hit in the Abstract sections and 60 resources (5 per 1,000 words) in the Introduction sections, which was less frequent than self-mentions in the Conclusion sections (77 items, 7.74 per 1,000 words). The analysis also illustrated those self-mentions were the least frequent in Body sections (361 items, 2.11 per 1,000 words). Table 3 illustrates the frequency of self-mentions in the four different analytical sections of the corpus. Table 3 also summarizes the frequency of self-mentions in each analytical section of the entire corpus tabulated by WordSmith.

Table 3: Distribution of self-mentions in the analytical sections of review articles.

Self-mention markers	Abstract		Introduction		Body		Conclusion	
	Freq.	Per 1,000	Freq.	Per 1,000	Freq.	Per 1,000	Freq.	Per 1,000
We	21	4.23	31	2.75	206	1.20	44	4.42
us	1	0.20	2	0.17	34	0.19	6	0.60
our	7	1.41	7	0.58	41	0.23	18	1.81
I	7	1.41	18	1.50	68	0.39	9	0.90
me	-	-	-	-	2	0.01	-	-
my	-	-	2	0.17	1	0.01	-	-
the author	-	-	-	-	7	0.04	-	-
the writer	-	-	-	-	2	0.01	-	-
Total	36	7.25	60	5.00	361	2.11	77	7.74

It is interesting to highlight that the total appearance of self-mentions in the current study was almost two times lower than Hyland's (2005b) results. He found that self-mentions in his corpus (30 Applied Linguistics research articles) appeared with a frequency of 4.8 per 1,000 words, whereas the findings of the current study indicated that self-mentions occurred with a frequency of 2.69 per 1,000 words in the corpus (i.e., two times lower than the previous study). This difference can be related to the type of article researched.

There is a significant difference between the research article genre and the review article genre. There is a possibility that the authors (in Hyland's study) in the qualitative and quantitative research articles presented themselves more explicitly than the review article authors. Although the presence of writers in academic discourses is disciplinary-specific (Hyland, 2001; Martínez, 2005), there is also a variation in a genre colony or genre family. As discussed in other studies, (Azar & Azirah, 2014; Swales, 2004), research articles and review articles are two sub-genres of the research genre. There is a possibility that authors' visibility in the research article genre is higher than the review article genre. Authors of research articles may try to express themselves more frequently and explicitly than review article authors due to the nature of that genre.

Two key points were yielded from the analysis of this data. First, most self-mentions belonged to the subjective pronoun 'we' (302 cases/1.52 per 1,000 words). In other words, it had the highest frequency among the authors' explicit self-mentions. In contrast, other self-mentions such as 'us,' 'our,' 'I,' 'me,' 'my,' 'the author,' and 'the writer' were rarely used. The second most frequent self-mention was the first-person singular pronoun 'I' (102 cases/0.51 per 1,000 words), very closely followed

by the possessive adjective ‘our’ (73 cases/0.36 per 1,000 words). Notably, it was found that the possessive adjective ‘our’ (0.36 per 1,000 words) was more common than the objective pronoun ‘us’ (0.21 per 1,000 words) in the corpus. Otherwise, the results of other researchers indicated that explicit self-mentions in other disciplines were invariably present and frequent in research articles. Kuo’s (1999) analysis of self-mentions in engineering fields and Martínez’s (2005) study in Biology, for example, indicated that a writer’s authorial voice was clearly visible in their works, particularly when using the exclusive ‘we’ more explicitly in the Result sections than other analytical sections.

As previously discussed, the subjective pronoun ‘we’ can be used inclusively or exclusively. For example, in the following excerpts, (1) and (2), taken from the corpus of this study, the use of ‘we’ was presented in two different situations. The first example indicates an inclusive ‘we.’ This review article was a single-authored text, where the author engaged the readers in his argument and evaluation of corpus linguistics. In the second example, the review text was not single-authored, and the writers explained the structure of the chapter. Besides, they referred to the limitation of the review article to avoid criticism:

- (1) We should recognize that corpus analysis is not a different and improved way of dealing with the object of study of linguistics...We need to note too that the object of study in corpus linguistics is a particular language in itself...not as a representative of language in general... (RevA.1, theme-bound unit, p.24)
- (2) We have omitted from this part of the chapter some of the most central areas of conversation-analytic inquiry-in particular, sequence organization (Schegloff, 1990) and the analysis of the formation... (RevA.9, theme-bound unit, p. 9)

Here, the author of the first review article intends to engage readers and evaluate the theme. The author negotiates with his immediate audience and tries to build a relationship with his readers. It is one of the rhetorical strategies to persuade readers to accept the author’s view (i.e., ‘persuasive strategy’). Hyland (2005a) believes that using an inclusive ‘we’ binds the authors to the readers. These rhetorical strategies (i.e., using inclusive ‘we’ and using ‘clusters of attitude markers’) are employed in argumentative and evaluative discourses, for example, critical evaluative review articles, to interact professionally with the immediate audience and persuade them to agree with the authors’ ideas.

Consequently, the author in the first excerpt uses inclusive ‘we’ together with the modal verb ‘need to’ to create an obligatory situation in evaluating and weighing corpus linguistic studies. He wants the readers to be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of corpus linguistics. Several functions such as ‘presenting evaluation,’ ‘directing to some important works or views,’ and ‘giving suggestions’ were also observed in the corpus. These self-mentions, mainly ‘we’ may refer to the contributors or the singular author of review articles.

In excerpt (2), the authors explain the focused themes and present the review text structure. The authors explicitly use an exclusive ‘we’ to strengthen their position and support their claims. Here, the authors’ role in the review of research developments can be presented by the significant presence of the subjective pronoun ‘we.’ The writers may also support their claims or counterclaims and strengthen them in the thematic units of review articles. These rhetorical strategies were commonly used to present the review article authors’ evaluation, feeling, judgment, argument, and

attitude towards the proposition they discuss or argue. It is important to note that in the comparative form, a few self-mentions were very scarce in the entirety of the corpus, such as ‘my,’ ‘me,’ ‘the author,’ and ‘the writer.’

The second point is that self-mentions in the Introduction sections appeared with five items per 1,000 words, while they were found in the Conclusion sections with a frequency of 7.74 items per 1,000 words (see Table 3). Although the word count in the Introduction sections (11,983 words) was higher than the Conclusion sections (9,947 words), the self-mentions in the Conclusion sections (77 hits) appeared more frequently than the Introduction sections (60 hits). In the Conclusion sections, as Table 3 clearly illustrates, the self-mentions (7.74 items per 1,000 words) were used slightly more than in the Abstract sections (7.25 items per 1,000 words). One main reason for the differing frequency is referred to the moves used by the authors in the Conclusion sections such as Move 2: ‘Evaluating developments’ with two specific strategies by which the authors most probably presented themselves (i.e., Strategy 1: ‘Indicating significance’ and Strategy 2: ‘Presenting limitations’) and Move 3: ‘Giving suggestions’ containing the clear presence of the authors (i.e., Strategy 1: ‘Offering possible solutions’ and Strategy 3: ‘Recommending further research’). For example, the second move in the Conclusion section dealt with evaluating research or other scholars’ views. In this move, the authors evaluated the significance and limitations of these developments by using writer-oriented linguistic features like attitude markers and self-mentions.

Overall, these two features help the review article authors make an interactive connection with their immediate audience. The findings indicated that they were employed in several moves of the analytical sections (i.e., Abstract, Introduction, Body, and Conclusion sections) with differing frequencies. The second move (Move 2: ‘Evaluating the review’) and the third move (Move 3: ‘Giving suggestions’) of the Conclusion sections, for instance, included many instances of this rhetorical device employed by the authors. The authors used explicit self-mentions to present the essence of the review and indicate the authors’ purpose, develop an argument, indicate the significance or limitations of the developments in the related field, and take a stance. For example, self-mentions were found in the Abstract sections in Move 3: ‘Presenting the review’:

- (3) I then argue that recent developments...may provide a more solid basis for partnership. (RevA.5, Abstract, p. 3)
- (4) In the following chapter, I will show how a field that increasingly informs psychology can also inform...I examine brain mechanisms that are involved in second language acquisition motivation... (RevA.6, Abstract, p. 23)
- (5) In this chapter, I provide an overview of some of the current themes and research directions that I find particularly novel or forward-looking... I argue that the initial research inspiration... (RevA.7, Abstract, p. 43)

In the Introduction sections, self-mentions were also found in Move 3: ‘Presenting the review article’:

- (6) My purpose in this contribution is to look into this question of applicability as it relates to language pedagogy... (RevA.1, Introduction, p. 21)

- (7) In this review, I identify some past barriers to cooperation between psychology and linguistics. I argue that these barriers appear to be dropping... (RevA.5, Introduction, p. 3)
- (8) In this chapter, we review and reflect on developments...we sometimes address earlier work to provide...To make our task manageable, we have limited ourselves to... (RevA.20, Introduction, p. 70)

In the theme-bound units, self-mentions were found in Move 3: 'Presenting evaluation':

- (9) It seems to me that this assumption of dependency is mistaken. I want to argue that... (RevA.1, theme-bound unit, p.22)
- (10) ...as far as I can see, almost all of the many new journals that have been springing up have an English-only submission policy. We are facing a real loss in professional registers in many national cultures with long scholarly traditions. (RevA.3, theme-bound unit, p. 67)
- (11) I would even argue that the label 'ESP teacher' no longer seems appropriate for anyone involved in the field because of... (RevA.4, theme-bound unit, p. 85)

In the Conclusion sections, self-mentions were found in several moves, namely, Move 1: 'Summarizing the review,' Move 2: 'Evaluating the review,' and Move 3: 'Giving suggestions.' Some examples taken from the corpus are as follows:

- (12) This chapter has attempted to show how stimulus appraisal, foraging, and social cognition are primarily implemented by the same neural system. Extending this view, I have argued that motivation in second language acquisition... Therefore, I believe that the continued integration of psychology and neurobiology will contribute significantly to our knowledge... (RevA.6, Conclusion 'Moves 1 & 3', p. 36)
- (13) However, I have tried to highlight the fact that there is not enough research being done, particularly in L2 contexts... (RevA.19, Conclusion 'Move 2', p. 60)
- (14) We suspect that any such alternative model will require a shift in focus...More work is needed to determine the implications of these new approaches for the various issues we have mentioned in this article... (RevA.13, Conclusion 'Move 3', p. 16)

The analysis indicated that the authors employed the pronouns 'we', 'our,' and 'us' in the Conclusion sections of review articles more frequently than other analytical sections because these pronouns presented and carried corresponding rhetorical functions such as were mentioned in the titles of these sections. These functions were also identified in the literature (Harwood, 2005a; Hyland, 2002a; Tang & John, 1999).

4.3 Analysis of the Rhetorical Functions of Self-mentions in the Review Articles

The analysis of self-mentions using WordSmith tools indicated that the authors used this feature of meta-discourse to interact with their immediate audience in the different analytical sections of the review article. Not only did the authors seek to negotiate with the readers, but they also wished to indicate their contributions to the field and inspire confidence regarding their knowledge. The authors' visibility in academic review genres is not only discipline-oriented (i.e., the nature of disciplines is an important key); it also depends on the authors' personal style and seniority.

The significance of self-mentions was scrutinised in the different analytical sections. As an example, it was observed in the Abstract and Introduction sections (particularly in Move 3: 'Presenting the review' in which the authors try to indicate objectives), the Theme-bound Units (Move 1: 'Making claims,' Move 2: 'Counter-claims,' and in Move 3: 'Describing methodology, explaining findings, and elaborating an argument and guiding readers through the argument'), and the Conclusion section (Move 2: 'Evaluating developments,' and in Move 3: 'Giving suggestions'). It was found that the authors used the subjective pronoun 'I' in the review articles for various functions which were identified in the literature (Hyland, 2002a; Tang & John, 1999). The authors of the review articles, for example, used the subjective pronoun 'I': (a) to indicate the objectives or purposes, (b) to present the structure of the review texts, (c) to elaborate an argument, and (d) to guide the readers through the article.

Analysis of the subjective pronoun 'we,' the objective pronoun 'us,' and the possessive adjective pronoun 'our' analysed in the single-authored review articles indicated that several authors in these review articles used inclusive pronouns. These inclusive pronouns referred to the authors and the readers (excerpts 1-4). The inclusive pronouns were employed in the review texts to 'give suggestions' and 'make recommendations,' 'guide readers through the evaluation and argument,' and 'promote the research by presenting its contribution.' For example, it was found that the inclusive pronoun such as 'us' was employed to 'explain how the results of studies can help the field.' In review articles, the objective pronoun 'us' mainly was collocated with several verbs (e.g., '...give us', '...help us', '...teach us', '...tell us', '...remind us', '...warn us', and '...lead us'). Some instances taken from the corpus are as follows:

- (15) I argue that these barriers appear to be dropping due to the rise of new research methodologies and that we are now entering a time that may see a new convergence between the disciplines. (RevA.5, Introduction, p.4)
- (16) The computer provides us with the capability of accumulating and analysing vast amounts of language that users have actually produced. We no longer have to depend on our intuitions about the language that people use... (RevA.1, theme-bound unit, p. 23)
- (17) ... from this review, I hope that we can infer the current methodological preoccupations in this work. I begin by looking at two studies... (RevA.10, Introduction, p.34)
- (18) Part of this issue simply derives from the massive amount of new information that is now available; for example, we now have several studies that can tell us much about the evolution of professional discourse... (RevA.3, theme-bound unit, p. 60)

The analysis of the first-person plural pronouns used indicated that the possessive adjective pronoun 'our' was usually used as an inclusive pronoun in single-authored review articles and mainly was collocated with nouns such as 'our understanding' and 'our knowledge.'

- (19) Recent work on child interpreters...has contributed to our understanding of some of these issues. (RevA.16, Conclusions, p. 70)
- (20) Clearly, notions of quality of interpretation and theories about the assessment of this quality, both currently underdeveloped, will be basic to our understanding of the differences... (RevA.16, Conclusions, p. 70)

- (21) Therefore, I believe that the continued integration of psychology and neurobiology will contribute significantly to our knowledge of issues important to the field of applied linguistics. (RevA.6, Conclusions, p. 36)

However, the authors in single-authored review texts also used exclusive pronouns such as ‘we,’ ‘us,’ and ‘our’ in review articles. They referred to themselves, the discourse community, or a group of researchers who contributed and helped the research process. According to Azabdaftari (2016), one of the specialist informants of the current study, this type of first-person plural pronoun is called the ‘royal we.’ He further adds that if people avoid using ‘I’ and ‘we,’ the causes may be due to:

A lack of confidence in their views, b) an inclination to offer a low profile of themselves, c) a lack of expertise on the issue they are handling, or d) use of other persons’ views (a case of plagiarism), and e) regarding your question on pronouns, I may say that a function of ‘we,’ called the ‘royal we’ is realized when the writer or speaker intends to affiliate himself/ herself as part of the discussion/research group. (Prof. Azabdaftari, Personal Communication, Jan. 2016)

Some instances taken from the corpus are as follows:

- (22) A final pressing problem for those engaged in qualitative research is determining a standard...It is imperative for those of us working within “interpretive” research traditions to address these issues...so that we can ensure that all published research, both qualitative and quantitative, is truly quality research. (RevA.10, Conclusion, p. 43)
- (23) In our research, we have been interested in measuring individual differences in cognitive control... In the study to be summarized here, we asked whether... (RevA.5, theme-bound unit, p.12)

As illustrated in excerpts above (22 and 23), it is possible that these studies were a collective effort, and a group of researchers or contributors collected the data. It was observed that in single-authored review articles, first-person plural pronouns such as ‘we,’ ‘us,’ and ‘our’ were also used to refer to a group of researchers who were involved in conducting research or who had assisted the single author during the research project. The author’s role in these projects was considered a researcher was conducting research, and a group of researchers or scholars collaborated with the author during this research process.

The results of this study illustrate that an inclusive ‘we’ was used in both single-authored and multiple-authored review articles. As has been pointed out, using inclusive pronouns such as ‘we,’ ‘us,’ and ‘our’ has been considered as a strategy to interact and negotiate with the immediate audience in academic writing (Harwood, 2005b; Hyland, 2005a). This persuasion technique can also be used in review articles to create a bond between the author and the reader, allowing authors to include their readers in their arguments and assessments. It helps the authors to establish solidarity and ensure their readers’ agreement.

Using these rhetorical strategies, authors can include their presence and views in the evaluation and persuade their readers to accept their judgments and claims. For example, it was found that the author of the review article (RevA.11) used both the exclusive and inclusive ‘we.’ In the exclusive ‘we,’ the author included the research he and other scholars conducted to present a model. In the exact review text, the author

discussed a new relevant software that he suggested could assist manual analysis. The new software, the author claimed, would contribute to our knowledge and increase our conception of language. The following excerpts are taken from the corpus present these instances:

- (24) Mode is concerned with semiotic distance, as this is affected by the various channels of communication through which we undertake activity... (RevA.11, theme-bound unit, p. 62)
- (2) The success of this enterprise depends on the development of relevant software...I expect this technology to affect our conception of language...since for the first time; we'll be able to manage large-scale socio-semantic analyses of data. (RevA.11, Conclusion, p. 62)

It was also found that the inclusive 'we' was employed by review article authors to 'give suggestions' and 'offer possible solutions.'

- (25) Further investigations into corpus sizes and sampling techniques are needed, as well as further research into the kinds of variation that exist in language so that we can make sure to capture all kinds of variation in new corpora. (RevA.12, Conclusion, p. 87)
- (2) ...we need to investigate pedagogic approaches that do not short-circuit the strategic dimension of L2 listening...We need further research on teaching listeners in classroom settings how to negotiate meaning... (RevA.17, Directions for Further Research, p. 18)

The analysis of variation in the use of inclusive and exclusive 'we' in review articles reveals a significant difference between the authors associated with the frequency of use of the subjective pronoun 'we.' The results showed that some authors did not explicitly represent themselves in review articles such as in Rev A.2 and Rev A.21. In contrast, other authors expressed themselves repeatedly in the review texts, such as in Rev A.1, Rev A.5, Rev A.6, Rev A.7, and Rev A.26. There can be several reasons for this finding, such as the type of review article (i.e., we need to find out if it is a critical evaluative review or a bibliographic review article) which requires further study. Another reason is the author's style and preference, along with their seniority or position in that field. The current research findings align with the findings of other studies on the inclusive and exclusive 'we' (for example, [Harwood, 2005b](#); [Hyland, 2001](#); [Kuo, 1999](#); [Tang & John, 1999](#)).

The analysis also showed that authors in single-authored review texts mostly used first-person plural pronouns as inclusive pronouns, due to the desire to engage their readers with their evaluation and argument. The inclusive pronouns referred to the author and the reader or the author and the discourse community (as 'royal we'). As it was found, the exclusive 'we' was used in the corpus of this study with an overall average frequency of 30%, followed by the inclusive 'we' very closely with a frequency of 27% among first-person pronouns. It is noteworthy that the frequency of occurrence of exclusive 'we' and inclusive 'we' was very close to each other in the corpus of this study.

It can be contended that the inclusive pronouns are used not only as a politeness strategy to appreciate readers and keep the writers' claims balanced in the review article genre but also as a persuasive strategy to seek readers' agreement in their evaluation of the research developments. It is important to note that the authors construct various professional personas as a rhetorical device to establish their

authorial identity and credibility in the review article genre. It seems that different personas depend on the nature of the review article genre and its scope.

5. CONCLUSION

In this study, the focus was on one of the stance elements, particularly self-mentions in the review articles in applied linguistics. The self-mention resources in the corpus were classified according to Hyland's (2005b) classification. The corpus was then screened using WordSmith tools after it had been transformed into readable texts. They were examined to see which types of self-mentions were used in the corpus to indicate authors' positions. In other words, we highlighted not only the genre-specific features that govern the review articles but also the strategies employed to show their authorial identity in the corpus.

It is worth noting that in academic writing, mentioning oneself is an effective persuasive strategy. The authors use the stance features to gain immediate agreement from the readers, gain credibility, and establish their attitude. They indicate their position in the field as one of the discourse community members. The higher frequency usage of self-mentions can indicate the authors' strong position and contribution to that field. The high-frequency use of self-mentions can "point to the personal stake that writers invest in their arguments and their desire to gain credit for their claims" (Hyland, 2011, p. 11). The author who expresses himself/ herself explicitly in the review article may be one of the discourse community pioneers, and so correspondingly wish to distinguish himself/ herself to being at the frontier of the respective field (Harwood, 2005b; Hyland, 2001). The author creates a persona, particularly an 'assertive persona' rather than an 'impersonal persona,' to claim and comment on its veracity. This strategy can be considered not only as a strategy of politeness but also one of persuasiveness.

While it is acknowledged that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses offered at the university level have focused on academic writing skills, this study suggests that writing academic review genres should be emphasized to give instructive guidance to junior researchers and novice writers on how to critically review research developments, and thus preparing them for efficient and high-quality critical literature review writing. The findings of this type of research can also heighten awareness amongst junior postgraduates and researchers on macro and micro-organizational structures of the academic review genres like review articles.

It is now necessary to acknowledge the limitations of our research. It would have been preferable to conduct a comparative analysis using a different discipline. The review articles in this corpus are all from applied linguistics and were published between 2000 and 2007 (not from non-applied disciplines). Therefore, the findings of this research also need to be tested on recent review articles from other disciplines, challenging sciences, so that EAP or ESP instructors can take advantage and they may use findings in their 'research project' classes for hard science postgraduate students or the practitioners.

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Potential Factors Influencing the Rhetorical Patterns of Research Article Discussion Sections

Lulus Irawati*

Post Graduate Program, Universitas Persatuan Guru Republik Indonesia (PGRI)
Madiun, Madiun 63118, INDONESIA

Abstract

The present study reports potential factors influencing the rhetorical patterns of research articles (RA) discussion sections. The study was conducted by utilizing descriptive qualitative research. The researcher purposefully focused on investigating 10 bilingual writers who wrote both one English and one Indonesian research article. The selected writers were those who had an educational background in language and language teaching. The interviews covered the interviewees' background information, current activities, writing activities, and their rhetorical patterns of discussion sections. The interviews were conducted by utilizing the snowball technique to search for more information. The interview data were analyzed into some steps namely, transcribing the interview data, organizing data, summarizing data, and interpreting data. All data transcription was then categorized and coded. Research findings revealed that the writers' choice of move structure could be as a result of learning from other people's rhetorical patterns, believing themselves, having high self-confidence, having high writing frequency, and having high awareness in the micro and macrostructure of writing discussion sections. The Indonesian writers have opened their minds to learn and read other researchers' articles and then determine whether the patterns are suitable for them or not. The writers' starting point of experiencing to have their RA published made them believe in themselves and felt self-confident. Thus, the more they wanted to write RA, the higher they had writing frequency and awareness in the micro and macrostructure of writing discussion sections.

* Corresponding author, email: lulusirawati@unipma.ac.id

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1. INTRODUCTION

In publishing a research article, the discussion section becomes one of the challenging sections. Some research articles exhibit the discussion section combined with the Results section, and the others show the discussion and result sections separately. However, Swales (1990) states the discussion section starts from elaborating the results themselves to placing them within the established literature and to reviewing their general significances. The foundation to write the discussion section is by inserting the results based on the research questions. Thus, it is in contrast to the introduction section that comprises elaboration of general overview based on the previous research.

In the past decades, many researchers have been challenged to investigate rhetorical patterns of the research article sections, especially introduction and discussion sections (Amirian et al., 2008; Arsyad, 2013; Basthomi, 2006; Holmes, 1997; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Mirahayuni, 2002; Peacock, 2002; Swales, 1990). In the wider contexts, there are many models used to analyze the rhetorical patterns of RA discussion sections. Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) show that there are eleven moves found in the RA discussion sections. Meanwhile, Swales (1990) has suggested that there are eight moves found in the RA discussion sections. In the Indonesian context, some studies are to investigate both introduction and discussion sections viewed from the difference or similarities of Indonesian and English RAs' patterns (Arsyad, 2013; Basthomi, 2006; Mirahayuni, 2002). All in all, the previous studies above mostly focused on the rhetorical patterns of the RA discussion sections and identify how the patterns flowed. The studies did not investigate further whether the differences and similarities of the rhetorical patterns were found in the RA discussion section written by an individual or team writer.

Furthermore, investigating English and Indonesian RA discussion sections written by different writers shows the differences and similarities of rhetorical patterns of RA discussion sections. The studies only focus on the patterns without digging into the reasons for using the patterns. There are some interesting parts inquired in line to the previous studies that one writer has different educational and linguistic backgrounds, she/he is from a different country, she/ he is a native or non-native speaker, and she/he uses the writing style suggested by the selected journals. The rhetorical patterns found can be a result of the way the writers use the language since they write using different languages that have certain patterns. It is a matter of what they know but they do not want to use it or they can, but they prefer not to do it. Accordingly, the present study is to investigate potential factors influencing bilingual writers in writing their discussion sections of English and Indonesian research articles. This study uses the rhetorical patterns of English and Indonesian RA discussion sections written by the same bilingual writers as a basis for investigating the factors influencing their choice of rhetorical patterns. The writers can consciously or unconsciously choose particular patterns of their discussion sections as they write and can be influenced by their cultural, psychological, and linguistic backgrounds. Thus,

the research question is: What are potential factors influencing the rhetorical patterns of research article discussion sections?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Models in Rhetorical Patterns of Discussion Sections

There are at least four models mostly used by previous researchers in investigating the rhetorical patterns of discussion sections. [Hopkins and Dudley-Evans \(1988\)](#) serve that the discussion sections of research articles and dissertations are not linear, but cyclical in terms of the choice of moves. This, then, results in the development of a model to analyze discussion sections consisting of eleven moves:

- Background information
- Statement of results
- (Un) expected outcome
- Reference to the previous research
- Explanation of unsatisfactory result
- Exemplification
- Deduction
- Hypothesis
- Reference to previous research
- Recommendation
- Justification

Furthermore, [Holmes \(1997\)](#) investigates the structure of RA discussion sections in three disciplines by using [Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' \(1988\)](#) modified model. Holmes found that there are fundamental similarities and some distinctive features of moves in the three disciplines. Similarly, [Amirian et al. \(2008\)](#) analyze the discussion sections of applied linguistics RAs by using [Hopkins and Dudley-Evans \(1988\)](#) model and reveal considerable differences across the three corpora regarding the generic features under investigation.

Meanwhile, there is a model used by [Peacock \(2002\)](#). He uses [Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' \(1988\)](#) revised model consisting of moves:

- Information move
- Statement of result
- Finding
- (Un) expected outcome
- Reference to previous research
- Explanation
- Claim
- Limitation
- Recommendation

[Peacock \(2002\)](#) has analyzed 252 RA discussion sections of seven disciplines (36 from each discipline). He reports that several marked interdisciplinary and NS/NNS differences are found in the type and number of moves and move cycles. All in all, [Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' \(1988\)](#) model is greatly focused on the result of the analysis of moves cycles.

Another model used in the previous research is CARS (Create a Research Space) to also analyze the RA discussion section. It has been developed by Swales (1990) consisting of moves:

- Background information
- Statement of the results
- (Un) expected outcome
- Reference to previous research
- Explanation
- Exemplification
- Deduction and Hypothesis
- Recommendation

The model, then, is seen in the research of Mirahayuni (2002) and Rakhmawati (2013), that investigate the generic structure of English RAs that focus on the Introduction and Discussion sections between English (native) and Indonesian (non-native) writers in contributing to their acceptance for international publication. They report that RA introduction sections consistently exhibit moves based on Swales' and RA discussion sections employ the various number of moves, ranging from four to seven moves.

2.2 Models in Rhetorical Patterns of Discussion Sections on Other Disciplines

Other researchers also execute Swales' model for discussion sections analysis on various disciplines. According to Basturkmen (2012), the discussion sections can largely be accounted for in terms of moves and steps in the framework (thus indicating a broadly similar rhetorical organization). Arsyad (2013) analyzes 47 selected RAs published mainly in university-based journals in Indonesia from social science and humanity disciplines, and reports that there is no significant difference of the move structures in the Indonesian RAs and the fields of discipline. Furthermore, Maswana et al. (2015) report that among 67 engineering RAs of five sub-disciplines, they found that no common move pattern exists throughout the paper across the sub-disciplines. Thus, the moves in Swales' model can be found either at eight moves altogether or less than eight moves.

The other models also used to analyze the RA discussion sections are Nwogu's (1997) and Kanoksilapatham's (2003) models. Both models are executed to analyze not only one section of RA, but also all sections of RA, namely Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion. Both models, therefore, provide more than eight moves. Nwogu (1997) reports that an eleven-move schema has been identified and there are three moves in the discussion section, namely highlighting the overall research outcome, explaining specific research outcomes, and stating research conclusions. Similarly, Kanoksilapatham (2005) who has investigated 60 biochemistry RAs, informs 15 distinct moves: three moves for the Introduction section, four for the Method section, four for the Results section, and four for the Discussion section, to capture a basic yet complete and representative template of rhetorical organization. In summary, the two models are still well-known for analyzing articles in the field of science such as the medical and biochemistry paper.

The rhetorical patterns of the discussion section are merely a writer's choice based on his/her field of community. The authors at least master two or more languages that help them compose written information for a particular community or context.

Canagarajah (2006) reports that in the multilingual orientation, differences are seen as choice/option, a writer is rhetorically creative and as an agent, writing focuses on rhetorical context and writers construct multiple identities. The different choice of operating the rhetorical patterns is therefore not categorized as deficiency or errors. It becomes one of the factors influencing the writers during writing, especially journal articles. Moreover, one's cultural background also becomes a factor that can influence a writer's written products. Liu (2007), for instance, shares information that Chinese writers prefer to use the strategy of an indirect approach to realize their intention of criticizing or enlightening a certain audience without making the audience offended. Thus, there is an interrelationship between fundamental cultural values and the rhetorical patterns chosen in the written or spoken products. To sum up, the present study attempts to further investigate not only the existence of moves or rhetorical patterns as reported by the previous research but also the factors that might influence the choice of rhetorical patterns of Indonesian academicians.

2. METHODS

The study was conducted by utilizing descriptive qualitative research. The move analysis was employed to know the rhetorical pattern of RA discussion sections before the researcher interviewed the Indonesian bilingual writers. To analyze moves, the researcher analyzed their discussion sections by using Swales (1990) model, the so-called CARS consisting of eight moves in the RA discussions sections:

- Background information (I)
- Statement of the results (II)
- (Un) expected outcome (III)
- Reference to previous research (IV)
- Explanation (V)
- Exemplification (VI)
- Deduction and Hypothesis (VII)
- Recommendation (VIII)

Then, the content analysis was used to examine the interview results to describe and interpret the data naturally.

The source of data consisted of 10 bilingual writers as the researcher purposefully selected and focused on those who had written one English RA and one Indonesian RA. Those research articles should have been published in Indonesian academic journals accredited at levels 1-4 by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology from the past 10 years.

The selected writers were those who had an educational background in language and language teaching. Most writers earned doctoral degrees and only one is a doctoral candidate. In other words, the writers of RAs were selected from those who have mastered Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, and TEFL linear to their educational background. The writers come from different domicile areas of Indonesia. The interview guide covered the interviewees' background information, current activities, writing activities, and their rhetorical patterns of discussion sections. The interviews were conducted by utilizing a snowball technique that could help the researcher obtain more detailed information.

The data were initially collected by conducting move analysis on the RA discussion sections and then, the researcher interviewed 10 bilingual writers (A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, and A10). The move analysis showed that the distribution of each move was found in the writers' RA discussion sections. It also informed each writer's move structure of his/her RA discussion section. Table 1 showed the general move structures and their distribution in English RA discussion sections, and Table 2 showed general move structures and their distribution in Indonesian RA discussion sections. The move structures represented the flow of moves of RA discussion sections; meanwhile, the distribution informed the number of move occurrences in the RA discussion sections. The researcher used the analysis to guide the interview to be more focused, and later be the stimulated recall interview.

Table 1. Results of general move structure and their distribution in English RA Discussion sections.

Data	Move Structures	Move I	Move II	Move III	Move IV	Move V	Move VI	Move VII	Move VIII
A1	VII-II-V-IV-III-V-IV-V-IV-V-II-V-VIII-IV-VII	-	2	1	4	5	-	2	1
A2	II-VII-II-II-V-III-VI-V-III-VI-III-V-II-V-II-III-IV-V-II-V-VI-V-VII	-	6	4	1	7	3	2	-
A3	I-II-IV-V-II-VI-II-VI-III-II-VI-II-II-IV-II-III-IV-II-V-VI-V-V-II-V-III-V-II-V-II-IV-V-VI-II-V-VI-VII	1	12	3	4	9	6	1	-
A4	I-II-V-VII-V-VII-V	1	1	-	-	2	-	2	-
A5	VII-IV-V-II-III-V-VIII-II-IV-V-VII-V-II-V-II-V-II-V-VII-V-IV-V-IV-V-VII	-	5	1	4	11	-	4	1
A6	I-II-VII-II-II-VII-IV-V-III-II-VII-V-IV-V-II-VII-V-VIII-III-II-VII-IV-VII-II-IV-V-VII-IV	1	7	2	5	5	-	7	1
A7	II-III-IV-V-II-V-II-III-IV-V-VII-IV-V-II-V-IV-VII	-	4	2	4	5	-	2	-
A8	II-IV-V-III-IV-III-IV-V-VI	-	1	2	3	2	1	-	-
A9	II-V-IV-III-IV-V-III-IV-VII	-	1	2	3	2	-	1	-
A10	I-II-IV-V-III-V-IV	1	1	1	2	2	-	-	-
Total		4	40	19	30	50	10	20	3

Table 2. Results of general move structure and their distribution in Indonesian RA Discussion sections.

Data	Move Structures	Move I	Move II	Move III	Move IV	Move V	Move VI	Move VII	Move VIII
A1	VII-II-V-IV-V-II-III-IV-V-II-V-VI-II-VII	-	4	1	2	4	1	2	-
A2	II-V-IV	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	-
A3	II-VII-II-V-IV-V-II-V-IV-VII-V-III-VII-IV-VI-V-IV-IV-III-IV-VII-IV-V-VII-II-V-III-IV-VII-II-VII-V-IV-VII	-	5	3	10	9	1	8	-
A4	II-V-IV-II-IV-V-VI-III-V-IV-V-IV-V-II-IV-VI-V-VII-III-VI-VII-V-II-VI-V-II-V-VI-VII-IV-VII-II-VI-II-V-V-II-VI-V-II-V-VII	-	9	2	6	13	9	5	-
A5	II-V-VII-V-VII-II-VII-V-VII-V-II-III-V-VII	-	3	1	-	5	-	5	-
A6	II-V-IV-II-V-II-V-IV-IV-I-II-VI-V-V-VI-V-V-VI-V-II-II-V-V-VI-V-VI-VI-VII-IV-II-V-II-II-IV-II-V-II-V-VII-IV-IV-II-V-II-III-IV-II-V-II-VII-IV-II-IV-II-V-II-III-IV-II-VII-IV	1	19	2	12	17	6	4	-
A7	II-V-II-V-III-II-V-II-III-V-III-V-II-V-VII-III-IV-II-II-VII-V-VII-II-V-VII-I-I-IV-VII-V-III-V-III-V-VII-IV	2	8	6	3	12	-	6	-
A8	I-II-IV-V-III-V-IV	1	1	1	2	2	-	-	-
A9	II-III-V-VI-III-V-VI-III-VI	-	1	3	-	2	3	-	-
A10	II-III-V-IV-VI-IV-VII-IV-V-VII	-	1	1	3	2	1	2	-
Total		4	52	19	39	67	21	32	-

The interview data were analyzed into some steps namely, transcribing the interview data, organizing data, summarizing data, and interpreting data. First, the

interview data, which are recorded, were played and transcribed. In this analysis, the researcher transcribed all data without reduction, yet. After that, the researcher organized the data by re-reading all data taken from the interview and field notes. The data were categorized and coded. Then, she selected and reduced the data, and selected only were useful and important data to answer the research question. By so doing, she then extended her activities to understand the selection of the data that had been put in the same categories. She also looked for the links or connections among them. Moreover, she drew some statements related to the connections within the data of the same or different categories and patterns. Last but not least, she continued to search the meaning behind the data and interpreted them to answer the research questions. The data could cast light on her ideas to generate a theory showing the relationship among the categories and patterns.

The trustworthiness was prominent to be utilized since the present study tended to be subjective, in the case of analyzing the data. There are three components of trustworthiness demanding attention namely, credibility, dependability, and conformability. To address credibility, the researcher conducted triangulation on the data and method. She did moves analysis of English and Indonesian RA discussion sections written by the same Indonesian writers and the raw results of the analysis were shared and discussed with the Indonesian writers as informants. The raw results came up as one of the topics for interviewing the RA writers. In dependability and conformability, she relied on an independent audit of the research method by a competent peer. These activities were done by a practicing professional in the field of language and language teaching. Soon after she completed the data analysis and wrote the sets of results and discussion, the auditor carefully examined her audit trail consisting of the original transcripts, data analysis documents, field notes, and the text of the present study itself. The auditor also examined dependability and conformability, completeness, and availability of proper documents.

4. RESULTS

Some potential factors appear in the writers' RA discussion sections analysis and interview results that are importantly connected to answer in what way the bilingual writers write their English and Indonesian RA discussion sections. They were educational background and interests, learning other people's rhetorical patterns, beliefs, and self-confidence, writing frequency, awareness in micro and macrostructure of writing.

4.1 Educational Background and Interests

It is not excessively said that one's rhetorical pattern is shaped by his/her educational background. The bilingual writers in the present study consciously confess that the way they write research articles was influenced by their educational background. What they obtained from their educational process, automatically became their habits and led them to build their rhetorical pattern of writing. They realized that their ways of writing were shaped by their interests in the field of research. The writers were in the specialty of ELT (English Language Teaching), Applied Linguistics, and Linguistics. They were more comfortable writing their RA discussion sections

integrated with results or findings since they think integrating both result and discussion sections were something simpler and did not need a lot of space.

Since all writers were bilingual scholars, they were good at using not only their first language, Indonesian but also English. Accordingly, it happened since they all graduated from the English Department who were interested in the research field of either linguistics or language teaching. The use of English alongside Indonesian was something usual and can be interchangeable. They confirmed by stating in their interview result (E refers to Excerpt, W refers to writer participant):

E1 “There is no difference between writing English RA and Indonesian RA”. (W1)

Again, they stated that their writing patterns of English RA and Indonesian RA were not very different. They keep organizing their writing patterns concerning English writing patterns, although the data or the research results are reported in Indonesian.

4.2 Learning from Other People’s Rhetorical Patterns

One’s rhetorical pattern can be shaped by learning from other people’s rhetorical patterns. One of the writers explicitly stated that she wanted to play safe about her desire of publishing RA in nationally accredited journals. She tended to follow writing patterns required by the journal and also stated her comfortable choice in reporting results integrated within the discussion section. However, most writers learned from other people’s RA in a journal that integrating results and discussion was considered as something usual. They understood that the results were different from the discussion viewed from the contents. The results section was a report stating pure and original results, free of the RA writer’s point of view, while the discussion contains a further elaboration of implied messages behind the results. It assumes that identifying results apart from the discussion is not seen from the markers, but the flow of rhetorical patterns appears in the result and discussion.

The writers also informed that the way other researchers organize their rhetorical patterns could inspire them to have RA ideas.

E2 “...it can be inspired by other researchers who have special ways or pattern or something important, that we can use them as a trigger to search ideas...”. (W2)

Based on E2, their research ideas that were derived from other RA writers could influence their rhetorical patterns. It shows that they found out the implied patterns of others’ RAs as tricks or tips to organize interesting ideas. In conclusion, all 10 Indonesian writers consciously shaped their rhetorical patterns as a result of learning and reading many RAs from various journals.

4.3 Belief and Self-Confidence

Some writers’ beliefs and self-confidence came up to the surface as their writings were successfully published in journals for the first time. They were more motivated and felt confident to write more RAs. The feeling of happiness became the indicator. It made them continue to write and send the articles to be published since they had got their flow of writing article patterns. They were first successful in making their RA

accepted by the journals, became the basis of making other RAs, and continued the writing activity as a target to be achieved in the next semesters or years to come. By realizing these confidences, they automatically started to shape their rhetorical patterns.

Other writers did not directly express their beliefs and self-confidence but had them. W3 unswervingly stated that she felt comfortable with the pattern of writing integrated results and discussion. It is seen from the following excerpt:

E3 “I was comfortable to integrate result and discussion since there was always result inside discussion”. (W3)

The expression in E3 indirectly shows her belief and self-confidence. Similarly, W5 only stated that he learned how to write an article because he needed it for his studies (i.e., postgraduate degree) overseas. Besides, there are also worth journal articles learned to support the writers’ rhetorical pattern choices. This is similar to what is said in E4.

E4 “I learned good articles when I was in postgraduate, and I had found my pattern of writing, I only needed to search more creative ideas”. (W5)

E4 expressed how W5’s belief about his study qualification contributed to his belief in writing articles. Hence, no matter what kind of belief it is, it can shape their rhetorical patterns at the end. Belief, happiness, comfort, and self-confidence were some unique feelings that existed as internal factors that stimulated each of them to write more and to shape their rhetorical pattern.

4.4 Writing Frequency

The saying ‘practice makes perfect’ is a suitable word for one’s efforts to make his/her work to become better. It is similarly needed to improve one’s ability or skill, that is writing skill. The more frequent one writes; the more qualified his/her writing products will be. By doing so, one person can establish his/her rhetorical pattern.

The writers’ frequency of writing did not only refer to RA, but also conceptual articles, research reports for a grant, books, and book reviews. One of the writers confessed that his writing activities are in the form of articles published in academic journals and mass media (i.e., national newspapers), as quoted from the excerpt:

E5 “I sent my conceptual articles to Jawa Post or Malang Post”. (W4)

From E5, he was not only writing research articles, but also conceptual articles. Similarly, the rest of the writers also shared information that at the beginning, they wrote the conceptual articles to be sent to the journals. They then treated writing articles as a routine of their professional life by planning to write one or two articles a year. It is seen from the number of articles published in journals ranging from about 18-50 articles. This implies that their rhetorical patterns were settled as a result of being active in writing write RAs. As quoted in E6:

E6 “I, fortunately, have written 50 articles”. (W6)

4.5 Awareness in Micro and Macrostructure of Writing

The rhetorical pattern can also be seen in the way the writers organize the micro and macrostructure in their RAs consciously. Microstructure in RA includes the use of word choice, hedging, discourse markers, and sentence forms, while macrostructure is a pattern organizing the order structure of an RA, in which each section in an RA has its macrostructure. According to Swales (1990), this RA macrostructure is called moves. The micro and macro structures are the ones that appear in the discussion section or/and integrated result and discussion section. Through having the awareness above, the writers can make their rhetorical patterns settled.

W1 confirms that he operated the same moves either in English RA discussion and Indonesian RA discussion sections. He informed that the flow of writing discussion sections starts from explaining the results, relating to the previous research or theories, and at last, showing implications theoretically and practically. He added that the difficult part of the move in his English RA discussion is Move VII (Deduction and hypothesis) since the move contains a claim based on findings or results. He chose a better and convenient formula, by using the auxiliary 'may' since his findings had limitations. But he never used the word choice 'may' for a claim in his Indonesian RA. He thought that Indonesian people seemed often to use the word 'may'. He, therefore, stated clearly how his findings were like, and what it was useful for.

W3 also commented on the same ideas as W1. She thought that using 'may' became an important aspect to show that her findings were not true and using discourse markers while writing integrated results and discussion. It is shown in the excerpt:

E7 'This may imply that in Bahasa Indonesia, we can also find universal metaphor...'. (W3)

W3 was aware of using microstructure in both English and Indonesian RAs. She was comfortably expressing the discussion by stating 'there should be or there might/may be'.

Concerning word choice used in RAs, W3 also confirmed that she used the word 'may' to explain the relativity of truth in her research findings. It means that the truth is absolute with some conditions and having an expired limit. The research findings can be broken by others' studies. This statement refers to her excerpt:

E8 "Since as researchers, we know that our findings have relative truth, our findings can be broken down or debated by other researchers, however, we need to believe that what we found truly happens". (W3)

In terms of macrostructure or moves, W3 chose to often use Moves I (background information), II (statement of results), IV (reference to previous research), V (explanation), and VI (exemplification). She has her rhetorical pattern concerning her field of study, which is linguistics. She chose not to use Moves VII (deduction and hypothesis) and VIII (recommendation) since her data were empirical, and the readers could also directly interpret them.

Meanwhile, W2 explains that she preferred to use straight expressions to make readers get the points of discussion. She chose not to manipulate the language. W2 was more comfortable and interested in using a kind of transactional language, which was more practical. W2 also stated that she operated an almost similar micro and macrostructure either for her English or Indonesian RAs. Similar information was also

mentioned by W4 that he had not written his English and Indonesian RAs differently, in terms of using micro and macrostructure.

W5 and W8 reported that they used different expressions in both their English and Indonesian RAs. They used the punctuation mark, comma for additional information in writing English RAs. It was such as constructing a clause through omitting the determiner and then, it was replaced by a comma. They did not use this kind of sentence construction in writing their Indonesian RAs. They confirmed that they were aware of the use of microstructure in writing both English and Indonesian RAs.

In terms of macrostructure or moves, W5 and W10 focused more on the existence of Move II (statement of results), Move III ((un) expected outcome), Move IV (reference to previous research), and Move V (explanation). Thus, containing something new also referred to the evidence of expected outcomes or unexpected outcomes. W5 said:

E9 “Good discussion sections are those containing good interpretation from data that have been compared with others’ research, and having something new”. (W5)

To sum up, all 10 writers confirmed that constructing a good discussion section in both English and Indonesian RAs was needed to operate either proper microstructure or macrostructure. The microstructure was used to make the expression or information clearer and softer. Meanwhile, the macrostructure or moves mostly used are Moves II (statement of results), III ((un) expected outcome, IV (reference to previous research), V (explanation), VI (exemplification), and VII (deduction and hypothesis). Organizing both structures properly indicated that they had the awareness to strengthen their rhetorical patterns.

5. DISCUSSION

By using Swales’ (1990) model to analyze the writers’ discussion sections, the move structures or the rhetorical patterns of discussion sections in both English and Indonesian RAs written by the same Indonesian writers were slightly different. However, most moves exist similarly either in the move structure of Indonesian RA discussion sections or in the move structure of English RA discussion sections. Based on the results, it can be postulated that (1) Indonesian writers’ educational background (field of study) supported them to operate different rhetorical patterns of discussion sections of both in English and Indonesian Ras, (2) Indonesian writers’ personality traits supported them to operate different rhetorical patterns of discussion sections of both in English and Indonesian Ras, and (3) Indonesian writers, who have more writing products published, showed more settled rhetorical patterns of discussion sections of both their English and Indonesian RAs.

The writers’ research interests referred to the field of study that most Indonesian writers mastered. Based on the results, it showed that most Indonesian writers investigated in the present study were majoring in English Language Teaching, Linguistics, and Applied Linguistics. The field of studies can be seen from most RAs that they have written in the text analysis and interview results. Among 10 Indonesian writers investigated in the present study, six writers majored in English Language Teaching, two writers majored in Linguistics, and two writers majored in Applied

Linguistics. In other words, the writers' research interests were linear to their educational background.

Nearly all Indonesian writers' participants were convinced that their research interests emerged since they earned their bachelor's degree and started to teach in universities. They got lots of ideas to be inserted into their RAs by observing and getting involved directly with their surroundings. They also read and learned RAs written by other researchers of the same field, to further dig ideas for writing up their RAs. Furthermore, it implies that their research interests determined their choices of writing patterns.

Accordingly, in the field of English Language Teaching, the writers did not operate Move VI (exemplification), containing examples to support the research result. It shows that they presented a research result that was directly followed by Move IV (reference to previous research) or Move V (explanation) in the discussion sections. This is in line with what [Peacock \(2002\)](#) investigates that Move V occurs most in the Language and Linguistics research field. The Indonesian writers informed that the explanation helped to make their readers better understand what they have written since everything was reported in the result section. Furthermore, [Loi et al. \(2015\)](#) also reported that a good discussion is organized logically and based on points stem from the previous research. The Indonesian writers seemed to choose operating discussion sections into something simple, straight, and effective concerning their purposes. Certainly, their choices were influenced either intentionally or unintentionally by their fields of study, research interests, and educational background namely English Language Teaching.

The Indonesian writers from the field of Applied Linguistics started with the same move, Move VII (deduction and hypothesis). The writers seemed to only operate Move VII (deduction and hypothesis) to replace Move II (statement of result) and continue with Move II or Move V (explanation) as mentioned in the field of English Language Teaching. Similarly, [Mirahayuni \(2002\)](#) notifies that the overlap between points found in the summary and the statement in the concluding remark makes it difficult to determine as parts of Move VII or Move II. On the contrary, [Arsyad et al. \(2020\)](#) report that Move II can be seen occurring before Moves IV and V in a purpose to elaborate and justify the findings of the research. Again, [Atai and Falah \(2005\)](#) find that no Move VII occurs in the discussion sections of Applied Linguistic written by Persian native speakers. Thus, the rhetorical pattern chosen by those writers from the field of Applied Linguistics is, then, not too different from that of the field of English Language Teaching.

In the field of Linguistics, the frequency of move occurrences is less than that of other fields in the present study. Based on the results, W3 showed that the discussion section of the field of Linguistics was integrated with the result section. It is, then, convincing that Move VI (exemplification) occurred more in the discussion section of Linguistics. She seemed to make her discussion section clearer by providing examples. In more detail, she also informed that she frequently operated Moves I (background information) to VI (exemplification), but rarely operated Moves VII (deduction and hypothesis) and VIII (recommendation) in the field of Linguistics. Moves VII and VIII are more suitable for applied research. This is supported by [Peacock \(2002\)](#) that Move VII does not occur in the discussion section of the Language and Linguistics and Move IX, similar to Move VIII (in Swales' Model), occurs less in the discussion section of the Language and Linguistics.

Additionally, while these 10 Indonesian writers reported their results and write the discussion sections in the RAs, they operated nearly similar moves indicated as their settled rhetorical patterns. This is assumed to happen because the way they chose moves was consciously based on their field of study. [Canagarajah \(2006\)](#) adds that using English does not mean using a single way of writing, because the same language may be used to construct different texts or specific modes of writing based on the contexts and communities. This implies that the contexts understood by the writers in the present study were their field of study and their selected topic area of the RAs. They may use the same language, L1 (Indonesian) or L2 (English) in their writing, but they may construct different rhetorical patterns.

Personality traits refer to the quality of the writers' feelings and behaviors that highly appear concerning the writing of discussion sections of both in English and Indonesian RAs. These three personality traits were mostly seen during the Indonesian writers when they shared their activities of writing RAs. Firstly, conscientiousness was seen in the Indonesian writers' experiences of writing the discussion sections of English and Indonesian RAs. The writers felt conscious to recognize the differences in the structure or organization of English and Indonesian writings. However, some of them reported that they did not operate different patterns from writing discussion sections of English and Indonesian RAs. It indicates that they could consciously operate English writing patterns while writing either English or Indonesian RAs. This shows that their quality of English and Indonesian RA discussion sections remained similar. Likewise, [van Weijen et al. \(2009\)](#) comment that L2 proficiency is directly related to L2 text quality, while [Djigić et al. \(2014\)](#) and [Guranda \(2014\)](#) show that conscientiousness helped individuals show more willingness to interact with the members of the L2 community and encourage being more competent in L2 learning. Thus, the conscientiousness and writers' L2 proficiency could lead them to operate a particular rhetorical pattern of the discussion sections of English and Indonesian RAs.

Accordingly, some of them showed that they operated different patterns of the discussion sections between English and Indonesian RAs, in terms of linguistic features. The writers' conscientiousness of linguistic features also indicated their loyalty to the Indonesian discourse community with having different cultural backgrounds. It is in line with what [Canagarajah \(2006\)](#) and [Subandrijo and Susilo \(2007\)](#) suggest that the deviations appearing in the texts of multilingual writers are not errors. They are part of the multicultural background of writers that cannot be abandoned.

The second part of the personality is openness. It refers to the way the writers can accept some beneficial information either in oral or written forms. As academics, the writers read and learned many references to search for organizational ideas of writing RAs and reviewing previous RAs. They, then, composed their organization of writing RAs based on each journal's template although RA has a universal organization consisting of Introduction, Review of Literature, Method, Result, Discussion, and Conclusion sections ([Rakhmawati, 2013](#)). The difference is mostly in terms of particular forms of writing, like numbering, size of font, space, etc. Accordingly, the writers still positively took and accepted the particular organization suggested by a particular journal. This openness was something positive that can maintain their competencies in L2 achievement and interact with the L2 community. Again, [Guranda \(2014\)](#) reports that the openness to novelty is associated with

intelligence, creativity, curiosity, and originality. Thus, the writers' personality of openness led them to create RAs containing their creativity and originality.

The last personality part, identified from the results is self-confidence. Self-confidence refers to the writers' feelings about their experiences or some events faced during their professional life. In the SLA (Second Language Acquisition) area, self-confidence comes up in a similar definition to self-esteem in terms of psychological and social phenomenon. This situation makes an individual able to evaluate his/her competence and own self based on some values (Rubio, 2021). Mardiansyah (2018) also shows that there is a significant correlation between self-confidence and essay writing performance. Besides, He (2019) investigates that personality facets, writing strategy use, and writing performance are found to be closely interrelated with one another. It, therefore, perpetuates a starting point to determine the writers' writing activities. As it is found in the result, one of the writers started writing an article published in mass media. It made him self-confident about his written product being read by other people. He, then, wrote an academic article and send it to a journal. It indicates that he found a way to make other people read his writing and he was also able to determine certain patterns of writing.

Meanwhile, the other writers namely, W3, W5, and W6 did not show a direct feeling of self-confidence, concerning their written products. They implicitly showed their self-confidence by having a good educational background and have learned a lot from some international journal articles. They, therefore, felt self-confident when their settled choice of writing patterns grew in line with their educational achievements. By having felt confident, they write both English and Indonesian RAs as often as possible. It is, then, in line with what Djigić et al. (2014) suggest that self-confident people have the advantages of not fearing rejection as much as those with high anxiety levels and they are, therefore more likely to put themselves in a learning situation and to do so repeatedly. With this sort of feeling, the writer participants could become successful and competent users either in their first language or second language.

The writers' consistency of writing refers to the writers' activities in resulting written products. Their writing products can be in the form of research reports for a grant, books, students' textbooks, books review, conceptual articles, and research-based articles. Based on the interview results, nearly all writers were convinced that they would keep writing, no matter what. They set a sort of individual plan to produce written products at least once a year. They reported that they wrote not only academic articles for journals but also popular articles for the newspaper to maintain their productivity and writing consistency. During their professional life, they had produced 18 to 50 articles published in journals and most articles were written in English. All in all, their writing consistency led them to choose English writing patterns, especially for writing RAs.

To sum up, the writers' consistency of producing written products was not only determined by the number of articles that they had written, but also by the passions they have shown to regularly write articles. Their academic environment also supported them to write more articles and research papers and they became more experienced in writing (Harjanto, 1999). It implies that consistency is a result of the repetition of doing the same thing for a long time. It, then, refers to the achievement of learning L1 and L2, the situation in which each person needs to repeat using a language from time to time, to be a fluent and competent user.

6. CONCLUSION

Concerning the results of the study, there are some points included in the conclusion. First, the Indonesian writers' particular educational backgrounds (field of study) supported them to operate different rhetorical patterns of both English and Indonesia RA discussion sections. The particular move, exemplification is found in Linguistics, but rarely found in other fields: ELT and Applied Linguistics. Thus, their research interests allowed the writers to choose certain moves in the discussion section. Second, the selected Indonesian writers' personality traits supported them to operate different rhetorical patterns of both English and Indonesia RA discussion sections. The personality traits that existed within them had helped and guided them to choose the patterns of writing. Thus, the conscientiousness of linguistic features indicated their loyalty as an Indonesian discourse community with having different cultural backgrounds.

Based on the results of this study, determining factors beyond the writing of the discussion section could be traced from the process of producing RA discussion sections through interviewing and noting the writers' experiences. Unfortunately, the researcher has limited situations such as having only ten Indonesian writers who wrote one English and one Indonesian RAs for the moves analysis and interviews and having limited time to crosscheck RAs with the journals' editors to know how far the editors helped them. All in all, the researcher recommends for further research to search more RA discussion sections written by the writers and to interview the journals' editors.

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EFL Teachers' Identity in Self-Directed Learning: A Work-from-Home Phenomenology

Ashadi Ashadi*¹
Erna Andriyanti¹
Widyastuti Purbani¹
Ihtiara Fitriyaningsih²

¹Applied Linguistics Dept, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta 55281, INDONESIA

²English Language Education Dept, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta 55281, INDONESIA

Abstract

Major potential effects of abrupt changes in educational settings particularly for education stakeholders such as teachers have been somewhat interesting to examine. This study examines how teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in different schooling levels acclimatize their experiences due to the unanticipated Covid-19 outbreak, which forced them to pursue Online Distance Learning (ODL). Employing a phenomenological approach, eight teachers from various educational and psychometric backgrounds in three different provinces in Indonesia shared their experiences in coping with the changes. Before engaging in two semi-structured interviews, they were invited to complete an e-reflection to share their feelings, concerns, difficulties, and challenges. To get to the core of their experience, the data were scrutinized following an interpretive phenomenological analysis which includes an early focus on the lines of inquiry, central concerns and important themes, identification of shared meanings, final interpretations, and the dissemination of the interpretations. The findings demonstrated that the changes created an ambivalent experience of being challenged and bored, prompting teachers to reflect on their existing practice and respond appropriately by combining empathy, new roles, and technology paramount through their

* Corresponding author, email: ashadi@uny.ac.id

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self-directed learning (SDL). Further implications on teacher agency and identity are discussed to shed light on the reshaping of teacher identities due to ODL and SDL.

Keywords: Covid-19, role shifts, self-directed learning, teachers.

1. INTRODUCTION

Coronavirus pandemic has undesirably affected most walks of life all over the world (WHO, 2020). People's patterns of behaviour change in almost all fields to ensure health and survival in response to the spread of the virus. Counteractions to limit the spread of the outbreak have been taken by authorities, communities, and individuals. Even many predictions are made about how people are going to live after the plague (Foreign Policy, 2020). Governments also attempt to consolidate their systems to ensure that patterns develop during the pandemic in each sector, including education.

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) reported that educational institutions, at all levels from kindergartens to universities, have been closed gradually to minimize the spread of the virus (OECD, 2020). UNESCO (2020) estimates that approximately 1.5 billion students and 63 million teachers have stayed away from their traditional face-to-face education setting and begun to implement distance education for safety reasons. The transition from classical classrooms to distance and online learning can be a new experience for teachers at all levels and may be discerned differently depending on their previous individual beliefs, professional practices, and institutional contexts. However, with the sudden occurrence of the pandemic, limited facilities, and skills possessed by involved parties, how they make meaning of their experience and react to the condition is interesting to understand.

Research in ODL has, so far, focused on the use of massive open online course platforms, the discourse of synchronous and asynchronous settings, students' response and self-regulation, and the recent use of social media (Park & Shea, 2020). However, with the pandemic condition, Ploj-Vrtič et al. (2021) argue that the current models belong to forced ODL that is different from Cheawjindakarn et al.'s (2012) conception of EDL given the former's enforced nature. As a result, little is known on how teachers make sense of what they have to face in the forced ODL. Results are also still mixed on how they select and make a decision with an array of available options and limitations which the teachers have to cope with the new mode and roles in teaching.

In response to the dearth of knowledge in this area, this study seeks to understand how EFL teachers perceive their pedagogical knowledge and practice. Teachers become the focus under this present study because they understand the accounts better and eventually these teachers can make a more updated assessment about their future professional practices and nature-institution-discourse-affinity identities (Gee, 2000).

Based on Maxwell's (2005) view, the purpose of qualitative research is to elaborate exactly what a study is about and to guide the process of inquiry. Therefore, this article seeks to understand the crisis-driven instructional undertakings in three regions in Indonesia, namely Yogyakarta, Central Java, and Lampung, through the following questions:

1. What does it mean to change practice from face-to-face to Online Distance Learning (ODL) for English language teachers in the era of the Covid-19 health crisis that forces them to work from home?
2. What roles do these English language teachers play in the newly formed interaction during ODL?
3. How do they do to cope with the sudden change of pedagogical practice to maximize the students' learning?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Online Learning

As previously stated, [UNESCO \(2020\)](#) estimates that more than 50 million teachers have abstained from their conventional teaching setting and begun to employ distance education for safety reasons. The shift from traditional classrooms to remote and online learning can be a novel experience for teachers at all levels, and it may be seen differently depending on their past personal views, professional practices, and institutional contexts. They, in this abrupt situation, therefore, should evince the adaptability, collegiality, and creativity of skilled professionals who are responsible for students' learning within their institutional context ([Selwyn, 2020](#)).

Instructional design and activities in the cyberspace classroom require moving beyond an old fashion of teaching into newer and more up-to-date practices. These involve much more than merely taking old models of pedagogy and shifting them to a more sophisticated mode. In an Online Distance Learning (ODL) setting, [Arabasz and Bake \(2003, p. 2\)](#) defined ODL as instructions occurring online without requirements for traditional face-to-face meetings between teachers and students. It is a combination of courses delivered through a Learning Management System (LMS) or other mediating tools that are facilitated by an instructor who keeps in touch with students through the online conferencing system or their modes of communication ([Cheawjindakarn et al., 2012](#)). They also further suggest five success factors to enhance the effectiveness of an ODL system, namely institutional support, learning environment, instructional design, services support, and course evaluation. These practices are believed to considerably assist the growth of an online learning community, a formidable instrument for improving the learning experience.

Prior to conducting an online course, [Cuellar \(2002\)](#) suggests that individual reflection and understanding of learning philosophies need to be considered. Online design and activities require certain approaches in introducing content, working with learners, and assessing students' achievement. The strategies used by the teachers may be frequently determined by a personal philosophical belief about teaching and learning, as well as institutional philosophy and traditions though the change was so sudden and massive that it forced teachers to rethink and reposition their pedagogical beliefs and practices. Moreover, when considering the Vygotskian sociocultural theory framework, [Ortega \(2014\)](#) characterizes foreign language learning as traditional social-interaction practice, where teacher-students interactions become important but now transformed into ODL.

[Li et al. \(2020\)](#), through their mental and behavioural survey in China, reveal that the public's emotional and behavioural problems in the pre- and post-pandemic of

the COVID-19 do not shift a lot. They have limited involvement in social events because social distancing protocol has kept people not to be close physically to one another. All these conditions have forced educational institutions at all levels to close their campuses and buildings and teachers have to teach from home as most students also stay at home with their parents and families.

2.2 Teachers Working from Home

When students and teachers are all home, they can be connected through the Internet and other communication tools, and according to Doucet et al. (2020), this blight communication is key during school closures. Although the country has an internet penetration rate of only 53.7 percent, lower than many countries in the Asia Pacific, Indonesia is one of the countries with the highest number of internet users in the world; as of December 2017, more than 143 million out of the country's total population of over 260 million were active internet consumers (Moore, 2019).

Boosting evidence from business and economic fields shows that home working could lead to a 13% performance increase, of which about 9% was a result of more minutes per shift (fewer breaks and sick days) and 4% due to a calmer working atmosphere (Bloom et al., 2015). The same study also reports that home workers also improved work satisfaction and experienced less turnover, although their promotion rate conditional on performance dropped. Long before that, Shamir and Salomon (1985) argue that work-from-home (hereafter, WFH) may lead to improvement in the quality of working life only under certain conditions such as sex, childcare responsibilities, type of family, and home conditions. For others, a combination of work-at-home advantages with working outside would provide more benefits. Thus, homeworking cannot be the sole panacea for modern working life (Crosbie & Moore, 2004) even for the teaching profession that often requires teachers to meet face to face with students for more practical activities.

Generally, in more developed and higher education settings like Sweden colleges, Söderström et al. (2012) demonstrate that the transition to online courses has benefited more students as they allow the development of pedagogical productivity. The online system has also contributed to better working conditions for teachers. Thus, it is interesting to see whether such a transition phenomenon works in the same fashion in a developing country setting like Indonesia.

A considerable shift to distance and online teaching of languages around the world has recurred in the last two decades (White, 2007). Meanwhile, Hall and Knox (2009) pinpoint the development in language teacher education by online and distance learning. These studies have shown that although research in distance and online language learning has increased, there has been far less research devoted to language teachers through this medium. Results are also still unclear on how the transition has affected teachers' professional life and mental well-being, particularly in the event of a health crisis causing sudden changes. With this dearth of information on how teachers respond and manage their pedagogies in such a situation, it is, thus, worth investigating a new phenomenon of teaching from distance experienced by Indonesian teachers of English as a foreign language.

Johnson and Golombek (2002, p. 6-7) wrote, "inquiry into experience enables teachers to act with foresight. It gives them increased control over their thoughts and actions, grants them meaningfully deepened and enriched experiences, and enables

them to be more thoughtful and mindful of their work”. Such effort according to [Pulvermacher and Lefstein \(2016, p. 267\)](#) is “a significant way of constructing knowledge about instructional practice and becoming mindful of one’s experience”. This kind of knowledge is assembled and reflected upon and awareness for actions of that knowledge is acquired.

3. METHODS

The study reported here examined how language teachers have responded to the challenges and developed their practice in the transition from classroom settings to Online Distance Learning (ODL). It concentrated mainly on the teacher’s sense-making on their current and shifting pedagogical practices. It is interesting to know how through this crisis they had been required to make considerable changes in the way they were teaching English. The selected phenomenological approach offered teacher participants a way of reflecting on how they handled and reacted to the unexpected changes.

This study employed a phenomenological approach to understanding the experience of EFL teachers in Indonesia who faced difficult times due to the Covid-19 pandemic and had to teach from home. Phenomenology is the study of human experience through the way events present themselves and are perceived by actors ([Sokolowski, 2000](#)). As research of events experienced from the first-person point of view, the current study poses questions that grow out of intense interest in the experience of EFL teachers during the Covid-19 pandemic forcing them to teach from home. This curiosity inspired the search of what and how these professional practitioners apprehend their experience to their professional identities, roles, and actions.

Selection criteria were developed to ensure that homogeneous sample members were obtained to reveal what this WFH experience means to this group of English teachers as suggested by [Patton \(2002\)](#). General considerations include age, gender, and school type, and location, but the participants essentially experienced the WFH phenomenon. [Charmaz \(2012\)](#) argues that the meanings of the phenomenon were similar or shared, regardless of demographics or other descriptors. Thus, it is interesting to examine the different participants’ views.

3.1 Location and Participants

This study was conducted from Yogyakarta special region, Indonesia, by involving eight EFL teachers working in different school levels from elementary, junior, senior, and vocational high schools in its municipality, Bantul, and Kulon Progo, Central Java (Magelang), and Lampung. Besides being volunteer participants, they were also personally interested in sharing their experiences, willing to participate in semi-structured interviews, and giving the investigator the right to tape-record the interview and report the results in academic publications. The sample size, although small ([Vasileiou et al., 2018](#)), is deemed sufficient to reach evidentiary adequacy in terms of adequate amounts of evidence, variety in kinds of evidence, and interpretive status of evidence ([Erickson, 1986](#)).

Table 1. Research participants.

No.	Participant code	Age	Gender	Schooling level	Residence
1.	P1	44	Female	Elementary school	Yogyakarta
2.	P2	53	Female	High school	Bantul
3.	P3	27	Male	Elementary school	Yogyakarta
4.	P4	35	Male	Vocational school	Kulon Progo
5.	P5	45	Female	Junior school	Lampung
6.	P6	28	Female	High school	Bantul
7.	P7	46	Male	Junior school	Magelang
8.	P8	42	Female	Vocational school	Bantul

3.2 Instruments

To collect the data, an e-reflection form was distributed to around forty teachers during a workshop program on teacher pedagogical change from traditional to ODL. This form contained 10 questions to scrutinize their initial perceptions, attitude, and experience in conducting the forced ODL. The results were coded and sorted to construct further interview items for 8 selected participants. Then, an interview guideline consisting of 12 items was developed based on emergent themes in the previous stage. All semi-structured interviews with these teachers were conducted online due to the pandemic situation. Additionally, the participants were requested to collect their lesson plans and a sample of their tasks and communication with the students to corroborate their answers in the previous two collection instruments.

3.3 Data Collections

After the informed consent forms were returned by the participants for ethical and protective purposes, an online reflection form was delivered via an e-messaging platform to gain their initial judgment on the WFH phenomenon. Further interviews and online communication were conducted simultaneously with the ongoing recruitment process. [Vandermause and Fleming \(2011, p. 375\)](#) believe that meaning can emerge as participants share their experiences, articulate their perspectives, and respond to the researcher questions that generate interpretation and add to existing knowledge. Hence, how the interview process is conducted with the participants is vital in generating rich data. Therefore, the interview processes were conducted at least twice for each participant with additional online communication via e-messages and e-mails.

3.4 Data Analysis

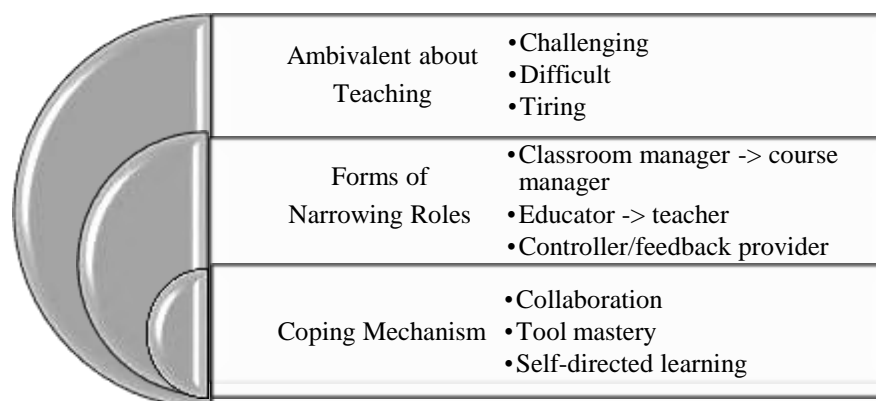
This study employed [Crist and Tanner's \(2003\)](#) five steps in conducting phenomenological analysis. The first step was a critical evaluation of the online reflection and interview transcripts. Any missing or unclear parts were marked thematically and further exploration was discussed. The next step was identifying key concerns and significant themes or paradigmatically clustering meanings emerging for certain participants based on the research questions. As the participants' key concerns became clear, the analysis moved to any shared meanings in the third stage. Hermeneutic interpretive phenomenology does not require investigators to bracket their own assumptions or preconceptions during this process ([Johnson, 2010](#); [Lowes](#)

& Prowse, 2001). In this study, the research stages allowed the implication of the existing conditions, and the shared meanings were positioned in their relevant context accordingly, for example, what occurred in the elementary school setting could be different from the other school settings. In the following stage, the summarized interpretation was linked between meanings discovered within and across accounts to find relational patterns, and finally, a conclusive interpretation was developed.

To increase the trustworthiness of the process and result, this study followed Yardley's (2000) four comprehensive principles for judging the value of qualitative research sensitivity to the context, commitment and rigor, transparency and coherence, and impact and importance. First, sensitivity to the context was developed through building a good rapport with the participants in the forms of flexible scheduling, internet connection aid, and empathy with their difficulties. Commitment and rigor were then conducted through repeatedly reading and listening to what the participants expressed in the interview recordings and transcripts during the analysis stage. Third, all transcripts were returned to the participants for member checks to ensure transparency and coherence. Finally, writing and publication are expected to increase the impact and importance of what the participants experienced and share to a wider audience.

4. RESULTS

After reading and re-reading the transcriptions and listening to the interview recordings, several themes were identified, and these could form an almost uniform pattern at four different levels and types of schools. The first is that teaching from home during the Covid-19 health crisis was considered an ambivalent experience in which there was an impression of burdensome and boredom but stirring from the English teacher participants. Words such as 'challenging', 'difficult', 'severe', and 'mixed' appeared repetitively in e-reflection and interviews with each participant in the following stage. All these lead to the second finding of the experienced role shifts that they thought were different and demanding due to the nature of the newly formed learning interactions. Finally, this section elaborates what efforts were selected by the participants to address new demands and roles in the new forms of interaction and eventually to facilitate the learning process. Based on the thematically analysed data, the findings of this study can be summarized as shown in Figure 1.



Ambivalent about Teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Challenging •Difficult •Tiring
Forms of Narrowing Roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Classroom manager -> course manager •Educator -> teacher •Controller/feedback provider
Coping Mechanism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Collaboration •Tool mastery •Self-directed learning

Figure 1. Summary of the findings.

4.1 Mixed Feelings

Our analysis shows that participating teachers shared the brink of burdening, yet challenging feelings due to the ongoing pandemic that has forced them to teach from distance. Under such conditions, they admitted the shift from face-to-face teaching to Online Distance Learning (ODL) was twofold. On one hand, the experience was thought-provoking in the way that they must adapt to the new mode of technology-assisted pedagogy and thus adopt a different approach from the previous condition. On the other hand, ODL had created a new responsibility in the forms of preparation, learning feedback provision, and assessment which they needed to adjust. In the first interview, for example, P1 complained (D is for Data):

D1 “Oh, I never expected that giving feedback and marking my students’ works is so tedious. It really takes time. I must face my laptop all day”. (P1)

P1 admitted missing her students and interacting with them at school like what happened before the plague. This challenging but tiring experience also required the research participants to be able to adapt to new conditions and it required mastery of the sophisticated classroom management with the help of information technology to create attractive and competitive learning designs, activities, and assignments. These are important because research shows that student involvement in the form of response and participation in technology-mediated classes is important in the efforts to improve their learning (Henrie et al., 2015). Otherwise, according to them, the students’ responses tend to be minimalist and the learning process would not be maximized.

As most of their students come from low to middle socioeconomic backgrounds, P7 reported setbacks in terms of student attendance and engagement in the ODL activities since the introduction of WFH.

D2 “Some of my students missed the class; others turned off their camera and some even did not submit their work online”. (P7)

P8, meanwhile, revealed that fewer and fewer students were actively involved in her English online class interaction.

D3 “The longer this ODL is, the more and more students are absent from my class, perhaps their phones run out of the credit”. (P8)

P8 tried to understand the difficult condition. A similar phenomenon was also felt by P6 who taught in a rural high school. In response to such situations, their schools then allowed some students with no internet access to pick up and submit their work offline at school. This dual policy was an effort to maintain education quality and learning access for all students.

The dilemmatic situation has taught these participants to be wiser and more assertive in reflecting on their interactions with students. On one hand, they wanted to get closer and be a real teacher as in the pre-pandemic practices although the distance and access prevented them from doing so. On the other hand, they felt sad as most of the students could not afford to let their cameras on all the time during their online meetings due to the limited internet access. Thus, Brenner (1997) claims that distance education is not for all students, but only for those who are motivated, and self-

regulated can be justified only when all individuals share the same access. In the end, these teachers admitted the gap and the need to understand the circumstantial changes more carefully by considering equality for all as the economic impacts of the pandemic on their students' parents inevitably influence their new forms of interaction and roles in pedagogical practices.

4.2 Narrowing Roles

All participants also considered that their role in teaching was significantly reduced due to the absence of face-to-face meetings. P8 explained that she could no longer be a 'language model' for her students so that she felt the need to provide more 'language exposure' to them. Almost all participants also felt lost the psychological touch which they used to do when motivating students directly in conventional classes. This is in line with [Turner's \(2001\)](#) statement which places the teacher's role as a series of tasks or activities that may be contradictory. Role theory also believes that expectations for roles can differ in terms of time, situation, and individual. The Covid-19 crisis has forced English teachers to learn, decide, and adjust to new roles that might be lost, diminished, emerged, or even enlarged.

At the elementary school level, P1 and P3 felt that their role as educators (involving teaching and disciplinary control) was being taken over by parents so that they realized the need to maintain good communication with parents. An almost similar voice was also heard from P5 who felt that she needed parental assistance to motivate and check her students' learning. Meanwhile, in the higher levels (high schools), students are thought of being less dependent on their parents as stated by P2 in D4 and P7 in D5.

D4 "I can no longer remind small things to discipline them (students) like carrying a dictionary or even just tightening their shoelaces". (P2)

D5 "Now I can only give materials and assignments, but another responsibility as an educator is missing". (P7)

Such statements sound relevant to what [McLoughlin and Oliver \(1999, p. 39\)](#) noted on teacher roles in face-to-face learning, namely manager, expert, disciplinarian, controller, distributor of information, goal setter, and timekeeper. However, in an online setting, these roles shift to resource, co-participant, scaffolder, co-learner, moderator, facilitator, coach, monitor, and advisor. Such shift according to [Smith and Ragan \(1999, p. 125\)](#) is due to several factors involving learners' characteristics, types of learning tasks, and contexts in which learning occurs. In the present study, these influences also featured in the way teachers viewed their students, the specific nature of English as a foreign language, and the school setting (levels/grades) where each participant taught.

4.3 Coping Mechanism

Following the challenges of crisis conditions and shifts in their roles in the new mode of teaching, the research participants stated that their level of technological mastery also played a significant role in their efforts to adjust to the existing changes. Using metaphors in elaborating the teacher's role in the use of technology, [Goos et al. \(2003\)](#) describe the relationship of the two, such as master, servant, partner, and

extension of self. Some teachers had been able to make technology a partner in working from home, while others still made technology their master. Most of the participants were quite surprised by the changes that forced them to learn new tools, methods, and roles related to instructional technology. Additionally, there were also problems related to the limitations of knowledge, skills, and experience, school culture, connectivity, and facilities owned by the schools and students. This complexity made the participants make sense of their own problems, experiences, and limitations to meet the demand of distance learning. Thus, their decisions to adapt to the new teaching vary depending on their own working contexts.

Besides, the demand for teacher adaptation in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes in dealing with sudden changes had inevitably forced the participants to make choices for a rational action to facilitate the learning process. In the psychology literature, the term 'coping mechanism' is often used to explain how one deals with a difficult situation, for instance how teacher participants attempted to help their students understand the lesson despite the limited facilities and skills.

D6 "...make video content according to basic competencies mandated in the curriculum". (P8)

D7 "...still doubtful because she still needed to edit the learning media that she developed with the help of her eldest son". (P5)

P5 and P8 said that they began to develop video content based on the basic competencies required in the curriculum. If P8 (in D6) dared to upload it to YouTube, P5 (in D7) was still hesitant since she needed to finish editing the instructional materials she had created with the help of her eldest son. P8 chose the platform by considering its popularity, and cellular operators often have free programs to access uploaded videos in it. These examples show how teachers make sense of all factors for the ease of teaching and learning by considering the problems, limitations, and difficulties in the new form of interaction.

Concerning the problems above, the participants were expected to ease the burden on students and parents while still being able to maintain their role as instructors. In this case, they applied a concept called by [Graham and Parry \(2007\)](#) as 'technology-assisted language learning' (TALL) which is now increasingly popular during the Covid-19 crisis because of the use of various technology applications by teachers in the context of effective English learning ([Ko & Goranson, 2014](#)). In Europe, [van der Spoel et al. \(2020\)](#) report that the teachers have the intention to employ technology more after the COVID19-pandemic, compared to how frequently they used it in their practices before the plague. The current study also confirms [van der Spoel et al. \(2020\)](#) that the participating educators have the intention to maintain technology integration in their teaching, even when the condition is back to normal as voiced by P2 and P5, respectively.

D8 "I will surely keep and improve what I've learned during these difficult years even if the pandemic has gone". (P2)

D9 "It's ridiculous to step back or go back to our previous practice. There are things we can learn from our instructional mode today". (P5)

These adaptations and choices of rational actions become the variables that distinguish one teacher from the others relevant to their background, context, and capability. In the context of technology integration, however, benefits will be assessed in relation to whether students' learning processes and outcomes can improve

(Howard, 2011). Almost all participants of this study explained that not all teaching colleagues adapted to the new working environment because this was a choice that had to be made based on different considerations. Some senior teachers who were almost retired, according to the participants, tended to be apathetic about the changes occurring, and most were reluctant to adjust to the new technical and psychological demands in this inevitable distance and abrupt learning format. Although not all behaved that way, similar voices were heard in interviews with the participating teachers from various schools. Such a phenomenon is called risk aversion in behavioural research. Holt and Laury (2002) define it as the inclination to avoid risks and to prefer secure options over less secure ones. Highly risk-averse individuals, like the senior teachers mentioned by the participants, prefer a secure option. However, it may offer a lower expected value. Uncertainty surrounding technology, teaching, and change are unlikely to be answered with any confidence except that teaching and technology will continue to change, so that uncertainty will continue to exist, and with change, risks will always follow. Answering this, the key to helping teachers effectively engage with technology and change, according to Howard (2013), is to understand what teachers are at stake if they do not adapt and what they consider risky when they have to learn a new way of teaching. In other words, it is necessary to revive the meaning of being a teacher in the era of uncertainty as what the participants are facing today. To do that, the following discussion disentangles each finding for a better understanding of the issue of teacher agency and identity.

5. DISCUSSION

This section scrutinizes the previous findings through connection with relevant theories and recent literature. First, this study has shown that the participating teachers embraced the principle of adjacent possibility when faced with dilemma and complexity due to the forced nature of the current ODL. The application, however, depended on individual preference, risk aversion, and subjective assessment. Their participation in community and practice also played a role in their sense-making and further selected actions. Eventually, the unexpected transition to ODL had led to teachers' self-directed learning (SDL) which was both shaped, and shaped by their nature, institution, discourse, and affinity identities.

5.1 The Impact of Unexpected Shifts

Palloff and Pratt (1999, p. 18) explain that as teachers begin the online courses, they need to shift roles to help the students by either keeping an eye on the debate and urging the students to look at the subject in a different light or by gently steering the conversation back on track. Thus, the ODL environment requires them to improve presentation skills, pedagogical capabilities, virtual administration procedures, and the capacity to engage learners through simulated interaction (Berge & Collins, 1995). In the newly experienced ODL, P2 and P7 highlighted a key social role including forming a learning community, assisting students to work in groups, and developing a culture for productive collaboration. Combined with the lack of facilities in the current research setting, Easton (2003) claims that the boundary of traditional and online instructor roles is not clear nor easier as the latter also needs to do managerial

responsibilities, from maintaining students' records to facilitating self-directed learning. Moreover, monitoring student progress in an ODL setting could be even more difficult and tedious than in the traditional classroom as enunciated by most of the participants.

The current study has demonstrated the loss of hands-on experiences and effects on workload, diminishing professional roles, traditional interactions with students, pedagogical practices, and EFL teachers' own educational philosophies. All of these seem to threaten teachers' future practices when not carefully dealt with as how the participants viewed some of their senior colleagues who were seen as risk-averse in terms of technology-related demands. Regarding identity process theory, [Jaspal and Breakwell \(2014\)](#) denote the importance of examining how individuals react when their identity is threatened so that a better understanding of the force to identity construction processes can be achieved. [Clegg \(2008\)](#) adds that identity could not be displayed only from a position or a state, but it comes through contestation. Threats to identity can happen when the identity process and assimilation of accommodation and evaluation do not comply with the existing norms. A threat may come internally from the condition where one tries to change position with the current environment, or social network, or when there are conflicts within the assimilation-accommodation-evaluation processes.

On the other hand, a threat may stem from external changes in the social conditions such as the pandemic which has compelled teachers to teach from home. This pandemic condition has become a kind of threat to teacher identity as it impedes the principled processes of their roles in the profession. Essentially, threats demand changes to either the substance or the value dimensions of teacher identity which would be incompatible with the ongoing changes in the profession. It is important to note from P7's and other participants' voices that such changes are inevitable and must be seen as a challenge to the individual's integrity as a teacher. [Kauffman's \(1995\)](#) adjacent possible theory could well explain the phenomenon. To survive, all living beings including teachers as autonomous agents have had to evolve gradually toward higher complexity. P5 and P8 have exemplified such principles through their efforts in creating videos for their students for asynchronous learning activities which, as specified in the words of [Hodges et al. \(2020\)](#), may be more realistic than synchronous ones due to their flexibility with deadlines. Elaborating the adjacent possible theory, [Johnson \(2010, p. 363\)](#) explains that at any moment the world is capable of extraordinary changes and only certain changes can happen. The 'adjacent possible' allows its boundaries to grow so that individuals can explore and select the possible ones next to them.

Participating teachers nevertheless demand relevant training to adapt to the new situation, given the pandemic's abrupt and unpredicted character. Even in a more advanced education setting, [Moorhouse \(2020\)](#) highlights the need for such training for teachers who are prepared to deliver courses online. The dilemmatic feeling voiced by the participants in the current study could probably be reduced if they had been given preparation training previously. [Goos \(2011\)](#) points out that the integration of technology-supported teaching in the teacher training program has a positive impact on teachers' employment of technology in their future instructional practice. The absence of preparation seems to have created the burden and difficulties experienced by the participants. If it is not carefully addressed, their agency and identity as a teacher

can be threatened and they may handle it by adapting to the new situation through different reasoned actions.

5.2 New Identity to Cope with New Normality

Identity process theory suggests that when the common condition does not comply with self-motivational values, identity is threatened, including teachers in this study. As a result, individuals will participate in strategies for coping with the threat (Covid-19 forces them to work from home). A coping strategy according to [Breakwell \(2015\)](#) is any form of activity as a purpose in the exclusion or adjustment of a threat to one's identity. The participants of this study also felt the risk to their professional identity as a teacher due to the unending spread of the virus. Therefore, they looked for activities that might eliminate the barriers or help them to cope with the demand for ODL. Such efforts may drastically influence how teachers engage with other social, professional, and official groups, eventually their identity.

Identity according to [Leary and Tangney \(2011\)](#) is a transdisciplinary notion drawn from several theories of psychology, social psychology, anthropology, sociology, and cultural studies. [Eccles \(2009, p. 78\)](#) theorizes identity that covers the subsequent queries as “Who am I? What am I about? What is my place in my social group? What is important to me? What do I value? What do I want to do with my life?” Meanwhile, [Norton \(2010\)](#) explains it as how an individual comprehends his or her association to the world, how it is constructed throughout time and space dimensions, and how s/he understands options for the forthcoming conditions. Further, [Danielewicz \(2001, p. 10\)](#) defines it as one's understanding of him/herself and how s/he views other people.

These well-established operationalizations of identity have added to the diverse perspectives in the area, while [Gee's \(2000\)](#) classification of identities outlines identities from different views (see Table 2). Gee introduces four types of identities that intertwine each other. First, Nature-identity (N-identity) is created by nature or is organically intrinsic without any actions for example twins and genders. Next, Institution-identity (I-identity) is constructed as one holds a societal role in a system, for example being a teacher or a student. Such identity is achieved by efforts and influenced by a set of authorities that determine the rights and responsibilities of any role in the system. Third, Discourse-identity (D-identity) relates to an individual feature for example being energetic or charismatic that is developed through encounters and interactions with others. Finally, Affinity-identity (A-identity) is gained through how one links or mingles oneself with a certain group or community (e.g., student association or teacher discussion groups). This identity is realized through a set of social or professional activities in which commitment, admission, and involvement become key features of such identity. These four views on identities provide a fine-grained explanation of what identity means by nature, institution, discourse, and community, as summarized in the following table.

Hence, identity is a set of self-constructs, naturally given and socially constructed, institutionally imposed, discursively recognized, and communally shared. These identities are conceptualized in combination as ways of being, doing, acting, behaving, interacting, verbalizing or languaging, thinking, feeling, believing, valuing, relating to others, and using tools/artifacts in certain ways. This idea, therefore, seems to agree with what [Varghese et al. \(2005\)](#) suggest that teacher identity is a completely

individual, psychological, yet social matter. The subjective feelings that how English language teachers as individuals perceive themselves and how they view other teachers considerably affect their choices on instructional practices, and at the same time, the supporting environment in the institutional settings also impinges on the formation, negotiation, and growth of teacher identity.

Table 2. Gee's (2000, p. 100) classification of identities.

No	Type	Process	Power	Source of power
1.	Nature-identity (N-identity)	a state	developed from forces	in nature
2.	Institution-identity (I-identity)	a position	authorized by authorities	within institutions
3.	Discourse-identity (D-identity)	an individual trait	recognized in	the discourse/dialogue of/with "rational" individuals
4.	Affinity-identity (A-identity)	experiences or a set of practices	shared in	the practice of "affinity groups" or a community of social practices

Proposing the area of Embodied Cognition, Odendahl (2020) notes that all mental processes are rooted in physical interaction progressions. Comprehension, therefore, lies in allowing physical key experiences to be replicated in a series of attempts and activities. In the context of teacher sense-making, such a way can be related to the working of subjectivity and preference. The participants' physical experiences in professional activities may generate meanings because these show a subjectively perceived affective combination of dilemmatic feelings they experience during the pandemic. The subjective feelings combined with the change in the roles in the newly formed interactions and their own prior knowledge, skills, as well as experiences had brought about different rational choices which they take to navigate the teaching and learning process. Likewise, Shelley et al. (2013, p. 560) also found that "both experience and context, the developing trajectories of teacher learning, and the emergent, dynamic nature of that learning" significantly contribute to this sense-making.

5.3 Agency in Self-directed Learning

The findings suggest that self-directed learning (SDL) demands teachers to adopt new roles, but it does not mean that they are excessive and should strictly learn everything. Instead, in SDL, teachers can take such important varied roles as facilitator, empowering agent, and resource agent (Bull, 2017). SDL is about allowing and equipping learners to take control of their learning more especially in the current pandemic condition. Proponents of SDL claim that creating an advancement toward this type of learner independence is important for a collection of valuable and critical skills for autonomy and a high degree of agency in the rest of life.

With respect to this, it is interesting to relate how SDL and agency as the latent potential for self-initiated engagement (Mercer, 2011) can assist the teachers' efforts in a distance education system. While a great deal of discussion has been made in agency theory that pertains to social actions, the current study has shown the explanation of social actions as executed by the participants under limited knowledge, skills, and facilities. Priestley et al. (2015) propose an ecological concept of agency originated from pragmatist philosophy that is concerned with the way by which

educators may assertively form their own responses to problems which they face. Agency, in this case, can mean a teacher's learning capacity to make an individual choice and to act in a way that makes a difference in his/her students' learning as P8 and P5 did. This definition denotes self-driven decision-making and autonomy which make teachers agents of change.

Using web-based professional development for elementary school teachers, Beach (2017) agrees with Borko (2004) and Kao et al. (2011) that teachers learn in some different realms of practice, including classrooms, school communities, professional development programs, and other networks. P8, in the current study for example, also provided a clear example of how she learned video editing from her teenage kid. To understand how such teachers learn and make decisions, therefore we must study the various contexts they might be engaged in.

In Indonesia, English teachers commonly gather and share ideas and concerns within a subject teacher discussion group (community of practice) at school and district levels. In this way, SDL and agency, as mentioned above, may reveal the levels of involvement with professional learning, meaningful self-directed learning experiences, and greater connections between professional knowledge and teacher practice.

In brief, the agency, voice, and identity of English teachers participating in the current study seem to become drivers of their own meaningful, hands-on and empowering professional development in which they can take full initiative, responsibility, self-direction, and relevance to their own scholarship (Widodo, 2017). Later, the engaged teachers, whose actions were self-initiated or self-directed rather than prescribed by the more knowledgeable or the textbook, can exercise their agency, actualize their voice, and enact their identity as Thiele (2003) also agrees that online learners are likely more self-governing, self-disciplined, and self-trusting.

6. CONCLUSION

The pandemic has compelled the participating teachers to change and adapt their practice into forced ODL and requires them to learn and employ new approaches in the English teaching preparation, instructional practice, and evaluation of learning, including feedback provision. All these shifts, however, might have been predisposed teachers to personal conflicts, involving their beliefs and external expectations as an effort to appear as 'good' teachers (Eslamdoost et al., 2019) and cope with 'threatened identity' because of the sudden change. From this perspective, their nature (N) identity has been unchanged, but their institution (I) identity is somewhat disturbed as their schools are strongly affected by health measures and forced ODL despite limitations from different parties. The path which the teachers have taken to adapt to a new phenomenon is alternative and subject to own experience, needs, knowledge, and skills leading to self-directed learning (SDL). Thus, their discourse (D) identity rationalizes their own practice to the existing condition resulting in different judgments and alternatives. Their involvement in a different community of practices has also examined their affinity (A) identity which shapes and is shaped by the teachers' activities in forums, associations, and networks of professional communities.

This study has outlined the significance of SDL which seems to meet each teacher's needs and goals for improving the teaching and learning process regardless

of the condition. Despite the limitation in data gathering due to the pandemic situation, this study reveals that the participating English teachers inevitably improve their daily teaching practices and roles under a coercive situation. Hence, future research can be directed to examine, on a larger scale, whether teacher agency, their voice and professional identity in SDL remain intact even if the condition is back to new normal or experiencing other sudden unexpected changes.

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L2 Attitude and Motivation of Secondary, Undergraduate, and Postgraduate ESL Learners in India

Sarat Kumar Doley*

¹Department of English, School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Tezpur University, Tezpur 784028, INDIA

Abstract

Second language (L2) attitude and motivation-related studies focusing on differences caused by age have mostly highlighted the temporal dimension of L2 attitude and motivation. Age-related L2 motivation studies have also been gainfully employed at comparisons between L2 learners of different age groups recruited from different L2 learning environments. Such studies have not, however, attempted an analysis of the L2 attitudinal and motivational differences that may exist among L2 learners within a closer age range, e.g., 18 to 25 years. This article presents the findings of an L2 attitude and motivation survey, using a modified version of Dörnyei et al. (2006) and Ryan (2005), conducted among secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate English as a second language (ESL) learners ($N > 210$) in India. It primarily presents a comparative analysis of the L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs of integrativeness, instrumentality, cultural interest, linguistic self-confidence, and L2 anxiety attested in the sample. Additionally, it offers a description of the correlation between the five L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs concerning the different ESL groups. As the ESL learners across the academic levels demonstrated ESL motivation more on the side of instrumentality, they also reported linguistic self-confidence more in the familiar environment of an L2 classroom than outside of it. Since better motivational strategies enhance learner dedication to the learning of a certain L2, an elaborated understanding of the specific differences in L2 attitude and motivation within this important age range should help design more useful and effective L2 pedagogical methods.

* Corresponding author, email: dolesar@tezu.ernet.in

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Keywords: Age-related difference, English as L2, instrumentality L2 anxiety, L2 motivation.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Theoretical Background

Motivation is identified as one of the main determinants of individual differences in the success or failure of the second language (L2) learning (e.g., [Dörnyei, 1994a](#); [Gardner, 1985](#); [Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972](#)). Neither appropriate curricular imparted through good teaching nor can an exceptional individual intellectual ability of a learner alone ensure higher achievement in L2 learning, if the learner is not sufficiently motivated ([Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998](#)). In various attempts at the description of the basic dimensions of L2 motivation, several theoretical possibilities have been identified. One of these is the L2 motivational self-system in which seven components of L2 motivation—integrativeness, instrumentality, attitude to the L2 speaker community, milieu, linguistic self-confidence, cultural interest, and ethnolinguistic vitality—have been proposed ([Dörnyei et al., 2006](#)).

In addition to those components, language anxiety is also recognized as an important dimension of L2 motivation in other studies (e. g., [Gardner, 2007, 2010](#)). Moreover, the temporal dimension of L2 motivation, since the achievement of L2 proficiency is a long-term goal involving sustained long periods of learning, and its impact on individual learner achievement has also been identified as significant ([Chambers, 1999](#); [Gardner et al., 2004](#); [Tachibana et al., 1996](#); [Williams & Burden, 1999](#); [Williams et al., 2002](#)). L2 motivation is perceived as a cyclic process, to emphasize more on the importance of the temporal dimension, fluctuating over time affecting L2 achievement and getting affected by it ([Dörnyei, 2001](#)). In other words, the factor of age difference has been identified as a significant construct, along with other extraneous influences, that may potentially affect the degree and intensity of L2 motivation experienced by the L2 learners with the possibility particularly in the context of formal L2 instruction that motivation for it may decline with age ([Dörnyei, 1994a](#)).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Research in highlighting the temporal dimension of L2 motivation has been, however, attentive more to issues of how learners' views of L2 motivation change over their personal histories and less on the systematic investigation of the attitudinal and motivational dispositions observed within a single L2 environment across samples of L2 learners with age differences ([Kormos & Csizer, 2008](#)). Considering the need for the development of different motivational strategies for better pedagogical practices in L2 education, specific differences in L2 motivation among various learner groups concerning both these orientations need to be equally understood in depth. With this perspective in mind, the present article primarily attempts at a description and analysis of the similarities and differences in five major L2 attitudinal and motivational dimensions of integrativeness, instrumentality, cultural interest, linguistic self-confidence, and L2 anxiety observed among three ESL (English as a second language)

learner groups: secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate level Indian ESL learners. Additionally, it offers a description of the correlation between the L2 classroom centric attitudinal and motivational dimensions/constructs—linguistic self-confidence and L2 anxiety—and the rest of the three L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs of integrativeness, instrumentality, and cultural interest concerning three groups of Indian ESL learners.

L2 teaching programs in highly motivational environments in favour of the concerned L2 potentially develop more dedicated language learning habits among L2 learners (Dörnyei, 2019; Muir et al., 2021). But the L2 motivational behaviours may show differential dynamics in relation to the sources or factors fostering such L2 motivation (Adolphs et al., 2018). What works for a particular group of learners may not be a complete guarantee of a successful L2 motivational strategy for another. Only an in-depth understanding of the specific differences in L2 attitude and motivation among L2 learner groups will lead to a more practically oriented understanding of the L2 learning practices conducive to L2 motivation within a particular classroom type.

1.3 Objectives and Research Questions of the Study

To achieve the broad aim of understanding the L2 attitudinal and motivational behaviours of the three Indian ESL learner groups of secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate students, the study set three specific objectives. First, it aimed to analyse the differences and similarities in the five L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs identified for the study vis-à-vis the three Indian L2 learner groups. Second, it attempted to measure the correlations among the five L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs in relation to the three Indian ESL learner groups. Third, the study proposed to measure the effects of the L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs of L2 anxiety and linguistic self-confidence on the other three constructs with reference to the three groups of Indian ESL learners. Keeping these specific objectives in mind, the study posed the following three research questions:

1. What are the differences and similarities in the L2 motivational constructs vis-a-vis the secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate ESL learners of India?
2. How are the five L2 motivational constructs identified for the study correlated in relation to the secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate ESL learners of India?
3. Is there any correlation between L2 anxiety and linguistic self-confidence and the other three L2 attitude and motivation constructs vis-à-vis the secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate ESL learners of India?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Components of L2 Motivation

The five scales of L2 motivation identified and selected for the analysis—anxiety, integrativeness, instrumentality, linguistic self-confidence, and cultural interest—appeared inclusive of the various dimensions of L2 motivation that the study aimed to understand. They represented the major components of L2 motivation that took into account both the general L2 attitudinal aspects and L2 instructional issues discussed in L2 motivation literature. Integrativeness, one of the key components in the early

conceptualization of L2 motivation, is defined as a positive outlook on the L2 and its culture, and higher scores in this construct reflect the L2 learners' desire to become similar to the L2 speaker community by integrating themselves into the L2 culture (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Lambert, 1980). It is one of the more widely discussed concepts in the field of motivation studies and it has been viewed as a significant way to empirically investigate various aspects of the L2 learning process (e.g., Clement, 1980; Clement & Kruidenier, 1985; Dörnyei, 1990, 1994a, 1994b; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Gardner et al., 1992, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Schumann, 1986). Despite being the principal building block of many theoretical constructs of L2 motivation, the notion of integrativeness, however, lacks any parallel ideas in the areas of motivational psychology and remains somewhat of an enigma (Dörnyei, 2003). The meaning of the term has been stretched as per the individual emphasis of researchers and slightly varies across L2 motivational studies (Gardner, 2001).

Instrumentality, a comparatively less ambiguous concept than integrativeness, is yet another very frequently used notion in L2 motivational studies (e.g., Kraemer, 1993; Lukmani, 1972; Shaaban & Ghaith, 2008; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Warden & Lin; Wen, 1997). Understood as the construct that provides the greatest driving force in the L2 learning process, it is defined as the perceived practical benefits of acquiring proficiency in the L2 (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2005). It provides the practical reasons for L2 learning in terms of functional achievements such as getting jobs, good salary, etc., and supplies the utilitarian stimulus for learning the L2 (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Identified as a tangible dimension of L2 motivation that emerges for the underlying promise of a touchable and saleable prize in the learning of the L2, it is a part of the greater desire to do something for the hope of a substantial return (Tileston, 2010).

The notion of cultural interest, on the other hand, is associated with the L2 learners' appreciation of cultural products such as films, videos, TV programs, music, magazines, books, etc. in the L2, especially in certain learning environments where direct contact with the L2 speakers is minimal (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2005). It represents the socio-cultural dimension of L2 motivation and measures the L2 learners' enthusiasm to know about the world, cultural products, social and cultural life of the target language group (Clement & Kruidenier, 1983). The cultural interest dimension of L2 motivation demonstrates the importance of L2 cultural products in shaping the L2 learners' attitude to the L2 by familiarizing them with the L2 community (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2005). Linguistic self-confidence, another important notion in L2 motivation studies, is described as the anxiety-free self-belief that the L2 learners have about their personal ability and the available resources in the learning environment required for mastering the L2 (Clement, 1980; Clement et al., 1977). Concerned with a generalized perception of one's coping potentials regarding a task, it represents the personal belief of the L2 learner about his or her capacity to successfully finish the task and it may either specifically refer to the learning of a particular language or L2 learning in general without involving any specific target language (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2005). With the quality and quantity of social contact in the L2 as the principal antecedents of linguistic self-confidence, it has been considered not only crucial in multicultural contexts but also mono-cultural linguistic environments (Clement et al., 1994; Lou & Noels, 2016, 2017).

The notion of language anxiety has also received considerable attention in L2 motivational studies for the last four decades (Gkonou et al., 2017). Defining anxiety

as the individual emotion of apprehension in the consciousness of the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger, 1983), the notion of L2 anxiety refers to the feeling of tension and apprehension experienced in the acts of listening, learning, and speaking in the context of an L2 (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Depending upon its source and nature anxiety has been either categorized as trait anxiety, referring to a stable feeling to get anxious all the time, and state anxiety, triggered by external stimuli, that changes intensity over time (Spielberger et al., 1976; Suzuki & Childs, 2016), or facilitating anxiety that strengthens learner's performance, and debilitating anxiety in which learner's performance is negatively affected (Scovel, 1978). Regarded both as the cause and the consequence of academic performance, anxiety is often implicated for impaired performance and lower grades on tests (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre, 2017; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Language learning anxiety has been classified as trait anxiety that recurs in the context of language learning (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b) and L2 anxiety may be described as situation-specific anxiety that fluctuates across varying situations (Horwitz et al., 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b). It has been identified as a debilitating factor in the learning of an L2 as anxiety negatively affects the process of L2 learning (Horwitz & Young, 1991). Anxiety in L2 learning experienced by learners has been reported to have a negative effect on their oral performance in the L2 (Tóth, 2017; Young, 1986). Additionally, it may even inhibit the growth of intrinsic motivation for a task by negatively affecting the potential flow experience involved in it (Oxford, 2017).

2.2 Age-related Difference in L2 Motivation

Establishing a connection between the factors of age and motivation, a decline in work motivation coinciding with age has been observed in work motivation studies that have led to the idea that the hedonic treadmill effect consequent upon age decreases work motivation (Warr, 2001). This relationship between age and motivation has been attested in L2 motivation studies, too. Seventh-graders were observed to have scored significantly higher than ninth-graders on various dimensions of L2 motivation such as, need for the language, integrative orientation, positive attitude towards the L2 instructors, perceived self-ability, and L2 success (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Williams et al., 2002; You et al. 2016). On another occasion, elementary students were found to be more motivated toward learning foreign languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Korean than secondary students (Sung & Padilla, 1998). Confirming the fact that younger learners were more motivated than older learners (Baker & MacIntyre, 2008) further, age was found to be an influential factor in a study of college-going learners of Chinese in which the younger learners, influenced by their friends' opinion about the language classes and professors at school as well as their desire to study in a Chinese-speaking country, were observed to be more positive toward Chinese language learning (Sung, 2010). There were a few studies, however, with contradictory findings. A group of around 20-year-old Chinese immigrant learners of English in Hong Kong was found to be more motivated to learn English than a younger group of L2 learners (Wong, 2008). In another study, the youngest group of secondary school learners of English of the three different age groups of Hungarian language learners was reported to display the lowest language learning motivation towards English—the other two groups being university students and adult learners (Henry & Cliffordson, 2013; Kormos & Csizer, 2008).

Several reasons have been proposed to justify the findings of these studies on the relationship between age and motivation in language learning. First, it was suspected that the younger language learners were more motivated towards learning the language because there was a pre-existing general tendency in school-based learning in which motivation for language learning decreases by the time learners reach secondary school (Dörnyei et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Williams et al., 2002). Second, it was proposed, explaining the lower motivation for English language learning observed among younger learners, that the compulsory nature of learning English in schools where the learners needed to continue learning the language, they had chosen till the end of the secondary school years was the reason for the decline in motivation (Kormos & Csizer, 2008). Third, it was believed in the case of the Chinese immigrant learners that the older Chinese immigrant learners were much more motivated to learn English than the younger group of learners because the older learners were required to pass the English test included in an important public university entrance examination (Wong, 2008).

3. METHODS

3.1 Design and Procedure of the Study

The details of the research design and the procedure of data collection adopted in the study are explained in the following three sub-sections.

3.1.1 Selection of the participants

The participants of the survey were selected using stratified random sampling. The sample was a mix of adolescent and adult Indian ESL learners comprising three groups in a range of age between 18 and 25 years—secondary school students (18-19 years), undergraduate students (19-21 years), and postgraduate students (21-25 years). An effort was also made to keep both male and female representatives in the sample. Although the target sample size was initially around 500, the majority of the contacted participants either abstained from responding or responded to only a small number of items in the questionnaire.

Table 1. Demographic details.

Level of class	N	Sex	
		Male	Female
Secondary students	72	43	29
Undergraduate students	67	32	35
Postgraduate students	79	24	55
Total	218	99	119

Altogether, 218 complete responses were collected in the survey out of which, as shown in Table 1, 72 were from secondary school students, 67 from undergraduate, and 79 from postgraduate students. The participants in the survey were distributed across different schools, colleges, and universities in India and they were from a wide selection of academic disciplines—humanities, sciences, management, engineering, and commerce. A total number of 24 institutions located in the four different regions of the

country—east, west, north, and south—were contacted for the survey. Eight of them were secondary schools located in rural and urban areas, eight were engineering, commerce, and management colleges mostly in semi-urban and urban locations, and eight were universities located mostly in urban centres. Unlike in schools, the urban-rural divide may not reflect in the colleges and universities as the student respondents in these institutions cut across such strata. The objective of stratifying the institutions in these different regional locations was to select a sample that represents the various groups of ESL learner populations within the country, male/female, east/west, urban/rural, etc.

3.1.2 Preparation of the questionnaire used in the study

A new questionnaire was designed for the collection of data following the questionnaires described in Ryan (2005) and Dörnyei et al. (2006). Altogether sixty 6-point Likert items were originally used from these two questionnaires highlighting several dimensions of L2 motivation: integrativeness, instrumentality, cultural interest, the vitality of the L2, L2 confidence, L2 anxiety, classroom anxiety, milieu, parental encouragement, L2 attitude, international posture, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 resilience. A varimax exploratory factor analysis was, however, conducted using the SPSS version 26.0 to analyse the actual constructs of L2 motivation reported in the questionnaire in the context of the sample, followed by a test of internal reliability of these L2 motivation constructs. As shown in Table 2, five underlying factors or constructs were finally identified in the questionnaire accounting for 45.35% of the variance. Keeping the original definitions of the respective relevant constructs, the factors were renamed as L2 anxiety, L2 integrativeness, L2 instrumentality, L2 self-confidence, and L2 cultural interest. All the five factors reached a reliability coefficient of .70 threshold or more, with the lowest being .73, presenting very high internal consistency for all the items in the factors selected for analysis.

Table 2. Motivation factors (cumulative variance of 45.35%).

Factor 1 L2 anxiety ($\alpha=.87$)		Factor 2 L2 integrativeness ($\alpha=.84$)		Factor 3 L2 instrumentality ($\alpha=.86$)		Factor 4 L2 self- confidence ($\alpha=.73$)		Factor 5 L2 cultural interest ($\alpha=.75$)	
Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading
57	.782	14	.711	41	.655	45	.612	27	.741
54	.728	17	.685	46	.595	19	.603	30	.702
25	.695	11	.644	5	.568	49	.584	21	.662
7	.692	18	.597	60	.542	59	.548	22	.483
51	.682	13	.558	56	.540	4	.485	39	.406
47	.652	28	.544	40	.521	29	.458		
32	.601	34	.517	37	.507				
48	.553	36	.515	6	.505				
38	.544	50	.478	42	.504				
3	.430	26	.410	35	.485				
		43	.405	53	.441				
				12	.430				
Eigenvalue		7.256		2.801		2.418		1.954	
12.781									

The total number of items included in these factors, as shown in Table 3, from the 60 items in the original questionnaire was 44. While the factor of L2 anxiety (10 items) measured the level of anxiety felt by the L2 learner in the context of L2 use in everyday life, the L2 integrativeness (11 items) scale represented the L2 learners' willingness to integrate with the source culture of the L2. L2 instrumentality (12 items), on the other hand, was concerned with the utilitarian benefits like higher salary, better jobs, etc. associated with the increased proficiency in the L2. L2 self-confidence (6 items) measured the level of confidence felt by the L2 learner when the L2 was used in the context of formal L2 instruction in a classroom. L2 cultural interest (5 items) scale collected responses regarding the L2 learner's attitude to various cultural products associated with the L2 speaking community such as films, television programs, magazines, music, etc.

Table 3. Instrument elaboration.

Motivational scales	Item count	Examples of the items
L2 anxiety	10	I feel anxious if someone asks me something in English.
L2 integrativeness	11	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
L2 instrumentality	12	Studying English is important because I will need it for my career.
L2 self-confidence	6	I don't get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class.
L2 cultural interest	5	I like TV programs made in English-speaking countries.
Total no of items used	44	

3.1.3 The procedure of data collection and analysis

The collection of data was severely restricted by the lockdown consequent upon the worldwide COVID-19 outbreak at the time of the data collection. Since the collection of responses through the distribution of print questionnaires to the learner populations was not possible because of the sudden closure of the educational institutions in the country for the nationwide lockdown, e-questionnaires were used in the survey. The links to the questionnaire were provided with the assistance of students working in the term paper project either on social network platforms like WhatsApp or they were directly emailed to the prospective respondents identified through personal contacts.

Besides the varimax exploratory factor analysis and internal consistency test conducted on the data using the SPSS version 26.0, three more statistical methods were employed to analyse the L2 motivational factors in the context of the three subsamples representing different academic levels. First, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted to compare the different dimensions of L2 motivation identified in the exploratory factor analysis across the subsamples. Second, to measure the correlation coefficients of the different scales of L2 motivation in the sample, a Pearson correlations analysis was carried out. Finally, separate multiple regression analyses were also conducted to identify and measure the predictor variables in the L2 motivational scales in the three subsamples.

3.2 Research Paradigm

After excluding the items that failed to receive internal consistency, the remaining items were identified as part of the five dimensions of L2 motivation and they were selected for further analysis. Since the main focus of the study was to measure the relationships between the dimensions of L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence on one hand, and their relationships with the other three L2 motivational dimensions, it was considered reasonable to restrict the total number of scales to only five.

Table 4. Reliability coefficients of the motivation variables for the subsamples.

Variables	Secondary	Undergraduate	Postgraduate
L2 anxiety	.89	.81	.83
L2 integrativeness	.91	.80	.78
L2 instrumentality	.77	.86	.85
L2 self-confidence	.65	.71	.74
L2 cultural interest	.65	.78	.77

For the confirmation of internal consistency of the items in the questionnaire across the three subsamples of secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate Indian ESL learners, three separate principal component analyses were done to measure the five dimensions identified in the exploratory factor analysis of the L2 motivation questionnaire. The reliability coefficients, as shown in Table 4, of the majority of five scales or factors in the three different subsamples were within the same range. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients of most of the scales were above the .70 threshold. The scales of L2 anxiety and L2 integrativeness reached the highest reliability coefficients of .89 and .91 in the secondary subsample, whereas the scale of L2 instrumentality reached the highest reliability coefficients of .86 and .85 respectively in the subsamples of undergraduate and postgraduate ESL learners. Although the reliability coefficient in the scales of L2 self-confidence and L2 cultural interest was as low as .65 for the secondary school subsample, it was well within the acceptable range.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Differences and Similarities in the L2 Motivational Constructs

The descriptive statistics of the five L2 motivational scales in the context of the whole sample and a comparative analysis of the three subsamples along these five L2 motivational scales using a one-way ANOVA are presented in Table 5. The scales of L2 integrativeness and L2 cultural interest showed the highest mean values (above 4.5 on a 6-point scale) for all three subsamples. This is evidence of the fact that the L2 learners across the three subsamples showed exceptional interest in the socio-cultural dimensions of the L2. The L2 motivational scores for two other scales, instrumentality and linguistic self-confidence, were also quite high (above 4) across the three subsamples. It pointed to the fact that the L2 learners were aware of the utilitarian benefits of learning the L2 also revealed that they were not particularly anxious about using the L2 in the context of the classroom.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics and comparisons of the motivation variables across the three levels of education (S=secondary; U=undergraduate; P=postgraduate)

Variables	Levels of education	M	SD	F	Sequence ^a	Effect size ^b
L2 anxiety	S/U/P	3.21/4.07/3.87	1.31/.96/.99	12.11***	S < P < U	.101
L2 integrativeness	S/U/P	5.17/5.11/4.89	.84/.70/.66	3.00	-	-
L2 instrumentality	S/U/P	5.12/4.60/4.26	.63/.94/.87	21.10***	P < U < S	.164
L2 self-confidence	S/U/P	4.92/4.41/4.30	.75/.93/.89	11.01***	P < U < S	.093
L2 cultural interest	S/U/P	5.21/4.99/4.95	.65/.93/.81	2.23		-

a '<' represents significant difference; ',' represents non-significant difference.

b Eta².

***p<.001.

The only scale where the L2 motivational score was considerably low (around 3-4) for all the three subsamples was L2 anxiety indicating the existence of an anxiety factor in L2 use outside the classroom. The standard deviation figures for this scale also showed the largest variation in the study pointing towards a high variation in the experience of L2 anxiety—an anxiety that primarily concerns communication in the L2 in general and not particularly in the context of any specific physical domain of communication—across the three subsamples attested in earlier studies of L2 motivation (e. g., Horwitz, 2001; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; MacIntyre, 2002).

4.2 Correlations among the Five L2 Motivational Constructs

Three Pearson correlation analyses were carried out to measure the correlation coefficients, as shown in Table 6, of the five L2 motivational scales separately in the three subsamples. Significant positive correlations were observed between L2 integrativeness and three other L2 motivational scales—L2 instrumentality, L2 self-confidence, and L2 cultural interest—across all three subsamples. Additionally, similar positive correlations were observed between L2 instrumentality and L2 self-confidence for all three subsamples. Significant positive correlations were also observed between L2 instrumentality and L2 cultural interest, and between L2 self-confidence and L2 cultural interest, but only in the subsamples of undergraduate and postgraduate L2 learners. These motivational trends were expected as L2 learners showing high L2 motivation in one of these three dimensions would also be implicated for higher motivation in the other dimensions. Indian ESL learners across academic levels, considering the utilitarian significance of learning English in India, demonstrated greater curiosity about the target culture and showed more desire to integrate with it. The motivated ESL learners across the board correspondingly found the use of the L2 in the context of a classroom less challenging.

Table 6. Correlations-coefficients of the L2 motivational variables across the three academic levels.

Level of education	Variables	L2 anxiety	L2 integrativeness	L2 instrumentality	L2 self-confidence	L2 cultural interest
Secondary	L2 anxiety	--	.06	-.34**	-.34**	.13
	L2 integrativeness		--	.53**	.41**	.42**

Table 6 continued...

	L2 instrumentality			--	.48**	.41
	L2 self-confidence				--	.19
	L2 cultural interest					--
Undergraduate	L2 anxiety	--	.10	-.22	.27*	.11
	L2 integrativeness		--	.70**	.41**	.56**
	L2 instrumentality			--	.37**	.45**
	L2 self-confidence				--	.46**
	L2 cultural interest					--
Postgraduate	L2 anxiety	--	.04	-.32**	.07	-.02
	L2 integrativeness		--	.57**	.66**	.65**
	L2 instrumentality			--	.58**	.56**
	L2 self-confidence				--	.41**
	L2 cultural interest					--

4.3 Correlation of L2 Anxiety and Linguistic Self-Confidence with the Other Constructs

Two separate stepwise multiple regression analyses were carried out to find out the predictor variables of the learners' L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence in the motivational scales. As shown in Tables 7-9, the results of the analyses associating the two motivational scales of L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence showed considerable academic level-related variations in the three subsamples. Although L2 integrativeness contributed significantly to L2 anxiety in the subsamples of secondary school and postgraduate L2 learners, it did not contribute to L2 anxiety in the undergraduate L2 learner subsample. Additionally, L2 cultural interest significantly contributed to L2 anxiety only in the secondary school L2 learner subsample. The contribution of the L2 motivational scale of L2 instrumentality to L2 anxiety, on the other hand, was significantly negative in the subsamples of secondary school and postgraduate L2 learners pointing to an L2 learning situation in which L2 instrumentality leads to a possible reduction in L2 anxiety among L2 learners across the three academic levels.

Table 7. Regression analysis (stepwise) of the variables with L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence for secondary students.

Criterion variable	Predictor variables	Model			
		B	SE B		β
L2 anxiety	L2 instrumentality	-1.22	.26		-.59***
	L2 cultural interest	.53	.24		.26*
	L2 integrativeness	.41	.20		.27*
	R^2			.25	
	F for change in R^2			7.61***	

Table 7 continued...

L2 self-confidence	L2 instrumentality	.57	.13		.48***
	R^2			.23	
	F for change in R^2			20.88***	
B signifies regression coefficient. * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$					

In the L2 self-confidence scale as the criterion variable, L2 instrumentality significantly contributed to L2 self-confidence in the secondary school and postgraduate L2 learner subsamples.

Table 8. Regression analysis(stepwise) of the variables with L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence for undergraduate students.

Criterion variable	Predictor variables	Model			
		B	SE B		β
L2 anxiety	L2 instrumentality	-.23	.12		-.22
	R^2			.05	
	F for change in R^2			3.36	
L2 self-confidence	L2 cultural interest	.46	.11		.46***
	R^2			.21	
	F for change in R^2			17.36***	

B signifies regression coefficients.
*** $p < .001$

Table 9. Regression analysis (stepwise)of the variables with L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence for postgraduate students.

Criterion variable	Predictor variables	Model			
		B	SE B		β
L2 anxiety	L2 instrumentality	-.58	.15		-.51***
	L2 integrativeness	.50	.19		.33*
	R^2			.17	
	F for change in R^2			7.97**	
L2 self-confidence	L2 integrativeness	.65	.13		.49***
	L2 instrumentality	.31	.10		.30**
	R^2			.50	
	F for change in R^2			38.25***	

B signifies regression coefficient.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

L2 cultural interest significantly contributed to L2 self-confidence in the subsamples of secondary school and undergraduate L2 learners, L2 integrativeness contributed significantly to L2 self-confidence in the postgraduate L2 learner subsample. Unlike what was observed with the L2 anxiety as the criterion variable, no L2 motivation scale negatively contributed to L2 self-confidence in any of the three subsamples emphasizing the need to describe L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence as discrete L2 motivational scales. Indian ESL learners were observed to be differentially affected in their L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence, depending on their academic levels, by the instrumentality, integrativeness, and cultural interest dimensions of L2 motivation.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Utilitarian L2 Motivation among Indian ESL Learners

The first research question of the study was about the differences and similarities in the L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs vis-à-vis the secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate ESL learners of India. The purpose of this research question was to understand the principal trend(s) in the L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs observed among the groups. The findings in connection with this research question pointed towards a reconfirmation of the utilitarian dimension of ESL learning attested in some studies done before (e.g., [Dörnyei et al., 2006, 2015](#); [Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015](#); [Gardner et al., 1997](#); [Tremblay & Gardner, 1995](#)). The results of the principal component analyses and the reliability assessments indicated a utilitarian dimension to L2 motivation among all the three subsamples of ESL learners. The scales of L2 cultural interest and L2 integrativeness should be viewed as factors or scales significantly related to the L2 instrumentality factor. The desire to know more about the target culture and associate with it is predominantly dependent on the need to learn the concerned L2. In a developing country like India, where better livelihood prospects, both in the public and private sectors, hinged largely on English language proficiency, the instrumentality or the utilitarian benefits associated with English were the most significant aspects recognized by the L2 learners.

The recognition of the significance of the other two L2 motivational dimensions of L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence separately also indicated the utilitarian dimensions of L2 motivation ([Dörnyei, 2019](#); [Muir et al., 2021](#); [Warr, 2001](#)) among the Indian L2 learners on two counts. First, the anxiety factor operated as a significant factor in L2 motivation because the dominant instrumentality impact of the L2 deepens the risk of failure in L2 learning. ESL learning in India takes place mostly through formal instructional settings at all levels with a wide-scale emphasis on the need to learn it for better livelihood placement. A simultaneous increase in the level of performance anxiety among the L2 learners across academic levels was considered an offshoot of such emphases. Second, L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence were identified as separate, though related, factors in L2 motivation across academic levels. The presence or absence of anxiety in the use of the L2 in the context of a classroom was not considered equal to or the same as the kind of anxiety associated with the use of the L2 in everyday communication. L2 learners who were observed to be relatively less anxious or more confident in the context of the L2 use inside the classroom did not show a parallel absence of anxiety in everyday use of the L2 and vice versa.

5.2 Influence of L2 Use Environment on L2 Motivational Constructs

The second research question of the study was about measuring the correlations among the five L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs vis-à-vis the three Indian ESL learner groups. The understanding of the correlations among these five constructs should provide us with a picture of the internal dynamics that exist between them. A higher score in one particular construct may or may not correlate with another. As far as the findings related to this research question is concerned, several significant negative correlations ([Dörnyei et al., 2015](#); [Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015](#)) were observed, however, between some L2 motivational scales in some subsamples. First, the

correlation between L2 anxiety and L2 instrumentality in two subsamples—secondary and postgraduate L2 learners—was significantly negative.

Although not statistically significant, the undergraduate L2 learners also showed a negative correlation between L2 anxiety and L2 instrumentality confirming a trend towards a negative relationship between these two L2 motivational scales. This was despite the presence of high L2 self-confidence in all three subsamples. It could be only explained by the fact that the use of the L2 in the context of a classroom and using it outside of the classroom were interpreted as two different challenges in L2 use by the L2 learners. They were comparatively more confident and less anxious in the use of the L2 in the comfort of the classroom than they were so in the use of it in everyday communication. Whatever be the reasons for the identification of this difference by the L2 learners, they unanimously found the use of the L2 outside the classroom rather challenging. Second, a significant negative correlation was observed between L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence in the secondary L2 learner sample, whereas the correlation between these two L2 motivational scales was significantly positive among the undergraduate L2 learners. In other words, while a rise in the L2 self-confidence correlated with a fall in L2 anxiety in the secondary school L2 learners, no such differential relationships were observed in the other two subsamples. It pointed towards two potential situations. For the secondary school ESL learners, L2 anxiety felt during the use of the L2 in everyday communication got reduced with the growth in linguistic self-confidence in the use of the L2 inside the classroom. But such differential influence could not be attested with the more experienced groups of L2 learners as they perhaps began to understand the differences in the task demands involved in the two separate contexts of L2 use.

5.3 Varied Sources of L2 Anxiety and Linguistic Self-Confidence

The third research question of the study proposed to see whether there was any correlation between L2 anxiety and linguistic self-confidence and the other three L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs or not vis-à-vis the secondary, undergraduate, and postgraduate ESL learners of India. It sought to understand whether L2 attitudinal and motivational constructs of integrativeness, instrumentality, and cultural interest correlated with L2 anxiety and linguistic self-confidence in specific ways or not. It provided us with the knowledge of the academic level-related variations in L2 anxiety and L2 self-confidence as criterion variables for the other three L2 motivational constructs. The results related to this research question mostly reconfirm findings of previous studies on the topic (e.g., [Gkonou et al., 2017](#); [Horwitz et al., 1986](#); [MacIntyre, 2017](#); [MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1994](#); [Oxford, 2017](#); [Tóth, 2017](#); [Young, 1986](#)).

Some specific conclusions, however, may be drawn in this connection. First, reduced levels of L2 anxiety with the parallel rise in ease and confidence in the L2 were induced by different L2 motivational factors in the three subsamples. The younger L2 learners appeared much more motivated towards the L2 and the two L2 motivational scales of integration and cultural interest were the predictor variables for higher ease and confidence in the L2 for them. The same L2 motivational scales, on the other hand, did not consistently function as predictors for L2 anxiety, particularly in the undergraduate L2 learner subsample. Second, higher intensity in the L2 motivation scale of L2 instrumentality resulted in the parallel reduction in L2 ease and

confidence in the use of the L2 outside the classroom in most cases. The recognition of the utilitarian benefits of the L2 among the L2 learners might have increased the performance anxiety involved in L2 learning reducing confidence and ease in the use of the L2 in everyday communication. Third, L2 instrumentality contributed, unlike what happened in L2 anxiety, significantly to L2 self-confidence in the classroom. The high L2 motivation consequent upon the recognition of the utilitarian benefits of L2 learning led to increased L2 ease and confidence in the use of the L2 in the classroom unlike what had been observed in previous studies (e.g., [Kormos & Csizer, 2008](#); [Williams et al., 2002](#); [You et al. 2016](#)).

5.4 Implications

Several important implications may be observed in this connection. First, Indian ESL learners showed variations as per academic levels in three L2 motivational scales ([Baker & MacIntyre, 2008](#); [Sung & Padilla, 1998](#)). While secondary school L2 learners showed the highest mean values in the scales of L2 instrumentality and L2 self-confidence, the undergraduate and postgraduate L2 learners consistently showed relatively lower scores in these two scales. But the mean value of the undergraduate L2 learners was highest in the scale of L2 anxiety, followed by the postgraduate subsample. These differences in the mean values suggested an L2 motivational situation in which the secondary school L2 learners appeared more motivated and self-confident about L2 use in the classroom but more anxious towards communication in the L2 otherwise, whereas the undergraduate and the postgraduate L2 learners appeared less anxious about everyday communication in the L2 than the secondary school L2 learners. A slightly shorter experience of association with the L2 might have been the reason for the secondary school L2 learners getting a little more enthusiastic about the L2, whereas a slightly longer L2 learning experience for the undergraduate and postgraduate L2 learners might have given them more confidence in the everyday communicational use of the L2.

Second, the mean values in four of the five L2 motivational scales in the secondary school L2 learners were greater than the mean values in the same scales for the other two subsamples. A closer look at the mean values of the other two subsamples showed a continuous decline in magnitude against the growth in experience and years through academic levels. The secondary school L2 learners, being younger and less experienced than the other two subsamples, must have overemphasized the utilitarian significance of the L2. This trend could be seen repeated in the undergraduate and postgraduate L2 learner subsamples as the degree of motivation towards the L2 was in a continuous decline in many of the motivational scales for these two subsamples. But the trend was in reverse in the L2 motivation scale of L2 anxiety. While the subsamples of undergraduate and postgraduate L2 learners showed less L2 anxiety in the use of the L2 in everyday communication, the secondary school L2 learners were observed to be more anxious in such L2 use domains. Despite the highest mean value in the scale of L2 self-confidence reported by the secondary school L2 learners among the three groups, the anxiety level in the use of the L2 in everyday communication reported by them was significantly high. The lack of experience in the use of the L2 outside the classroom context might have been the reason for the high L2 use anxiety among the secondary school L2 learners. Additionally, it may be noted that more familiar

circumstances of the L2 classroom provided more L2-friendly sentiments and comfortable L2 practice opportunities for the L2 learners with higher L2 motivation.

Third, the functioning of L2 self-confidence as the criterion variable of the three L2 motivational scales of instrumentality, integrativeness, and cultural interest in various degrees as predictors was limited only to the use of the L2 in the context of the classroom. A simultaneous rise in the degree of L2 motivation across maximum motivational dimensions was attested in the context of only formal L2 instructional settings across the three subsamples. It was observed that the highly motivated L2 learners were consistently more at ease and confident in using the L2 inside the classroom, whereas the same higher intensity of L2 motivation was not accompanied by a parallel increase in ease and confidence in the use of the L2 outside of it.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Several important insights on the relationship between language anxiety and linguistic self-confidence in relation to the other dimensions of L2 attitude and motivation had been obtained in the study. First, ESL motivation among the Indian ESL learners indicated a utilitarian dimension across the three academic levels. It was not only observed in the consistently high L2 instrumentality score among the ESL learners but also the corresponding L2 motivation dimensions of integrativeness and cultural interest. The motivational dimensions of integrativeness and cultural interest exist only in the utilitarian benefits accrued in the instrumentality dimensions of the L2. Second, higher L2 motivational scores in all the dimensions were observed in the less experienced younger Indian ESL learners. Consequently, the L2 motivational dimensions of integrativeness and cultural interest contributed significantly to the higher L2 ease and confidence in the use of English in the context of a classroom in the secondary school ESL learners. Third, the two anxiety-related motivational dimensions of L2 anxiety in the use of English in everyday communication and L2 self-confidence in the context of the classroom were identified as discrete factors of L2 motivation in all three academic levels. Because of this difference, ESL learners who were observed to be relatively less anxious, or more self-confident, in the use of the L2 in the context of a classroom reported more anxiety in the use of the L2 in everyday communication outside the classroom. Fourth, the ESL learners displayed significant variations in the effect of these two motivational scales across the academic levels. Comparatively less L2 anxiety, or more L2 self-confidence, in the use of English in everyday communication was reported by postgraduate ESL learners, whereas the secondary school ESL learners expressed more language use anxiety in such contexts. Finally, Indian ESL learners across the three academic levels reported more L2 ease and confidence in the use of the L2 in the supportive environment of an L2 classroom than in the unpredictable circumstances of everyday communication outside the classroom. Although the exact reasons for this comparative ease and self-confidence will be known only in a more dedicated study focusing specifically on the relationship between these two motivational constructs, it was distinct from the responses in the present study that the Indian ESL learners found the familiar environment of the L2 classroom less challenging for L2 practice.

It must, however, be accepted that the findings described in this article can only be taken as general indicators, as has been already mentioned elsewhere in the article,

towards some potential trends than confirmed claims about the type and dimensions involved in the relationship between the various L2 motivational scales. The findings related to the undergraduate L2 learners particularly required more confirmation with a larger sample than the one used in the study as the specific nature of the results attested in the undergraduate L2 learner subsample asked for a more elaborate investigation and analysis. Moreover, the study could not discuss the effect of sexual identities of the ESL learners within the three academic levels on the correlations among the L2 motivational scales. Since L2 motivational scales are potentially influenced by such factors, factoring in such dimensions to the study would have led to more pedagogically useful insights. To be precise, an L2 attitude and motivation survey on a bigger sample size, selected with a wider stratum of sample analysis than the one used in the present survey, would potentially facilitate a more comprehensive and accurate understanding of the pedagogically more relevant dimensions of L2 attitude and motivation. Studies undertaken in L2 attitude and motivation in the future should address this concern.

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Non-Millennial Teachers' Strategies in Coping with the Online Teaching During the COVID-19 Pandemic

Febry Khunto Sasongko^{1*}
Diah Kristina²
Abdul Asib¹

¹Post-Graduate Department of English Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Sebelas Maret, Surakarta, 57126, INDONESIA

²Department of English Cultural Science, Faculty of Cultural Science, Universitas Sebelas Maret, Surakarta, 57126, INDONESIA

Abstract

This article discusses the strategies used by five non-millennial teachers (aged 54-59 years old) of a junior high school in coping with the online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, in Ngawi, East Java, Indonesia. The teachers were interviewed, and the data were transcribed and analyzed by creating a data repository, expanding the codes, describing the coded data, and drawing conclusions. The results revealed that the teachers had several strategies used, which were to increase students' interest in learning, provide students with knowledge and attention, create efficient learning resources, and use SIMPEL (Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran or Learning Management Information System), which is specifically available only in Ngawi. SIMPEL was specially developed by the Ngawi district education office, to ensure that the learning processes in Ngawi Regency continue to run optimally during the COVID-19 outbreak. SIMPEL substituted the use of online YouTube videos and materials because the materials were already provided by the system, decreasing the need for the teachers to depend on other resources. Despite these teachers also using other online platforms, hence issues such as the slow internet connection, running out of quotas and blackouts, hindered their efforts to use these platforms at times. Hence, WAG was the most used media to conduct their online learning due to its simplicity and availability.

* Corresponding author, email: febrykhunto93@student.uns.ac.id

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These teachers continued to strive to learn digital technologies ever since they changed from their previous face-to-face teaching strategies.

Keywords: COVID-19, non-millennial teachers, online learning, teaching strategies.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to the COVID-19 outbreak being widespread in Indonesia since March 2020, the Indonesian government requires teaching and learning activities to be done through online teaching at every education level ([Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2020](#)). One of the government policies is to suspend all activities and non-academic activities until further notice. The Indonesian Minister of Education and Culture, therefore, advises all education institutions from the lowest level of education to the highest level to pursue online learning. Through online learning, students can still carry out learning activities even though they do not meet their teachers directly or face to face ([Aristovnik et al., 2020](#)).

Online learning is a form of learning that uses interactive communication to assist in learning events. [Hurlbut \(2018\)](#) believed that online learning has successfully promoted interactive and cooperative learning among students, deepening their engagement as well as comprehension regarding course materials. According to [Rusman and Lukman \(2017\)](#), online learning is mostly learning experiences intended to help students learn to be simpler, more interactive, and precise as well as up-to-date incorporating modern networks. Understanding the concept of an online curriculum-based digital application that incorporates immersive technologies has a significant effect on deciding the results of their learning.

Online learning has benefits that are possible to help students in many ways. This is especially so when students experience compulsive tendencies in face-to-face classes, online learning can become comfort zones because they can freely inquire and respond despite feeling self-conscious about some of the other students ([Paul & Jefferson, 2019](#)). Online learning experiences in teacher preparation programs offer a different collection of sorts of situations ([Sarkar, 2016](#); [Stern, 2016](#)). The effectiveness of online learning relies much on the encouragement and ability of students to study individually ([Purwanto et al., 2020](#)).

Despite the benefits, online learning has some negative consequences as well, such as frustration, decreased work enthusiasm, and increased energy costs or internet quotas ([Nurhasanah & Sobandi, 2016](#)). Learning from home during the COVID-19 pandemic was far beyond prior student learning routines. Not only do students struggle with transitioning to online learning, but teachers also struggle with changing the way they teach ([Ogunleye, 2019](#)). Many teachers were initially not technologically illiterate (i.e., clueless) when they started online learning. In this research, they are called traditional or non-millennial teachers.

The traditional or non-millennial teachers who were out of date in online classes continued to outclass participants or found it hard to follow up with the technologies and still keep up with face-to-face or more conventional strategies to manage the class ([Arista & Kuswanto, 2018](#)). [Figueredo and Villamizar \(2015\)](#) and [Schmidt and Fulton \(2016\)](#) said that traditional teachers who aim to change their teaching strategies by

bringing new teaching media into the classroom frequently failed because they did not properly consider the technology model, the pedagogical, and the internet information required to implement ICT into the teaching and learning process. Along with age diversity, lack of experience in teaching hybrid, and confusion in the use and operation of learning applications, teachers have different strategies to solve awareness of certain work situations like how to operate the education platforms (Poyo, 2018).

Due to the sudden COVID-19 outbreak, educational systems, teaching, and learning processes came to a halt (UNESCO, 2020). In Indonesia, most teachers deal with the challenges of strategies in teaching online experience. The non-millennial teachers are forced to shift their teaching strategy from face-to-face strategies to online-based teaching strategies. If non-millennial teachers choose to train students to also be digitally competent, they need to have basic knowledge on the use of technological educational tools and software, or they would have trouble using technology efficiently throughout online classrooms (Wei & Chou, 2020).

Many non-millennial teachers need more time to learn about today's online materials, such as video call conferences, entertaining content, and the creation of time-saving search strategies using the internet (Rana et al., 2018). Several recent studies have shown that teachers' teaching strategies have a significant impact on student academic achievement (Hattie & Donoghue, 2016; Sutarto et al., 2020). Previous studies have extensively researched teaching strategies, but these articles mainly address strategies used by millennial teachers and focus on the face-to-face instructional model. According to the findings of the preliminary studies, the teaching-learning process during the COVID-19 pandemic has drawn students' attention, supplied content, and the teaching and learning practices could go well. But, in this present study, the researchers focused on the Indonesian context, especially on those teachers who were not familiar with technology or the online environment who have shown limitations in using online technology to create materials for their students. The research question for this study is:

- What are the non-millennial teachers' strategies for online teaching during the COVID-19 outbreak?

2. METHODS

By using purposive sampling, the study was carried out in a junior high school, in Ngawi, East Java, Indonesia. During the COVID-19 pandemic, this school demonstrated an online learning course of study, and WAG (WhatsApp Group) is one of the alternative media to complement online classes. The researchers limited this study to five non-millennial English teachers that have more than 32-39 years of face-to-face classroom experience and are between 54 to 59 years old (see Table 1). The non-millennial teachers seldom used technology in their teaching activities. They also rarely joined seminars about integrated or blended learning. These teachers used WAG to teach English students throughout the pandemic.

This study employed the qualitative approach because it is viewed as a method of investigating a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-world framework (Yin, 2018). Accordingly, this study used interviews to collect information on the strategies that the teachers used in their classes in coping with the online

teaching, and their perspectives on the online teaching and learning processes. The teachers are coded in the paper, respectively.

Table 1. Data of respondents.

Respondent	RN	ES	TB	FJ	DW
Gender	F	F	M	M	M
Age	56	59	54	56	56
Highest Educational Qualification	Bachelor Degree	Bachelor Degree	Bachelor Degree	Bachelor Degree	Bachelor Degree
Year Experiences	32	39	33	32	34

The data from the interviews were analyzed using the analysis model of Miles et al. (2014). Three flows of activities were involved in the techniques: data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. After classifying the data from semi-structured interviews (recording), the recordings were transcribed and further categorized based on the themes that appeared within the data. The researchers also employed interview extension and data triangulation as data validation procedures. When the data gained in the previous interviews were judged insufficient, an extension of the interview was employed, and source triangulation was used to confirm the veracity of the data through several sources (Sugiyono, 2013).

3. RESULTS

3.1 Strategies to Increase Students' Interest in Learning

The non-millennial teachers informed that their priority with online classes was to achieve the goal of their learning lessons. Since online learning experiences were new to both teachers and students, therefore the most important thing to do when developing an online lesson plan was to determine the objectives and priorities to be achieved and to ensure that the students are interested in the new mode of learning. As stated by one of the teachers:

- (1) "In my opinion, online learning may be flexible and interesting but cannot meet proper classroom management, enhanced student attention, and their potential. So, we teachers must be able to come up with new strategies to attract the attention of students". (FJ)

Following FJ's statements, strategies used by these teachers to attract and increase students' interest in continuous learning, despite then have shifted to online, was by greeting the students when the online class started, asking how they were doing that day, and providing pieces of advice or encouragement before the lesson started.

- (2) "This online class shares the difficulties that teachers encounter when adapting classes from face-to-face to online, quality standards, and typical errors without any previous experience, and so, we must develop an enjoyable learning environment to encourage students. When online, we must remember to greet the students, ask how they are doing, and give pieces of advice or encouragement before the lesson starts". (RN)

In (3), TB stated that their other strategies to be carried out were the fundamental concepts of lifelong learning, such as independent learning, supporting students with

learning activities, learning by literacy, developing postmodern students for studying, and so on. And he ensured that he constantly reminded his students about these concepts even though while teaching online.

- (3) “I also believe that for online learning to be successful and interesting, learners must be self-directed and proficient in the use of digital technologies/applications. As teachers, we must always remind that to our students. We also must continue to improve these skills and knowledge as we teach online and give materials to attract students’ attention in class.” (TB).

Despite academic tasks during the COVID-19 pandemic being carried out of school, the students still had to study diligently. The teachers informed that they tried to keep the students motivated and their minds focused on education through constant reminders, for example, through WhatsApp Group (WAG), as exemplified in the next excerpt.

- (4) “My vision is that students could most likely learn the material with not many differences either online or not. And I usually use continuous in-personal communication to every student for motivation in learning through WhatsApp Group updates”. (FJ)

3.2 Strategies to Provide Students with Knowledge and Attention

The non-millennial teachers claimed that since online teaching was new to them, thus they must use compensatory strategies to help them perform tasks in an alternative manner (i.e., online teaching). This was done by striving to use technology, such as the WAG on their phones to teach, Google Classroom, Zoom, PowerPoint presentations, and SIMPEL (*Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran* or Learning Management Information System), which is discussed in 4.4.

- (5) “Online teaching has some restrictions and we are not used to it, giving online materials was not easy in a limited time as well as attracting the student’s attention. Whereas, traditional class and exam patterns are more soothing to us. So, we had to learn something new, such as using WhatsApp Group to teach, interact and communicate with students”. (ES)
- (6) “We teachers start to learn to use WhatsApp or Google Classroom, and several of us also do PowerPoint presentations. There is also SIMPEL that has helped us a lot”. (TB)
- (7) “I learned how to use apps such as Google Classroom or Zoom to distribute class discussions, while WhatsApp served as the main platform for delivering materials as part of an engaging learning experience”. (RN)

The teachers also notified that before the online lesson started, they always tried to pass on the materials before the class started. Then the students were prompted to go through the materials before the teachers started classes online. To ensure that they went through the materials, the teachers would ask relevant questions to ensure their comprehension of the materials.

- (8) “I think, transferring knowledge in teaching and learning activities are very important, and even if online learning applications are used, material delivery should be efficient. I always send my materials before I start class, then I ask the students to go through them, then when the class starts, I ask questions to ensure they understand what we will learn that day”. (TB)

DW in (9) further informed that his students are free to ask questions in her WAG online class on subject matters or materials that were unclear, and time and location were not a hindrance when done online. He would do his best to answer them one by one when she had the time because learning was not restricted to the 'assigned' class time by the school.

- (9) "The students are excited to participate in online discussions through online classroom sites, and also the WhatsApp group, where we can address the problems with the materials which I have given. Online learning helped students to keep up with the lesson with time and location comfortable to them, and me, too. We teachers also did not have to waste precious class time helping missing students 'catch up'. We can do this out of our assigned class time when online and we have the time". (DW)

3.3 Strategies to Create Efficient Learning Resources

The participant teachers were all unfamiliar with online learning technologies during the start, therefore, it took them extra time to start their teaching when the online learning first started, and prepared teaching materials and tasks that could be passed on online.

- (10) "We, as old teachers in this school, find it very difficult to make online-based materials at first. More than that, we were required to make learning materials interesting and easily understood by students even though we could not pass on the materials to them directly by hand. It was a struggle at first, but we learn". (ES)
- (11) "Junior high school students are still the same as elementary school students, where they get bored easily when learning only uses text and paragraphs. So, without any interaction and image or sound that supports learning, it will be boring during these online times. We old teachers must get creative". (RN)

The teachers claimed that familiarized themselves with the Internet to search for interesting materials for their lesson plans. This computer network had assisted them in creating and providing interesting materials to their students.

- (12) "We learned to browse the Internet and search for online learning media, such as visual, photographic, film or audio from YouTube. This information and communication technology also helped us prepare an organized and effective learning syllabus". (DW)
- (13) "Sometimes we as non-millennial teachers find it difficult to prepare materials that are easy to be understood by all students, but the Internet is a big help. We can make the materials more entertaining and easier to understand with everything available on the Internet". (ES)

3.4 Strategies to Use SIMPEL (*Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran* or Learning Management Information System)

From the interviews, it was also found that the non-millennial teachers also employed the learning media that was developed by the local government of Ngawi, namely SIMPEL (*Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran* or Learning Management Information System). SIMPEL is a website-based learning platform developed by the Ngawi district education office, to ensure that the learning processes in Ngawi Regency continue to run optimally during the COVID-19 outbreak.

SIMPEL is equipped with the learning contents from the elementary to the junior high school levels. Digital contents come in various instructional videos, material premises in the form of PPT and eBooks, and student assignments in the form of worksheets.

- (14) “With the SIMPEL learning web, it is very helpful for us teachers because, in SIMPEL, it assists us in providing a fun learning”. (FJ)
- (15) “We, as traditional teachers, are bewildered when traditional classroom instruction is replaced by online learning. But with the presence of the SIMPEL platform, I am personally very happy, because it is not only easy to use but the materials provided are also suitable”. (ES)



Figure 1. Homepage of SIMPEL.

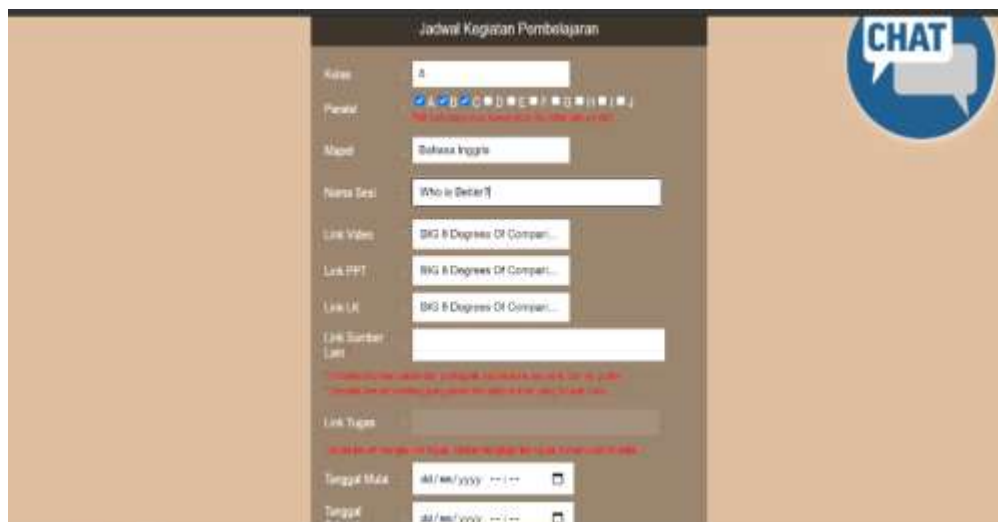


Figure 2. SIMPEL's user menus.

Even though the non-millennial teachers still used other online platforms for teaching (i.e., WAG, Google Classroom, Zoom, PowerPoint presentations), SIMPLE supported them most in teaching because besides providing a simple and convenient usage for the teachers, this platform also provided materials (in various resources, from texts to videos) which are already prepared for every school level. As a consequence, the teachers were able to optimize the time spent on app discussions with their students.

- (16) "I like using this platform because it helps me to deliver the materials quickly and most students understand better because the materials and videos presented can be played back for further understanding". (DW)
- (17) "When using SIMPEL, I can include materials and videos for me to discuss with the students at the next meeting before I give them worksheets to work on". (TB)
- (18) "The materials contained in SIMPEL are also not arbitrary because they are always monitored by the Ngawi district education office. Although this platform is new and only Ngawi is using it, but in my opinion, this has helped us, traditional teachers, to teach online". (RN)

Despite the benefits of SIMPEL in providing interactive materials and worksheets, hence there were also shortcomings when it came to using online platforms. FJ reported issues such as slow Internet, running out of quotas, and blackout that were common in Indonesia. These problems sometimes hinder them in using SIMPEL, and WAG was the best option during these unfortunate issues.

- (18) "I am a teacher from the "baby boomer" generation, and is far less capable of incorporating online media into the learning experience. I try my best to learn and keep up, but when used as a learning tool, online media networks also have faults, such as slow Internet, running out of quotas, blackout, and so on. Due to these problems, sometimes it withholds me from using them". (FJ)

4. DISCUSSION

COVID-19 pandemic has a major impact on global education. To stop the virus from spreading, traditional learning has been replaced by online learning. The scheme, which is implemented in all Indonesian schools for the past couple of years, faces a variety of challenges. Among them is the significant effects on non-millennial teachers. Non-millennial teachers at a junior high school in Ngawi, East Java, Indonesia, for example, used a variety of strategies to keep up with their online teaching and learning to their students. The strategies were: ways to increase students' interest in learning, ways to provide students with knowledge and attention, ways to create efficient learning resources, and using SIMPEL (Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran or Learning Management Information System), which is specifically available only in Ngawi.

The ways that teachers used to increase their students' learning interest, even though learning online, was to constantly remind and encourage them on the importance of learning. This approach is in line with [Ayua \(2017\)](#), [George \(2020\)](#), and [Yen \(2020\)](#), where they emphasized the teachers' role in recapping students with the importance of learning at home. Furthermore, ensuring students' involvement in classwork and teamwork in the learning process is also another way to gain students' interest in learning ([Wei and Chou, 2020](#)).

The next one, ways to provide students with knowledge and attention, was by striving to use technology during online teaching. Even though they had never been used to such situations before, they were willing to learn new things so that their teaching continued. Among their efforts were learning to use WAG on their phones to teach, Google Classroom, Zoom, PowerPoint presentations, and SIMPEL (*Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran* or Learning Management Information System). According to [Firdaus \(2018\)](#), [Hurlbut \(2018\)](#), and [Yuying \(2020\)](#), this kind of effort

taken to ensure that their teaching endured with interesting materials is a way to motivate students to keep learning, even during difficult times.

In the strategies used to create learning resources, the non-millennial teachers improved themselves by preparing materials beforehand. This preparation assisted the teachers to effectively start class by having the students go through the materials first, and could later ask them questions if they did not understand the materials. Bao (2020), Schrum and Hong (2002), and Wei and Chou (2020) have noted that the difficulties students may face in autonomous learning through the application of technology. Therefore, these teachers' strategies to optimize teaching materials and establish students' learning independence may promote students learning development.

Finally, the strategy used to select an easy and appealing learning media, which was SIMPEL. This platform was only available for teachers in the Ngawi district, nevertheless, it had tremendously supported the non-millennial teachers in building up their online teaching skills. In line with previous findings (Febrianto et al., 2020; Sung et al., 2016; Sutarto et al., 2020; Yang & Kuo, 2020), the use of suitable learning media will improve engagement and desire to learn by not only facilitating the delivery of content but also the success of reaching learning goals. Teaching using modern tools (i.e., ICT), that are attractive, cost-effective in terms of support, easy to use, and useful are among other essential considerations to consider when choosing media for teaching (Alperi & Handayani, 2019; George, 2020); Sung et al., 2016). In this research, the use of SIMPEL covered the needs of the teachers to spend much time spent creating videos for teaching, which is among the concerns of online teaching described by Kebritchi et al. (2017) and Fithra (2020).

Nevertheless, there were also setbacks in implementing the various online platforms for teaching, including SIMPEL, when connection issues arise. There were also cost issues, in which Internet quotas were also costly. Blackouts, which were common in Indonesia, could also hinder the teachers' efforts in teaching online. These issues were also the problems put forward by previous studies when it comes to using ICT to teach in Indonesia (Muslem et al., 2018; Silviyanti et al., 2014).

5. CONCLUSION

This article discusses the strategies used by non-millennial teachers of a junior high school in coping with the online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, in Ngawi, East Java, Indonesia. These teachers strived to learn digital technologies and had to change their previous face-to-face teaching strategies. Five teachers, aged 54-59 years old, were interviewed. The results revealed the teachers had several strategies used to increase students' interest in learning, provide students with knowledge and attention, create efficient learning resources, and use SIMPEL (Sistem Informasi Manajemen Pembelajaran or Learning Management Information System), which is specifically available only in Ngawi. SIMPEL was specially developed by the Ngawi district education office, to ensure that the learning processes in Ngawi Regency continue to run optimally during the COVID-19 outbreak. SIMPEL substituted the use of online YouTube videos and materials because the materials were already provided by the system, decreasing the need for the teachers to depend on other resources. Despite these teachers also using other online platforms, WAG was the most used media to conduct their online learning due to its simplicity and availability.

This research may have certain limitations and provide some suggestions for further researches. The sample size of this study was limited to only one school, and thus not sufficient to be generalized to all teachers in Indonesia. Data were collected merely from interviews. Therefore, the results may not adequately address all of the strategies used by other non-millennial teachers during online classes. The process of their students becoming active and autonomous learners after receiving materials and learning from the teachers in online classes was not further researched. Hence, future related studies should cover these limitations.

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ICT Platforms for Indonesian EFL Students Viewed from Gender during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Eka Apriani^{*1}
Safnil Arsyad²
Syafryadin²
Dadan Supardan³
Paidi Gusmuliana¹
Santiana⁴

¹English Tadris Study Program, Tarbiyah Faculty, Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Curup, Bengkulu 39119, INDONESIA

¹Doctoral Education Study Program, University of Bengkulu, Bengkulu 38371, INDONESIA

²Postgraduate Program of English Education, Teacher Training and Education Faculty, University of Bengkulu, Bengkulu 38371, INDONESIA

³Primary Teacher Education Study Program, Tarbiyah Faculty, Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Curup, Bengkulu 39119, INDONESIA

⁴English Education Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Siliwangi, Jawa Barat 46115, INDONESIA

Abstract

The aims of this study are to find out (1) ICT (Information and Communications Technology) platform used by male and female students from Islamic universities in Indonesia, (2) their perception of using ICT, and (3) their barriers to using ICT in English language learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. The data was collected from an online questionnaire (Google Form) from students majoring in English from seven Islamic universities in Indonesia. There were 30 male students and 30 female students from every university who participated in this research, making a total of 210 student respondents. The data were analyzed quantitatively by using the SPSS computer program. First of all, female students used more various types of ICT platforms compared to male

* Corresponding author, email: eka.apriani@iaincurup.ac.id

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students. Second, the female students viewed ICT use more positively than male students in language learning. And lastly, even though the females deemed ICT more optimistically compared to male students, nevertheless the females encountered more barriers in using the ICT platforms compared to the male students in this study. Again, even though male students were more skillful in ICT literacy than female students, female students constructively regarded ICT use in language learning as more beneficial to them in terms of skill, knowledge, and motivational improvement.

Keywords: Barriers, gender, ICT platforms, ICT types, perception.

1. INTRODUCTION

ICT (Information and Communications Technology) is an important medium for teaching and learning in today's world. ICT relies on all facets of our lives, such as education, economics, social life, etc. Because of the COVID-19 pandemic, the education system has moved from the non-digitalized mode technology to the digitalized mode. Accordingly, ICT is predisposed for all facets of education such as the lesson plan, methods, process, media, content, and assessment (Apriani et al., 2020). As a learning media, ICT will inspire and involve students to strengthen their active learning (Cabrera-Solano et al., 2020). The positive impact of technology is not only to improve students' achievement but also to construct the personality of a successful life (Apriani, 2016).

In using ICT at universities, lecturers need to know how effective and productive adult learners can practice in learning. Lecturers should teach, inspire, and train students individually to achieve their learning goals (Manangsa et al., 2020). One of the platforms for adult students to use in learning is ICT. Alkaromah et al. (2020) stated that ICT supports the life, exercise, and media learning tools of students and teachers. It has also been found to assist in developing students' language literacy (Gusmuliana et al., 2020). This communication device may be downloaded at any time and any place. In the context of school learning, this device, besides being a tool to teach students by teachers, also allows parental access to support the achievement of their children (i.e., students) at schools.

There are two sorts of ICT that can be employed in the teaching and learning process, they are both non-web-based and web-based instructional resources (Alkanel & Chouthaiwale, 2018). Non-web-based ICT can be accessed by using a non-internet connection. Web-based ICT can be accessed by using an internet connection. In the COVID-19 pandemic era, ICT web-based learning is used in the teaching and learning process especially in Islamic universities of Indonesia.

Since the pandemic, Islamic universities in Indonesia have implemented online learning for almost two years. English lecturers are enforced to use ICT platforms to teach. All teachers and students must be well-informed about the procedures to operate the ICT platforms. Many studies have found that ICT platforms give positive effects on learners. Sanjaya et al. (2020) asserted that students have a favorable view of weblogs based on five researcher-provided indicators: trust of students in writing, development of writing skills, experience and awareness use of information and

communication technology, critical thinking promotion, and accessibility. Furthermore, [Iqbal and Bhatti \(2015\)](#) discovered that M-learning, such as mobile/smartphones, iPods, MP3 players, and private digital assistants (PDAs), helps increase awareness and learning outside of the classroom and also helps to develop relationships amongst students and instructors ([Ekanayake & Wishart, 2011](#)).

Nevertheless, during online learning, students also face some barriers to learning. According to [Octaberlina and Muslimin \(2020\)](#), there are three obstacles namely e-learning unfamiliarity, poor internet access, and physical condition e.g., eye strain. [Siddiquah and Salim \(2017\)](#) added poor working state of computers, lack of Internet access, inaccessibility of vital apps, a lack of technical assistance, a virus threat, computer slowness, Internet signal issues, and load shedding to be other issues in online learning. Therefore, the beneficial impact of ICT cannot be maximized if students face impediments to adopting it.

Furthermore, differences between male and female students in ICT use have also been researched. Thus far, it has been found that male students offered more constructive answers to all things of importance and expense compared to female students ([Buabeng-Andoh & Issufu, 2015](#)). Consequently, teachers must understand these differences so that they can find out the best ICT platform to be used in teaching for both male and female students ([Volman et al., 2005](#)). The erroneous choice on ICT platforms may lead to demotivated male and female students in learning.

Previous studies have largely focused on the effect and barriers of ICT on students in general. However, this study intends to further investigate the (1) ICT platforms used by male and female students from Islamic universities in Indonesia, (2) their perception of using ICT, and (3) their barriers to using ICT. This research is expected to be of additional reference to improve the quality of online teaching and learning in Indonesia, especially in Islamic universities. Thus, the research questions of this study are:

1. What types of ICT platforms were used by male and female students in Islamic universities in Indonesia during the COVID-19 pandemic?
2. What are these students' perceptions toward using ICT?
3. What are these students' barriers to using ICT?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 ICT Platforms for EFL Students

Technology has provided extremely useful tools to aid schooling ([Seliaman & Al-Turki, 2012](#)). Innovations have revolutionized language education by making learning resources open online and usable at any time and place by using ICT ([Pardede, 2020](#)). ICT is described as “forms of information creation, display, storage, manipulation, and exchange technology” ([Donnelly et al., 2011, p. 1470](#)). Moreover, [Asabere and Enguah \(2012\)](#) described ICT as the tools, processes, and facilities that offer the physical infrastructure and services for the creation, transmission, processing, storage, and dissemination of all sorts of information, including speech, text, data, images, and video, to provide the necessary environment.

[Çakici \(2016\)](#) noted that ICT is a powerful method for teaching EFL students. Naturally, the exponential development of ICT has impacted every part of the method

of language teaching. They have been integrated into educational activities to improve and enhance foreign language acquisition (Alkanel & Chouthaiwale, 2018; Jayanthi & Kumar, 2016). ICT may be utilized as a teaching medium by teachers in the teaching and learning processes, particularly in English skills (Apriani, 2017).

According to Hartono (2012), ICT (computers and other supporting equipment) may also function as a 'teacher' or 'tutor'. Using special software, such as a multimedia program or language learning software, is to learn the lessons with advice, teaching, information, or extra explanation for certain terminology blended on the program. ICT platforms include innumerable apps and resources that make learning more dynamic and accessible so that students are not limited in their classroom interactions and learning processes (MacCallum et al, 2014). Using ICT as a learning tool enables students to quickly and effectively access digital content to assist in investigating issues, solving problems, and making decisions, to build novel ways to promote learning and build new understandings in areas of learning, to connect, share, and operate cooperatively in local and global contexts, and to acquire new thought and learning abilities (Adu & Olatundum, 2013). Soler (2002) further mentioned how these student engagements play a favorable impact on language acquisition. When students take the initiative to ask questions and seek assistance, such as through ICT, they are provided with real communicative possibilities.

Non-web-based and web-based learning ICT tools are divided into two categories (Alkanel & Chouthaiwale, 2018). Non-web-based learning is a type of ICT that can be accessed without an Internet connection by teachers and students. Meanwhile, web-based learning is a type of ICT that can be accessed by teachers and students through internet connections. Examples of ICT that can be used in learning English were the computer, LCD, television, speaker, radio, blog, email, YouTube, video, telephone, online databases, audio graphics, online library, audio and video conferencing, as well as computer conferencing. Popular ICT platforms used today to teach English, for instance, are Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WA, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Email, Skype, Kahoot, and others. Other modes that can be used in ICT to teach are such as audio recording, social media, e-learning, e-book, online discussion forum, interactive whiteboard games for learning, website resources, and online journals (Apriani & Hidayah, 2019).

2.2 Students' Perception of Using ICT

The perception of students using ICT in the classroom has largely been found to be positive, they are such as deep coverage of topics, easier to obtain information, quicker to obtain information, more accurate and provide more information on various subjects; these are particularly helpful when students need to complete assignments (Adesoji, 2011). Pardede (2020) further indicated several detailed perceptions of needs that arise in the learning process. They are to increase students' interest and motivation for learning, the constructive effect of ICT in English education, self-efficacy in the use of ICT for learning, its importance in education, and its benefits for a variety of high-intensity applications.

Moreover, Houcine (2011) reported that the concept of the influence of ICT in foreign language teaching was that (1) ICT enables to respond to and utilize recent/daily news, (2) the capacity to combine/use alternatively (basic) abilities (text and images, audio and video clip), (3) become more exciting and less ordinary, which

improves student engagement, and finally, (4) ICT enables to concentrate on one specific feature of the foreign language teaching (pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.). Additionally, Schoepp and Eroglu (2001) featured the benefits of ICT in English language teaching and learning, which included motivation enhancement, independent learner, and skill improvement.

Jayanthi and Kumar (2016) categorized the beneficial effects of ICT for ELT (English Language Teaching) under the following broad headings: material availability, student attitudes, learner autonomy, authenticity, assisting instructors, student-centered, and self-assessment. Using ICT as a learning tool enables students to rapidly and effectively obtain digital information to aid with exploring issues, solving problems and making decisions, producing creative solutions to help to learn and develop new understandings in areas of learning, communicating, sharing, and working collaboratively in a local and global setting, developing new thinking and learning abilities that aid in learning (Adu & Olatundum, 2013). Furthermore, according to Sanyal (2001), there are four ways in which ICT support basic education: (1) promoting school-based education, (2) offering non-formal education for out-of-school children and adults, (3) promoting pre-service distance learning for teachers and their in-service professional growth, and (4) improving school management.

2.3 Students' Barriers in Using ICT

Several barriers have been found in using ICT, especially in education. External hurdles include insufficient money, a lack of time, and a lack of technical help, meanwhile, internal hurdles include teachers' unfavorable attitudes and a lack of confidence (Bingimlas, 2009). In addition, Siddiquah and Salim (2017) specifically detailed Bangladeshi students' barriers in using ICT, and these include poor working state of computers, lack of Internet access, non-accessibility of the necessary applications, lack of technical help, virus danger, slow speed of computers, the signal issue on the Internet, and load shedding.

For EFL classrooms, Wachira and Keegwe (2011) and Kopcha (2012) stated that the use of ICT has been driven by two factors, external and internal variables. Hardware (computers, tablets, smartphones, and internet networks), apps (ICT systems or applications), and policy and leadership help are the external variables. Whereas the internal element relates to the behaviors, values, skills, and ICT abilities of teachers and students. Furthermore, Snoeyink and Ertmer (2001) demonstrated that in Bangladesh, there are two issues with the use of ICT in the classroom. The initial issues include a lack of resources, the unreliability of equipment, a lack of technical help, and other resource-related constraints. Second, all impacts at the school level include business culture and teacher-level elements such as teaching and technological ideals, as well as tolerance for change.

As for both teachers and students, Khan et al. (2011) put forward some issues faced in using ICT: (1) slow speed, (2) insufficient number of PCs. (3) a lack of time to use technological resources, poor internet connection, lack of printer access, loss of energy and a lack of service, lack of access, ineffective training, teachers' attitudes, students' attitudes, and time constraints.

In the same opinion, Snoeyink and Ertmer (2001) mentioned the first order hurdles that included a lack of equipment, equipment unreliability, a lack of technical assistance, and other resource-related concerns. Second-order impediments include

both school-level characteristics like organizational culture and teacher-level ones like teaching and technological views and receptivity to change. Barriers in using ICT consists of inadequate hardware and software upkeep, outage of power, inadequate finance, a lack of ICT integration, insufficient ICT infrastructure, insufficient connections, a scarcity of trained employees, insecurities, a lack of motivation, a lack of confidence, and a lack of understanding about the advantages of ICT (Apriani, et al. 2021).

In short, students' problems in using ICT in ELT classrooms are lack of equipment, lack of confidence, lack of motivation, lack of funding, and lack of ICT abilities. Lack of resources/equipment consists of lack of handphone, lack of computer, lack of speaker, lack of Wi-Fi, lack of a printer, incompatible device, sharing the device with other family members, low internet connection, and no electricity. Then, lack of funding consists of low-income families, internet costs, and buying laptops or handphones/ etc. Next, lack of ICT abilities consists of a lack of knowledge of use ICT, lack of technological competence, and lack of ICT training (Snoeyink & Ertmer 2001; Syafryadin et al., 2021).

2.4 Gender Differences in English Learning

Gender gaps that involve language, information technology, science, and math, for example, have a significant impact in influencing students' learning preferences and outcomes, but the margin of gender disparities is shrinking as culture and times change (Macleod et al., 2002). In this case, when they try to use computer technology and its assisted language learning services to improve their English language learning, there is a gender disparity among EFL students. While both male and female students have indicated that CALL programs are useful for improving their English abilities, male students had a more hopeful learning attitude and less learning anxiety about utilizing CALL programs for English learning than female students (Lai & Kuo, 2007).

In various motivational research on gender disparities in the sense of foreign language learning, it has been found that women are more inspired than boys to study foreign languages (Mori & Gobel, 2006). Javid et al. (2012) found that due to their gender, substantial variations occurred in the extrinsic motivational orientations of university-level students. Gender disparities manifestly effect the students' academic objectives, needs, and successes (Collins et al., 2000; Halpern, 1986; Swiatek & Lupkowski-Shoplik, 2000). The memory of female learners is slightly higher than that of male students studying foreign languages (i.e., this includes comprehension, mechanical memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory). In addition, the recollection of females is still much greater than that of males (Jia, 1996).

There is a gender discrepancy in the use of ICT in language education among male and female students. Volman et al. (2005) found that when working together on computing, the computer attitude of female students appears to be less optimistic than that of male students and they cope with ICT tasks differently. It is also reported that female instructors use less ICT in their classrooms than male teachers (Mahdi & Al-Dera, 2013). What is more, there is also a distinction between male and female languages, expressed in vocabulary, grammar, etc. (Ning et al., 2010). Logan and Johnston (2009) found that females had a greater grasp of reading, read more often, and had a more optimistic reading attitude compared to males. In learning, Speer (2002) found the tight relationship between gender differences and styles of learning

and discovered that males preferred the abstract conceptualization method of learning more than women.

3. METHODS

This study employed a descriptive quantitative research design (Creswell, 2002). The data were obtained from an online questionnaire (i.e., Google Form). The subjects were 210 students majoring in English from seven Islamic universities in Indonesia. They are Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Curup, IAIN Bengkulu, Universitas Islam Negeri (UIN) Raden Fatah, IAIN Salatiga, UIN Mataram, UIN Sulthan Thaha Saifudin, and IAIN Fattahul Muluk Papua. From every university, a number of 30 male students and 30 female students participated in this study (see Table 1).

The questionnaire in this study was divided into three parts, which inquired about: ICT type (11 items), perception (10 items), and problem (10 items) in ICT use during the COVID-19 pandemic. The questionnaire was validated by two English experts from the University of Sriwijaya and the University of Bengkulu. The researchers also conducted a try-out on the questionnaire to 30 students. The result showed that the mean validity is $0.635 > 0.5$ and reliability is 0.835, which means that it was reliable to be used in this research. The data from the questionnaire were analyzed by using quantitative analysis. The SPSS or excel program was used to calculate the data (Arkkelin, 2014).

Table 1. The subject of the research.

No	University	Students	
		F	M
1.	IAIN Curup	30	30
2.	IAIN Bengkulu	30	30
3.	UIN Raden Fatah Palembang	30	30
4.	IAIN Salatiga	30	30
5.	UIN Mataram	30	30
6.	UIN Sulthan Thaha Saifudin Jambi	30	30
7.	IAIN Fattahul Muluk Papua	30	30
	Total	210	210

4. RESULTS

4.1 ICT Types Viewed from Gender

Based on the ICT type in the questionnaire, the researchers found that there were differences in the use of ICT in learning English skills between male and female students (i.e., reading, listening, writing, and speaking). They preferred different platforms to study these skills. The differences in preferences are shown in Table 2.

In English reading skills, there were differences in using ICT type viewed from gender (male and female). Male students used more of Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Instagram, Email, and Kahoot in learning English with their teachers, friends and for independent learning. But female students used more of Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram,

Email, and Kahoot. Male students did not use Facebook, YouTube, and Skype for learning at all, and female students did not use Skype.

In English listening skills, male students used more of Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, and YouTube. Whereas female students used more Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram, Email, and Kahoot. The male students did not prefer Instagram, Email, Skype, and Kahoot for learning, and the female did not prefer YouTube and Skype.

In English writing skills, males used more of Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Instagram, and Email. While female students used Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Email, and Kahoot. Male students did not use Facebook, YouTube, Skype, and Kahoot for learning writing, and the female students did not use Skype to learn this skill.

In English speaking skills, ICT used by male students were Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, YouTube. The ICT used by female students to learn this skill were Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Email, and Kahoot. The male students did not favor Instagram, Email, Skype, and Kahoot to learn this skill, and the female students did not favor the Skype platform.

Table 2. ICT types used by students in learning English skills.

No	Types of ICT	Reading		Listening		Writing		Speaking	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.	Google Classroom	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
2.	Zoom	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
3.	Google Meet	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
4.	WhatsApp	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
5.	Facebook	-	√	√	√	-	√	√	√
6.	YouTube	-	√	√	-	-	√	√	√
7.	Instagram	√	√	-	√	√	√	-	√
8.	Email	√	√	-	√	√	√	-	√
9.	Skype	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.	Kahoot	√	√	-	√	-	√	-	√
11.	Other ICT Platforms	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

From these findings, the ICT platforms mostly used by the male and female students in learning the four language skills are Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, and WhatsApp. Both male and female students did not use Skype in learning. The male students used similar ICT platforms for listening and speaking skills, which were Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, and WhatsApp. In the meantime, the female students used similar ICT platforms to learn reading, writing, and speaking, which were Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, YouTube, and Instagram. This shows that female students used more forms of ICT to improve their English skills than male students.

4.2 Students' Perception of Using ICT Viewed from Gender

The results showed that there were some differences in students' perception in using ICT viewed from gender. The results are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. Students' perception of using ICT.

No	Statement	Male (percentage)				Female (Percentage)			
		SA	A	D	SD	SA	A	D	SD
1.	ICT Platforms can access material anytime and anywhere in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	85	15	0	0	78.20	21.8	0	0
2.	ICT Platforms can help search relevant information or material of my course easier in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	90.47	9.52	0	0	95.2	4.76	0	0
3.	ICT Platforms can help improve my English skills in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	14.2	85.7	0	80.95	19.04	0	0
4.	ICT Platforms can help improve my knowledge in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	0	78.57	21.42	92.8	7.1	0	0
5.	ICT Platforms can help me to submit task/assignment in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	86.6	13.3	0	0	80.95	19.04	0	0
6.	ICT Platforms can help me to recover my study gap in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	0	71.4	28.57	91.9	8.09	0	0
7.	ICT Platforms can enhance my motivation to finish my studies on time in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	0	80.47	19.52	92.8	7.1	0	0
8.	ICT Platforms can help me to solve my study problem in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	0	61.90	38.09	96.1	3.8	0	0
9.	ICT Platforms is a faster way to get lecturers' feedback in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	0	47.61	52.38	0	0	64.3	35.7
10.	ICT Platforms can enhance interaction between student and teachers in COVID-19 Pandemic Era;	0	0	80.47	19.52	0	0	59.52	40.04
	Mean scores	26.20	5.20	50.59	17.95	70.89	9.07	12.38	7.57

Based on Table 3, we can see distinctions between the male and female students, where the female students provided a more positive perception about using ICT in learning language compared to males. The female students provided positive responses to eight items on the use of ICT in language learning, which are (1) ICT platforms can access the material anytime and anywhere, (2) ICT platforms can help search relevant information or material of my course easier, (3) ICT platforms can help improve my English skills, (4) ICT platforms can help improve my knowledge, (5) ICT platforms can help me to submit task/assignment, (6) ICT platforms can aid me to recover from my study gap, (7) ICT Platforms can boost my enthusiasm to complete my studies on time, and (8) ICT Platforms can assist me in resolving my study difficulty. Meanwhile, the male students provided positive responses to three items (i.e., items 1, 2, and 5).

On the other hand, the male students provided more negative perception on the use of ICT for language learning, which included items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 on improving English skills, improving knowledge, recovering study gap, enhancing motivation, solving study problems, much in receiving the lecturers' feedback, and enhancing student-teacher interaction. This is assumed that while using those platforms in learning during this pandemic, they could not achieve maximum interactions with their lecturers and peers. And this is different if the class was conducted offline, where face-to-face interactions happen and communication is deemed much smoother.

In this aspect, the similar positive perceptions that were obtained from both male and female students are from items 1, 2, and 3 which are related to easy access, help search relevant information or materials for their course and help them submit their task/assignment. Meanwhile, the similar negative perception from both was on items 1 and 2, about not receiving speedier lecturers' feedback and cannot enhance interactions between students and lecturers.

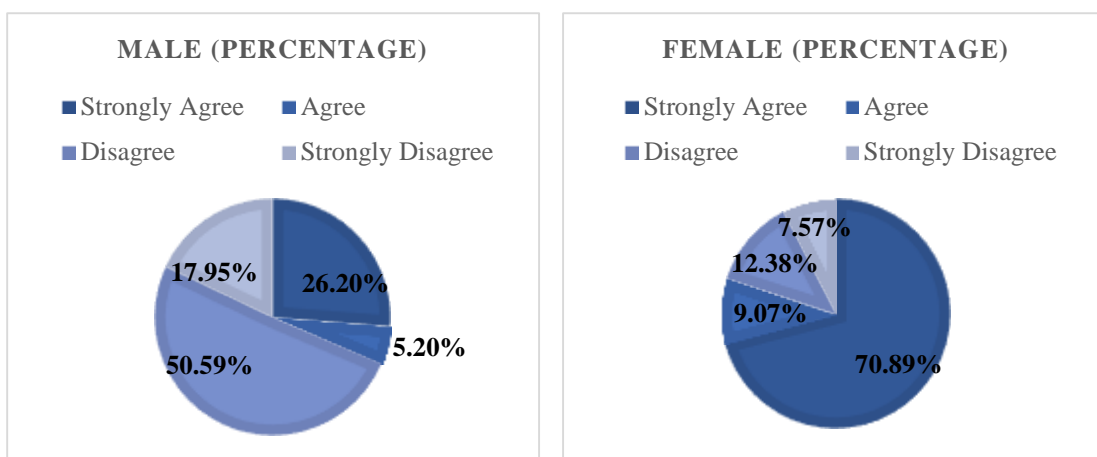


Figure 1. Students' perception of using ICT (male vs. female).

To sum up, from Figure 1, male students gave a more negative perception of using ICT in learning English skills than female students. This is also shown by the mean scores. In this case, male students chose 50.59% of disagree and 17.95% of strongly disagree of all items. It means that ICT did not give a crucial effect on the male students in learning English during the COVID-19 Pandemic Era. Meanwhile, female students gave a positive perception of using ICT in learning English skills, with

70.89% strongly agree and 9.07% agree for all items. This denotes ICT gives a more crucial effect to female students in learning English during the COVID-19 pandemic compared to male students.

4.3 Students Barriers in Using ICT Viewed from Gender

The result showed that there were some differences in barriers to using ICT in language learning between male and female students, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Students' barriers in using ICT.

No	Students' Problems	Male	Female
	<i>Lack of resources/equipment</i>		
1.	Lack of handphone/Computer/Laptop/Speaker/Printer	-	-
2.	Do not have electricity.	-	√
3.	Incompatible device	-	√
4.	Sharing device with others family	√	√
5.	Lack of Wi-Fi/Low internet connection	√	√
	<i>Lack of funding</i>		
6.	Low-income families	√	√
7.	Internet cost	√	√
8.	Equipment Cost (Buying laptop or handphone/ etc.)	-	-
	<i>Lack of ICT abilities</i>		
9.	Lack of Knowledge and Skills of use ICT	-	√
10.	Lack of ICT Platform Training	-	√

Despite the female students viewed the use of ICT in language learning more positively compared to male students, nevertheless, these female students faced more barriers in using them compared to males. The females reported problems in items (1) lack of resources/equipment (do not have electricity, incompatible device, sharing the device with others family, lack of wi-fi/low internet connection), (2) lack of funding (low-income families and internet cost), and (3) lack of ICT abilities (lack of knowledge and skills of use ICT, lack of ICT training). While the male students faced fewer barriers, in which they only reported problems in two items, they are (1) lack of resources/equipment (sharing device with others family and lack of wi-fi/low internet connection) and (2) lack of funding (low-income families and internet cost). Hence, sharing devices with other family members, lack of wi-fi/low internet connection, low-income families, and internet cost were the barriers that both male and female students faced in using various ICT platforms. It can be said that the male student participants in this study were more skillful in ICT literacy compared to the female students.

5. DISCUSSION

Based on the findings, there are three key findings in this study. First, based on the types of ICT used, both male and female students used Google Classroom, Zoom, Google Meet, and WhatsApp in language learning. These platforms are considered easier to operate. The platform that both did not use to learn was Skype. Hence, female students prefer more various types of ICT in learning English skills than male students. Similarly, Jia (1996) also found that the memory of female learners is slightly higher than that of male students in studying foreign languages (including understanding,

mechanical memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory) in using ICT, and the recollection of females is much greater than that of male students. However, this finding differed with [Mahdi and Al-Dera \(2013\)](#) who reported that females use less ICT in their classrooms than males. But their work focused on instructors, meanwhile this study focused on students, and perhaps this caused the dissimilarity.

Second, on the perception of using ICT in English language learning, the male students gave more negative responses compared to the female students. These negative perceptions were that ICT platforms did not provide quicker lecturers' feedback and they did not enhance the interactions between students and teachers. Meanwhile, the female students view ICT use in language learning more positively. They found ICT platforms were easily accessible, assisted them in searching relevant information or materials for their studies, helped improve their English skills and knowledge, helped them in completing their task/assignments, helped them recover their study gap, enhanced their motivation to finish their studies on time, and helped them solve their study problems. In the same vein, [Dörnyei et al. \(2006\)](#) and [Mori and Gobel \(2006\)](#) reported that females are more inspired than males to study foreign languages, and are more optimistic in learning with ICT platforms compared to males ([Lai & Kuo, 2007](#)).

Finally, on the last aspect of barriers, although female students responded more positively to ICT use in English language learning compared to males, thus females encountered more problems in using it compared to male students. The setback reported by the female students were lack of resources/equipment, lack of funding, and lack of ICT abilities. Lack of resources/equipment means that they did not have sufficient electricity, they shared the device with other family members, they had incompatible devices, and lack of Wi-Fi or a slow internet connection. Lack of funding referred to low-income families and internet costs. Lack of ICT abilities signified the lack of knowledge and skills of use ICT and lack of ICT platform training. In the meantime, male students faced setbacks in lack of resources/equipment and lack of funding. It can be said that the male students in this study were more adept in ICT literacy compared to the female students. These challenges are also among those faced by other students around the world, where e-learning unacquaintedness, poor internet access, and physical condition (e.g., eye strain) hinders the use of ICT ([Octaberlina & Muslimin, 2020](#)). Likewise, [Siddiquah and Salim \(2017\)](#) these issues were common in online learning. Therefore, the beneficial impact of ICT cannot be maximized if students face impediments to adopting it.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, there are differences in types, perceptions, and barriers in using ICT in learning English by male and female students at the seven Islamic universities in Indonesia. First of all, female students used more various types of ICT platforms compared to male students. Second, the female students viewed ICT use more positively than male students in language learning. And lastly, even though the females deemed ICT more optimistically compared to male students, nevertheless the females encountered more barriers in using the ICT platforms compared to the male students in this study. Again, even though male students were more skillful in ICT literacy than female students, female students constructively regarded ICT use in

language learning as more beneficial to them in terms of skill, knowledge, and motivational improvement.

The present study has answered the research questions under exploration. But then again, every research has its limitation. The distinguished drawback from this present study is that it employed only a questionnaire to answer the research questions, and the participants were limited to only seven Islamic universities in Indonesia. Therefore, future related research is expected to cover more universities to gain more respondents so that the findings can be generalized to the Indonesian context. Furthermore, the use of qualitative approaches, such as observations and interviews, is also encouraged to obtain more insights on the use of ICT in English language learning.

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EFL Teachers' Online Teaching in Rural Schools during the COVID-19 Pandemic: Stories from Indonesia

I Putu Indra Kusuma^{*1,2}

¹English Language Education, Faculty of Language and Art, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja 81116, INDONESIA

²Special Education & Literacy Studies, College of Education & Human Development, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo 49008, UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Abstract

The implementation of online English instruction in remote areas during the COVID-19 pandemic, which mandates school closures, remains unknown, especially given these areas' reputation for inadequate educational facilities. Additionally, the preparations, implementation, and challenges experienced by English as a Foreign Language (henceforth, EFL) teachers in rural areas remain unclear. This study therefore aimed at exploring the experiences of EFL teachers in rural areas on (1) their readiness for conducting online teaching, (2) their implementation of online teaching, and (3) the challenges during the implementation of online teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic. The research was conducted in Indonesia with eight English teachers in rural schools. This study was a qualitative study that employed a phenomenological study approach and used semi-structured interviews to collect the data. The findings indicate that EFL teachers, during this pandemic time, were able to conduct fully online English teaching because they possessed sufficient knowledge of English instruction using technology. Additionally, these teachers might leverage various technologies and adapt those tools to transform their usual face-to-face English instruction into online instruction. Nonetheless, these teachers in rural schools frequently encountered challenges with internet connectivity, student-owned technology devices, student enthusiasm, and student netiquette when enrolling in online English

* Corresponding author, email: indra.kusuma@undiksha.ac.id

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teaching. Additionally, this article discusses some practical considerations for implementing online English teaching during a pandemic.

Keywords: Covid-19, distance learning, online teaching, teaching, TELL, rural areas.

1. INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically changed the aspect of English teaching and learning (Yi & Jang, 2020) and students' lives in different ways as these students might not be able to finish their studies in the usual way (Daniel, 2020). In response to this pandemic, 107 countries had been reported to close their public schools by March 2020 (Viner et al., 2020) and 188 countries in total by early April 2020 (Basilaia & Kvavadze, 2020). Such schools have been closed to further limit the transmission of COVID-19 to students (Gerber & Leong, 2021; Murphy, 2020).

The closure of these schools resulted in the implementation of teaching during the pandemic, and several countries agreed to suspend face-to-face instruction in favor of online instruction (Daniel, 2020; Ockey, 2021). However, the COVID-19 pandemic and the abrupt shifts from offline classroom instruction to full-fledged online learning are relatively new for our students and teachers. Not all students and teachers in all schools are capable of adequately implementing online learning. For instance, even though nine English teachers in London had used online learning, they encountered various challenges, including internet connectivity, delivering appropriate English evaluations, and delivering adequate explanations via videos (see Evans et al., 2020). The preceding examples demonstrate that difficulties in online English instruction are inevitable during this pandemic. Large countries and towns are constantly confronted with many challenges while transitioning from traditional offline classroom training to abrupt online classroom learning. Even the English teachers in London, a large metropolis, continue to have difficulties, and comparable difficulties may exist in other regions, even rural ones.

Very little is known about how teachers in rural schools conduct online English teaching during this pandemic. A study conducted by Dube (2020) has shed some light that rural schools during this pandemic time are facing some challenges, such as unavailability of internet connection, shortage of devices to support online learning, closure of internet cafes, and lack of computer skills for teaching. However, additional research is needed to better understand how online English teaching is carried out in rural areas during this pandemic, particularly regarding EFL teachers' preparation, implementation, and obstacles. It is critical to learn about the experiences of EFL teachers as they prepare to transition from traditional to online teaching. Such narratives are required to provide a complete picture of how online teaching is implemented in rural areas. Thus, in-depth investigations are essential to offer us current information about how online English teaching is handled during this pandemic, particularly online English teaching in rural areas, which are notorious for their lack of educational infrastructure (Febriana et al., 2018).

This research, therefore, conducted a phenomenological study to collect teachers' stories teaching in rural schools by interviewing eight EFL teachers of secondary education in rural areas. Therefore, this research aimed to explore the EFL

teachers' readiness to conduct distance learning with technology, the implementation of their English language teaching in rural areas, and the challenges they face during online teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This study posed the following questions to guide the inquiry:

1. How was the English as a foreign language teachers' readiness before COVID-19-induced online teaching in rural areas?
2. How did English as foreign language teachers conduct online teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic in rural areas?
3. What challenges did English as a foreign language teachers face during online English teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic in rural areas?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teaching in Rural Areas

Rural areas are well-known for their lack of socioeconomic amenities such as decent education, adequate health care, adequate transportation, marketing facilities, and even electricity (Dube, 2020). Moreover, regarding English education, rural areas have minimal funds to hold such education in their districts. For instance, Hansen-Thomas et al. (2016) assert that rural areas have limited funds to cover the costs of teaching materials and other demands such as full-time English teachers. As a result, teaching in rural areas is renowned for its lack of quality (Febriana et al., 2018).

Preparing teachers to teach in rural schools has been a concern for many countries (Kizilaslan, 2012). However, providing professional development programs for teachers in rural areas could be an onerous task (Hansen-Thomas et al., 2016). In addition, families in rural areas sometimes do not support their children with sufficient literacy activities and support at home (Omidire et al., 2018). Therefore, teaching in rural areas that are well known for their lack of education facilities (Febriana et al., 2018) might be challenging for some teachers.

Some recent studies have reported the challenges of teaching in rural areas. For example, Kizilaslan (2012) investigated the attitudes of 115 senior student instructors in an English language teaching department in Turkey. Most respondents thought teaching in rural areas would present unique problems, including unfamiliarity with pupils' cultural backgrounds, restricted access to resources, a lack of prior teaching experience, transportation, and accommodation. Thus, these preconceived notions may dissuade teachers from teaching in rural areas even before they are assigned.

Hansen-Thomas et al. (2016) surveyed 117 instructors from 13 rural Texas school districts. Hansen-Thomas reported that these teachers face a few challenges, including the following: students in rural areas lack academic vocabulary in English, they are hesitant to ask questions about their learning which creates communication problems with their English teachers, and English teachers have a limited amount of time to prepare courses, teach, and do other academic activities. As a result, these challenges impacted the quality of English education in rural areas.

In another instance, Omidire et al. (2018) researched South African rural schools. They observed three teachers in three classrooms at two rural schools and concluded that language instruction did not promote students' learning even though these three teachers claimed to have had enough curriculum training. Additionally,

they reported that students' literacy abilities might be the underlying cause of all issues encountered during teaching and learning. Many families in South Africa were impoverished and unable to support their children's literacy development to support English learning. These examples demonstrate how English teaching in rural areas faces numerous challenges from the viewpoint of both teachers and students. Additionally, little is known about how online English instruction is conducted in rural schools during this pandemic, especially in Indonesia with many rural areas.

2.2 Teaching English with Technology during the COVID-19 pandemic

Several initiatives have been made to establish efficient online English teaching throughout this pandemic period. Online education is typically classified into three modes: synchronous, asynchronous, and hybrid (Perveen, 2016). According to Gorjian and Payman (2014), synchronous mode requires real-time communication via chatting or live video conferencing applications. In contrast, the asynchronous mode allows students and teachers to connect via offline applications in a delayed form. Furthermore, synchronous mode ensures that all students have an equal opportunity to be directed by the teacher and stay on track throughout their learning (Digiovanni & Nagaswami, 2001). Thus, the synchronous mode can create real-time interactive interactions as an alternative to face-to-face learning in the COVID-19 pandemic.

For example, Evans et al. (2020) discussed their experiences teaching English in London and using Google Meet and Google Classroom to provide their students with synchronous mode. Even though Evans et al. (2020) were not prepared to adopt online English teaching, they did their best by frequently explaining materials and activities via Google Meet, despite several students expressing confusion the following day. The students were then instructed to photograph their assignments and upload them to Google Classroom.

Another example, Moorhouse and Beaumont (2020) discussed their experiences in creating an online English course for a Hongkong-based English teacher using video conferencing technologies, such as Zoom, to give live lessons after dissatisfaction with the previous asynchronous format. Moorhouse and Beaumont created a three-stage lesson that included an offline pre-live-lesson task, an online live-lesson, and a post-live-lesson task (on a learning management system). Additionally, the English teacher used Mentimeter or Kahoot as an assessment and gameplay to supplement the activities.

However, not all individuals are able to participate in virtual communication due to infrastructure constraints such as a lack of technical tools, internet connections, bandwidth, and internet restrictions. As a result, asynchronous learning may be the ideal option for conducting emergency online learning during this pandemic period (Daniel, 2020; Murphy, 2020). According to Daniel (2020), students and teachers have flexibility in conducting online learning through asynchronous mode. Teachers can prepare their materials, post the materials, and check the students' works at their convenient time, while students can arrange their time to deal with home and study demands. For instance, Yi and Jang (2020) reported that two English teachers in a rural area of South Korea prepared pre-recorded video courses for asynchronous mode, which appeared to benefit the students' distant learning experience.

2.3 The Challenges of Online English Teaching during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Several studies have reported the challenges faced by English teachers when conducting online English teaching, both in urban and rural areas. For instance, [Evans et al. \(2020\)](#) discussed their experiences as English language teachers in London. They claimed they were not prepared to teach English online and even questioned whether their lessons were successful. Additionally, they discovered that students had very few interactions with other students during the online learning process.

Another example, according to [Sayer and Braun \(2020\)](#), not all urban districts in the United States possess the necessary infrastructure to conduct online English learning. Additionally, this pandemic afflicted many families in the United States, including immigrants. As a result, they observed that instructors needed to reach out to kids and families to ensure access to remote learning technology. Additionally, they noted that students were required to master new online learning methods using smartphones and other technologies.

[Ferdiansyah et al. \(2020\)](#) reported that students encountered many challenges when using online literature circles to teach English online in an Indonesian school. At the start of the courses, students had connectivity issues. Additionally, students struggled to communicate effectively and on time when discussing the topic with their peers in group projects. Some students even did not activate their phones for the whole day, while others frequently encountered issues with the internet connection or mobile phone signal.

[Yi and Jang \(2020\)](#) described a situation in which two English teachers in a rural area of South Korea struggled to create video lessons for their students. One teacher was a native English speaker who understood the material but could not create videos; the other was a Korean who could create video lectures but struggled with the material. Fortunately, they collaborated to develop pre-recorded video tutorials for their students.

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

This study employed a phenomenological approach to describe the common meaning of several individuals' lived experiences of a phenomenon ([Creswell & Poth, 2018](#)) to gain an in-depth and holistic understanding. The phenomenon observed in this study was English language teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, which required teachers to conduct distance learning through online platforms. Meanwhile, the lived experiences observed in this study were the EFL teachers' experiences when conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic.

3.2 Context, Participants, and Researcher

This study was conducted in the central region of Indonesia, primarily in rural areas. In terms of education, Indonesian rural communities lack qualified teachers and access to teaching and learning resources ([Febriana et al., 2018](#)). Therefore, this

study's main purpose was to better understand English teachers' readiness to conduct distance learning with technology and implement their English language teaching in rural areas, including the challenges they faced during the COVID-19 pandemic.

To meet the above purpose, the researcher approached a superintendent who knew EFL teachers teaching English in rural areas secondary schools in the middle part of Indonesia. The researcher was then connected to an EFL teacher who happened to be the first participant in this study. The rest of the participants were then invited using a snowball sampling technique. The participants in this study had to meet some criteria to be able to participate, such as (1) teaching English in rural areas, (2) teaching English in a secondary school, and (3) implementing online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. At first, the researcher was connected to 13 EFL teachers. However, two of them were not implementing online teaching due to the unavailability of facilities, especially internet and computer devices. In addition, three teachers had moved and no longer taught in rural areas. Thus, the primary participants in this study were eight EFL teachers (three females and five males) teaching in rural areas secondary schools in the middle part of Indonesia (see Table 1). The researcher then sent a consent letter explaining the study, including the risks and benefits of joining the study. All agreed to participate in this study and were coded to preserve their information confidentiality.

Table 1. The participants' demographic information.

Participants	Gender	Schools' level of teaching	Online classes taught	Years of teaching experiences
Teacher 1	Female	Vocational high school	6 classes	2 years
Teacher 2	Female	Senior high school	10 classes	11 years
Teacher 3	Female	Vocational high school	6 classes	9 years
Teacher 4	Male	Vocational high school	5 classes	9 years
Teacher 5	Male	Senior high school	12 classes	9 years
Teacher 6	Male	Junior high school	3 classes	6 years
Teacher 7	Male	Junior high school	6 classes	8 years
Teacher 8	Male	Junior high school	3 classes	1 year

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

This study's data were collected through in-depth individual interviews through phone calls since some areas implemented a Stay-at-Home order, which requires all Indonesians to stay at home. The type of interview conducted was a semi-structured interview to enable flexibility in exploring the participants' experiences. The researcher developed the interview guide based on the information gathered from the literature review about teaching in rural areas and teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. Thus, all questions covered whether the participants had sufficient knowledge to teach English using technology, how they implemented the online instruction, and what challenges they faced during the online teaching. Moreover, the interview guide used in this study contained four parts of questions such as (1) participants' demographic information, (2) participants' readiness in conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, (3) the implementation of online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, and (4) the challenges when conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. Each participant was individually interviewed twice, 40-60 minutes/session, over two months. The interviews were

conducted in Indonesian to reduce anxiety and increase the chance of getting more profound data as the participants would find it easier to describe their thoughts in their mother tongue (Utami & Prestridge, 2018). The secondary data collected in this study were the artifacts showing the training/webinars attended by the teachers, implementation of online learning, challenges faced during the COVID-19 pandemic, which were reported during interviews. These secondary data served as a triangulation method used in this study to confirm the participants' testimonies.

The interviews were recorded using a mobile phone recorder application. The transcriptions were sent to all participants for validation and to ensure the accuracy and trustworthiness of the data (Utami & Prestridge, 2018). This study used the data analysis spiral strategy in which the researcher enters with audio materials and exits with an account of stories or narratives (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Furthermore, Creswell and Poth (2018) mentioned that this strategy consists of six phases such as (1) managing and organizing the data, (2) reading and memoing the emergent ideas, (3) describing and classifying codes into themes, (4) developing and assessing interpretations, (5) representing and visualizing the data, and (6) account of findings. The researcher began by transcribing the interviews and organizing all data in folders for easy management. The researcher then proceeded to the second phase by reading all the transcripts obtained from the interviews, memos, and artifacts. He generated codes and relevant topics in the third phase and then made some interpretations in the fourth phase. The researcher began composing narratives of the participants' stories and selecting acceptable passages to support them in phase five. Finally, this article was written to disseminate the study's findings.

The themes in this study were categorized prior to conducting the analysis, such as (1) participants' readiness in conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, (2) the implementation of online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, and (3) the challenges faced when conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. When emerging the themes, the researcher employed thematic analysis (see Braun & Clarke, 2006) through reading all codes from the transcripts. In addition, an *in vivo* coding analysis technique was employed to support the analysis by classifying the participants' exact words to the three themes mentioned above. Furthermore, the bracketing method was also implemented by writing memos during interviews and analysis (Tufford & Newman, 2012). The memos were used to examine and reflect upon the researcher's engagement with the data.

4. RESULTS

The findings were summarized, and the participants' experiences were highlighted to address the research questions, analyzed, and narratively described. The analysis resulted in three themes, 11 categories, 12 sub-categories, and 67 codes (see Table 2). Because the space is limited, not all experiences are presented in every theme.

4.1 The Readiness of Teaching English Using Technology

The summarized results from the first theme, the readiness of teaching English using technology, are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The summary of the data analysis from the first theme.

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories	Sample excerpts
The readiness of teaching English using technology	Gaining knowledge of teaching with technology from autodidactic learning		"I know how to teach using technology because I learned this knowledge when I was working at my previous school."
	Gaining knowledge of teaching with technology from seminars/workshops		"The government and private institutions often gave seminars and workshops before and during the pandemic, and I often joined in."
	Gaining knowledge of teaching with technology from TPACK-related programs		"I gained my knowledge of teaching with technology from my lecturers when I was a pre-service teacher."
	Knowing how to teach with technology		"I use WhatsApp because my students knew how to use it."

The readiness of teaching using technology is vital for successful technology integration. Thus, having Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (henceforth, TPACK), a knowledge of teaching content using technology (Koehler & Mishra, 2005, 2009), is necessary for all teachers, including those teaching in rural areas. In general, all participants gained TPACK through joining TPACK-related programs or autodidactic learning. However, the interview results suggested that all teachers had different experiences of gaining TPACK. For example, two participants joined the TPACK-related programs. In contrast, the rest only joined formal technology seminars and workshops or learned it autodidactically since they did not attend TPACK-related programs or their TEPs (Teacher Education Programs) did not provide them with such a framework at that time. Teacher 6's and Teacher 8's interview results are the best examples of how teachers in rural areas obtained their TPACK.

4.1.1 Teacher 6

Teacher 6 has been teaching English in rural areas for six years and recently had the opportunity to spend a year teaching English in a remote area of eastern Indonesia. Throughout the epidemic, he taught three online sessions at a junior high school, with each session consisting of 22-29 pupils. Although the government ordered all teachers to conduct online instruction, he was not hesitant to deliver it because he had sufficient knowledge and teaching expertise using technology:

- (1) "I know how to teach using technology because I learned this knowledge when working at my previous school. This school, even though in a rural area, required me to teach using technology. So, I am well-prepared for online teaching during the pandemic".

Later, when he was working at his old school, he learned how to use Schoology, Quipper, Google Classroom, and many other tools to teach English from two seminars. However, Teacher 6 never learned how to use technology when he was a pre-service teacher. He said:

- (2) “When I was a pre-service teacher, I did not get any knowledge of teaching with technology because the technology was not as advanced as today and was rarely implemented in teaching”.

Therefore, although Teacher 6 was familiar with Learning Management System (henceforth, LMS) and quiz maker applications, he did not use them in his online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic. Instead, he used Ms. Words, Ms. PowerPoint, and WhatsApp solely. Interestingly, he noted how beneficial WhatsApp was during the pandemic. He said:

- (3) “I use WhatsApp because my students knew how to use it...I often use voice messages to explain a topic or to give confirmations on pronunciations of some words to my students”.

4.1.2 Teacher 8

Teacher 8 was an inexperienced instructor with little classroom experience. He was blessed in that he was hired as an in-service teacher immediately following his graduation. He was then transferred to teach on a small island recognized for its educational deficiencies. Teacher 8 conducted three online lessons throughout the epidemic, with each class consisting of between 27 and 35 pupils. Teacher 8 was prepared to teach online because he claimed to have extensive experience teaching utilizing technology prior to the outbreak of COVID-19 in Indonesia. Unlike Teacher 6, Teacher 8 learned about technology-enhanced education while he was a pre-service teacher:

- (4) “I gained my knowledge of teaching using technology from my lecturers when I was a pre-service teacher. They implemented various technology tools when teaching. For example, I learned how to upload materials, hold discussions, and give feedback using Schoology”.

He also noted that by viewing YouTube and participating in webinars hosted by various private universities, he increased his expertise in teaching using technology. To support his online teaching, he implemented some technology tools such as smartphones, laptops and used some applications such as Ms. Word and Ms. PPT, and an LMS developed by the local education authority. However, he added WhatsApp as an alternative as he said:

- (5) “The LMS provided by the local government was not so interactive as it did not have a discussion forum or a chat feature. I, therefore, used WhatsApp as an alternative to the communication issue”.

4.2 The Implementation of Online Teaching During the COVID-19 Pandemic

The summarized results from the second theme, the implementation of online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, are presented in Table 3.

When the Indonesian Ministry of Education mandated that all teachers and professors conduct distance education via online learning, traditional face-to-face classrooms were transformed overnight into online classrooms. The interview findings indicated that some participants implemented LMS. However, a few of them used WhatsApp in replacement of LMS. These are best described through the experiences of Teacher 7, Teacher 1, Teacher 2, and Teacher 3.

Table 3. The summary of the data analysis from the second theme.

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories	Sample excerpts
The implementation of online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic	Teaching listening with technology	Materials delivery	"I did not use an LMS platform as it is a new thing for the students, and I have to create a tutorial for them if I use an LMS."
		Assessments	"I gave a multiple-choice test using Google Form to assess my students since it is effortless to score."
	Teaching speaking with technology	Materials delivery	"I uploaded the speaking materials via Google Classroom as I used this LMS platform in my classes."
		Assessments	"I asked my students to record their voices talking about a topic and uploaded them on WhatsApp."
	Teaching reading with technology	Materials delivery	"I employed Google Classroom and WhatsApp during my teaching, especially for sending the texts for my students."
		Assessments	"I often gave multiple-choice tests after the students read the texts."
	Teaching writing with technology	Materials delivery	"I rarely used offline texts from the student's textbooks"
		Assessments	"I asked my students to write one or two paragraphs only. Sometimes, I asked them to write a short essay."

4.2.1 Teacher 7

Teacher 7 has been teaching in rural areas for about eight years and has been transferred to three rural schools. During the epidemic, he taught six classes at the new school, with 30-37 children crammed into one classroom. However, Teacher 7 felt optimistic before conducting online teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic because he and the students had already participated in blended learning.

He searched for and adapted audio recordings online to match the students' levels when teaching listening skills. In addition, Teacher 7 seemed to employ simple technologies to convey the listening materials and instructions for various reasons. For example, he made use of WhatsApp:

- (6) "I did not use an LMS platform as it is a new thing for the students, and I have to create a tutorial for them if I use an LMS. There is no time to learn a new application during this pandemic time. WhatsApp will be straightforward to use because the students are familiar with this application".

Moreover, due to conducting online learning, Teacher 7 would standby for a couple of hours after delivering the materials and instructions if some students asked questions. When giving the assessments to the students, Teacher 7 tended to implement traditional assessments rather than authentic ones, which are time-consuming. In addition, he often used Google Form as a means of assessments:

- (7) “I gave a multiple-choice test using Google Form to assess my students since it is effortless to score. Furthermore, during this pandemic, I spent more hours doing online teaching than the time I spent in traditional teaching since I had to standby for hours during my teaching schedule, and I had many classes with many students to teach. Therefore, implementing this technique (multiple-choice) is the best option I have”.

4.2.2 *Teacher 1*

Teacher 1 was a novice teacher who had been hired as an in-service teacher one year after graduating. Thus, she had barely two years of teaching experience. She stated, however, that she possessed appropriate technological expertise obtained from her college and the seminars she attended prior to the pandemic. Teacher 1 taught six classes throughout the pandemic, each with 32-36 pupils.

She frequently encountered challenges with internet speed or connections while teaching speaking skills. These challenges frequently occurred because of the students’ geo-locations, which were not supported by a strong internet signal, as most of them lived in areas with limited internet availability. As a result, she used another application with low bandwidth as a substitute as she reported:

- (8) “I uploaded the speaking materials via Google Classroom as I used this LMS platform in my classes. Nevertheless, if the students could not open Google Classroom, I also uploaded the materials via WhatsApp”.

However, she appeared to use WhatsApp more than Google Classroom during the teaching speaking process. She recorded her voice or, on occasion, videotaped herself explaining the materials to the pupils and sent them via WhatsApp. As with other teachers’ experiences, she would then be available for a couple of hours following the upload of the materials in case students contacted her via WhatsApp.

For the assessments, she typed the instructions asking the students to record their voices or sometimes create videos talking about the COVID-19 pandemic or the students’ activities during the pandemic. Somehow, the students did not respond immediately to the assignment as some of them submitted the assignments beyond the deadlines set by Teacher 1 and made her stressful:

- (9) “Could you imagine? Some of my students did not respond to the assignment immediately. Even one student said she did not know I posted the assignment on WhatsApp. Some of them also did not submit the assignments on time as they said that they were sick, had low internet connectivity, and have tried so many times to upload the assignments”.

4.2.3 *Teacher 2*

Teacher 2 has eleven years of teaching experience, having spent the first six years of her career teaching in urban areas before being sent as an in-service teacher to teach in a rural school. During the COVID-19 pandemic, she was teaching ten classes with between 31 and 36 pupils per class. Teacher 2 possessed appropriate knowledge of technology-assisted instruction, which she acquired from training and webinars she attended before and during the pandemic.

She was utilizing Google Classroom, Google Forms, and WhatsApp to teach reading skills. Teacher 2 frequently distributed reading materials in a variety of formats. For example, she sent texts to the students to read, and if the students were

unable to access the internet, she would copy and paste the texts into a pdf document and send them to the students. Teacher 2 would capture screenshots of the texts if the kids did not have a pdf reader application. She occasionally encouraged students to see a video with an English subtitle in lieu of reading a text. However, when Teacher 2 uploaded the materials, she would wait for hours to receive responses from her students:

- (10) "I would stay for hours to wait for my students' responses after uploading the materials. I sometimes sent messages to my students to remind them that I had already uploaded the materials. I also reminded the students in the WhatsApp group to discuss the materials via Google Classroom if they forgot of doing so".

When giving the assessment, Teacher 2 would give multiple-choice tests more than asking the students to write their responses after reading the texts because of the teaching loads she had during the pandemic as she confessed:

- (11) "I often gave multiple-choice tests after the students read the texts. I used this assessment technique because it was easy to score, and I was teaching ten classes. However, sometimes, I also asked the students to write their responses in Google Form after reading the texts".

4.2.4 Teacher 3

Teacher 3 used to be an elementary school teacher for eight years before being assigned as an in-service teacher to teach vocational high school and spent a year at this school. She had sufficient knowledge of teaching with technology, as she claimed. Moreover, she was ready to do online teaching during this pandemic.

Teacher 3 implemented an LMS platform suggested by the Indonesian ministry of education, Google Form, and WhatsApp in teaching writing skills. Regarding writing materials, she often gave the students online text materials via LMS or WhatsApp:

- (12) "I often gave online materials from my teaching reading as examples for the students for their writings. However, I rarely used offline texts from the student's textbooks because, in this school, one textbook is used by two students, and during this pandemic, they are not allowed to meet their classmates".

Sometimes, she would also record audio or videos explaining the writing materials if they did not understand the written instructions. Then, she would standby for hours in WhatsApp in case the students had questions for her:

- (13) "I would standby for hours in my schedule of teaching. Then, when the students did not understand the instructions, I would record my voice or even videos of me explaining the materials in mixed languages of Indonesian and English, so the students understood what they had to do".

She was concerned about the assignments that were not too heavy for the students and her as she had six classes to teach. Accordingly, she often asked the students to submit one or two paragraphs or short essays:

- (14) "I asked my students to write one or two paragraphs only. Sometimes, I asked them to write a short essay. I did this because I had many teaching loads during this pandemic. Also, I do not want to burden my students with difficult assignments and learning loads during this pandemic".

4.3 The Challenges while Conducting Online Learning During the COVID-19 Pandemic

The summarized results from the third theme, the challenges while conducting online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic, are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The summary of the data analysis from the third theme.

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories	Sample excerpts
The challenges while conducting online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic	Lack of technology tools		“Do you know? Some of my students do not have smartphones or laptops.”
	Caused by technology tools	Connectivity	“My students’ problem is the internet connection....”
		Bandwidth	“Sometimes, I need to wait for hours to upload materials with big sizes.”
	Caused by students	Students’ attitude	“Some of my students were very lazy during this pandemic. Some of them said they were sick.”
		learning engagement	“Could you imagine? Some of my students did not respond to the assignment immediately.”

Conducting a new form of learning will inevitably create new issues. For example, when conducting online learning during the pandemic, all teachers confessed that they had the same challenges. In general, those challenges are lack of technology tools, internet connectivity, bandwidth, students’ attitudes, and learning engagements. These are best described through the experiences of Teacher 4 and Teacher 5.

4.3.1 Teacher 4

Teacher 4 has been teaching English for nine years. He started his career teaching at a suburban school for six years, and then he moved to teach at a school in a rural area. Teacher 4 was teaching five classes, with 29-32 students enrolled in each class. Teacher 4 had sufficient knowledge of technology, which involves using low and high-tech for teaching English.

When conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, he majorly faced some issues on internet connectivity as other teachers in rural areas did. As he described, most of the students lived in areas surrounded by hills, and this geo-location resulted in low internet connectivity. He said:

- (15) “Most of my students live in areas surrounded by hills and have no internet connectivity. Therefore, they have to go to different areas with good internet signal only to join the online learning during this pandemic”.

Some of the students also did not have technology devices, such as smartphones and internet quota, to join the online learning. Even there was a family who had only one smartphone used by two siblings. In this situation, as similar as to what other teachers in rural areas did, Teacher 4 made worksheets for those who did not have any technology devices:

- (16) "Do you know? Some of my students do not have smartphones or laptops. So, I had to create worksheets for them and asked them to pick the worksheets up and submit them at school. This is the only way for the students during this pandemic time to keep joining in distance learning".

Another challenge for Teacher 4 was the students' netiquette. During the COVID-19 pandemic, some of the students had many excuses for not joining the online learning as he reported:

- (17) "Some of my students were very lazy during the COVID-19 pandemic. Some of them said they were sick. Interestingly, one of them said he had to help his parents to farm."

Moreover, Teacher 4 did not know what to do with this situation as the government ordered all teachers not to force the students during this COVID-19 pandemic in conducting online learning.

4.3.2 Teacher 5

Teacher 5 has been teaching English for nine years at a school in a rural area. He was teaching twelve classes in which 35-37 students enrolled one class. Teacher 5 had a great interest in technology, and he has been learning technology for years, including technology for teaching.

Teacher 5 often made audiovisual materials and sent them to the students. However, Teacher 5 often had internet connectivity issues when he uploaded those materials to his students' WhatsApp group as he stated:

- (18) "I use the internet connection from my smartphone for teaching purposes. Unlike modem, my internet connection is rather bad, and it took a long time when I uploaded materials with big sizes to WhatsApp group".

Like other teachers, he also faced challenges with the students' netiquette and motivation in learning during this pandemic. His students had many reasons for not joining the classes:

- (19) "...I had a student who said that he did not have an internet quota to join the online learning. At the same time, I saw he posted his photos on Facebook, hanging around with his friends. My students were not this bad before the pandemic".

5. DISCUSSION

In response to the first research question, which concerned participants' preparation to conduct online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic, the data indicated that all EFL teachers possessed adequate knowledge of technology-based instruction. Also, it seems that the participants had turned their Pedagogical Content Knowledge from their studies as pre-service teachers into TPACK through joining seminars/webinars or through autodidactic learning. TPACK itself is pivotal for teachers to create useful instructions with technology (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). Moreover, these findings also confirmed [Drajati et al.'s \(2018\)](#) findings that Indonesian teachers who taught English had good TPACK knowledge. On the other hand, these findings also confronted [Febriana et al.'s \(2018\)](#) claim that teachers in rural

areas often lack quality. Additionally, the data indicate that these participants were prepared to teach online during the COVID-19 pandemic since they had well-prepared materials and technology tools.

Interestingly, the participants seem to have some considerations when selecting technology devices to be used in their classrooms. Perhaps, their TPACK guided these considerations. For instance, when teachers selected technology tools to teach, they examined whether their students possessed the tools and would have problems using them. Thus, even though these EFL teachers were teaching in rural areas, they could conduct online instruction throughout the COVID-19 pandemic.

Findings addressing the second research question on online teaching implementation during the COVID-19 pandemic indicate that participants could convert face-to-face meetings to online learning. Throughout online training, all participants used a combination of synchronous and asynchronous learning techniques. It appears that the participants' use of technology enabled them to deliver adequate online learning for their pupils. As research indicates, technology has a beneficial effect on teachers' teaching (Wong & Hsu, 2009), especially enhancing the success of English language teaching practices (Li et al., 2019). Interestingly, the new forms of teaching made the participants spend more hours teaching as their students had slow responses. Thus, teaching many online classes during the pandemic would be challenging and exhausting for these EFL teachers.

An interesting finding shows that participants implemented WhatsApp to meet their teaching management purposes. While some participants used LMS to handle teaching materials, instructions, and evaluations of students, it seems that LMS did not always serve well. Participants mostly replaced the LMS platforms due to the students' limited internet quota during online learning with WhatsApp, which typically requires low internet bandwidth to perform. As Hockly (2014) claimed, one of the factors affecting technology integration is access to resources. Participants in this study seemed to think a lot about the students' access to resources and led some participants to replace their LMS with WhatsApp. In addition, some of the participants seem to implement WhatsApp to have both synchronous and asynchronous online learning modes, making their online teaching easier in terms of implementing technology to both teaching and managing learning.

Findings addressing the third research question indicate that most of the difficulties participants faced in conducting online teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic were internet access, student-owned technology devices, and students' affective domain following online learning such as motivation and netiquette. It is a fact that learning facilities in Indonesia are poor, particularly in rural areas. Therefore, Internet access and shortage of technology tools are becoming essential issues to help education in rural Indonesia. These results support Febriana et al. (2018), who reported that Indonesian rural areas lacked adequate facilities to support learning. If the lack of such facilities persists, Indonesian education will face significant challenges as the government begins studying from home.

Moreover, it seems that Indonesian students are not used to online learning because they had issues with their affective domains like netiquette and learning motivation. Motivation is central to language learning performance and failure (Dörnyei, 2001). If students lack motivation when joining online learning, it can be predicted that they will also have problems with attitudes when joining online learning. Even though the teachers set the learning contract, the absence of the classroom

situation and the live teaching environment could affect the students' feeling that they were not doing their daily class learning. Interestingly, the Indonesian Ministry of Education instructed all teachers to disregard the students' attitudes and performances during the COVID-19 pandemic. The ministry argued that forcing students to study and punish them could increase their stress levels and reduce their immune system.

Three implications can be drawn from the above discussion, most notably for EFL teachers who will do online learning due to school closures due to the COVID-19 epidemic. The first implication is that due to the COVID-19 epidemic, all EFL teachers must use TPACK when teaching online, as TPACK is the knowledge required for digital teachers to develop successful teaching using technology (Koehler & Mishra, 2009). The second point is that educational institutions should conduct several webinars, including the Ministry of Education, to provide teachers with technological knowledge to turn their Pedagogical Content Knowledge into TPACK as Hockly (2014) argued that practical technology training would shape the positive incorporation of technology into teaching. The third point is that teachers and students should have ample facilities and access to these internet and technology devices during the COVID-19 pandemic for effective online learning. Several studies have reported (e.g. Buabeng-Andoh, 2012; Hockly, 2014; Kusuma, 2021; Lawrence & Tar, 2018) that the two fundamental factors influencing the progress of technology adoption in education are technology resources and accessibility.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the data presented above, it can be concluded that rural EFL teachers were prepared to do online teaching during the COVID-19 epidemic because they had an adequate understanding of educational technology. Teachers might transform their normal face-to-face meetings into online activities, requiring them to spend more time than they did previously. Additionally, while teaching English, EFL teachers frequently experienced challenges such as internet access, student-owned technology tools, student motivation, and student netiquette.

However, there are two major drawbacks to this research. The first limitation is that it did not include EFL teachers from other rural areas all over Indonesia, which would have provided additional data to provide a more accurate picture of how online learning is handled in rural locations. The second limitation is the students' absence to discuss specific issues related to their motivation and netiquette during the COVID-19 pandemic. Hopefully, this study will inspire other researchers to do similar studies with larger sample sizes and various data methods to solve some of the limitations highlighted in this paper.

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Revisiting Integrative Motivation: Validation of International Posture among Malaysian Undergraduates

Fatin Nabila Abd Razak^{1,2}

Vahid Nimehchisalem^{*1}

Helen Tan¹

Geok Imm Lee¹

Ain Nadzimah Abdullah³

¹Department of English Language, Faculty of Modern Language and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang 43400, MALAYSIA

²Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi Mara Cawangan Negeri Sembilan, Kuala Pilah 72000, MALAYSIA

³School of Education, Faculty of Social Science and Leisure Management, Taylor's University, Subang Jaya 47500, MALAYSIA

Abstract

Gardner's (1985) in his socio-educational model introduced the variable of 'integrativeness' as a construct that focuses on English as a Second Language (ESL) learners' attitudes towards the native English community. Later, Yashima (2002) proposed 'international posture' as an affective construct that re-examined 'integrativeness'. Research conducted to reach a common operationalisation of 'international posture' is very limited. Hence, our objective in this study is to determine the level of each measurement construct under the affective variable of International Posture as well as to validate the measurement constructs of this variable among Malaysian undergraduates. In this quantitative study, 540 undergraduate students from a public university were selected. These students responded to a questionnaire that contained the four measurement constructs. For analysing the data, we used Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). Our results have proven that the International Posture among Malaysian undergraduates is high, and the measurement constructs of this variable are valid and can be

* Corresponding author, email: vahid@upm.edu.my

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operationalised in the Malaysian English language learning context. The scale validated in the study can contribute to future studies on this variable in the Malaysian English language learning context.

Keywords: English as a second language, International Posture, partial least square-structural equation modelling, second language, socio-educational model.

1. INTRODUCTION

International Posture is an affective variable studied by Yashima (2002) in the effort to contextualise MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) model into the context of Japanese English language learners concerning their motivation in foreign language (FL) learning. Among the Japanese foreign language learners, the English language represents the world beyond its native community, which is due to education and the exposure of media (Yashima, 2002). This view is highly related to the new status of the English language that has become the world's language as the non-native speakers of the language have outnumbered the native speakers (Bolton, 2002). Such a shift in viewing the English language necessitates revisiting the factors that internally motivate learners in different contexts to acquire the English language.

The readiness to participate in a target language conversation at a given time with a particular person(s) is called 'Willingness to Communicate' (WTC) (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In conceptualising WTC, MacIntyre et al. (1998) have incorporated the socio-educational model by Gardner (1985). As presented in Figure 1, Gardner's socio-educational model was presented in four components, that is (1) social milieu, (2) individual differences, (3) language acquisition contexts, and (4) outcomes.

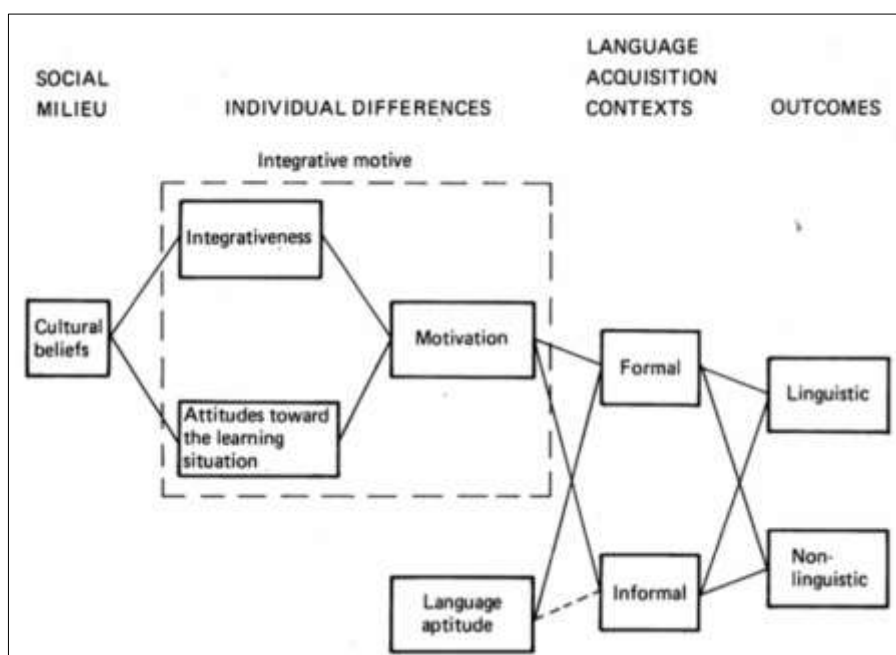


Figure 1. Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model.

In the component of individual differences, Gardner (1985) presented ‘integrativeness’ and ‘attitude towards the learning situation’ as the variables contributing to language learners’ motivation. ‘Integrativeness’ specifically conceptualises language learners’ desire to acquire another language to communicate with others in the native language community (Azar & Tanggaraju, 2020). However, for language learners today, the English language represents not only the native English community but also the English language users all over the world, including Asians and Africans (Lai, 2013; Rahman & Sahayu, 2020; Sa’adah et al., 2018; Sung, 2013). Hence, this leads to the re-conception of the fundamental theories related to motivational literature in the area of Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

Yashima’s (2002) affective variable, International Posture, has received the limelight in recent SLA studies. Originally, Yashima (2002) introduced International Posture to replace Gardner’s (1985) notion of ‘integrativeness’ or the motivational desire of a language learner to communicate with individuals from another language community. This variable represents the broader context of English language users beyond the native community. It is divided into four dimensions, namely intercultural friendship orientation in learning English, interest in international vocation/activities, interest in foreign affairs, and intergroup approach avoidance tendency. According to Botes et al. (2020), International Posture is a valid variable for explaining motivation among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners, and it can also be a significant variable for explaining indirect relationships between EFL learners’ motivation and language proficiency. Botes et al. (2020) also claimed that International Posture is under-researched and further studies are required for confirming the underlying design of this variable.

In relation to that, the current study acknowledges the status of English as the world language that it is not only owned and used by its native speakers. Hence, the language learners’ motivation in learning the English language today is not restricted only to integration with its native speakers but to the international community as proposed by Yashima (2002). With this in mind, it is deemed necessary to revisit the construct of integrative motivation by Gardner (1985) by broadening the context of the community of English language speakers with the construct of International Posture by Yashima (2002).

Due to that, the current study aims to test the relevance of International Posture, as an affective variable among Malaysian undergraduates. Specifically, the current study was designed:

- (1) to identify the level of each measurement construct under the affective variable of International Posture among Malaysian undergraduates, and
- (2) to validate the measurement constructs of the affective variable of International Posture among Malaysian undergraduates.

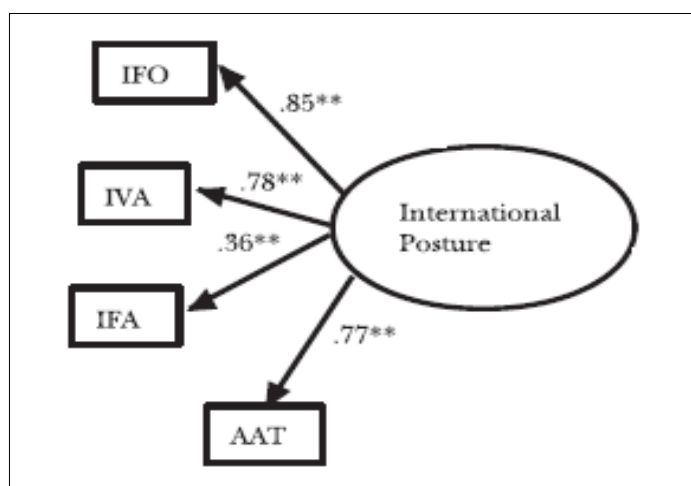
The results of the study contribute towards a better understanding of motivation in SLA settings and will elucidate how the underlying design of International Posture could be operationalised in the Malaysian English language learning context. On top of that, the current study also has significant theoretical contributions, as it introduces International Posture to the model of language learners’ motivation in the current ESL context of Malaysia. It represents the shifted view on the English language that has brought changes to the factors that internally motivate language learners to learn the English language. In the context of the present study, English language speakers are not only from the native speakers’ community, but the language is also used by non-

native speakers to integrate with other native or non-native speakers from around the world.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The term International Posture is coined by Yashima (2002) to explain the insufficiency of positive feelings that can lead towards integrative motivation among Japanese English language learners due to minimal to no direct contact with the English language L2 community (Lockley, 2015; Yashima, 2002). Discussion on International Posture is made in response to the framework of L2 WTC by MacIntyre et al. (1998) to contextualise L2 WTC into the Japanese English language young learners. International Posture has been defined as having a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures, an interest in foreign affairs, an interest in traveling to other countries to study or work, and readiness to communicate with intercultural partners. Based on this definition, it can be understood that both instrumental (functional reasons of achieving language mastery such as passing exam and career development, other than the integration goal) and integrative orientations are addressed in the notion of International Posture or also known as attitudes towards the international community. Yashima (2002) supports the claim made by Dörnyei (1990) that language learners' attitudes towards the English language community are largely created through education and media exposure. Thus, this favourable attitude towards the international English communities varies among individuals in which one learner might have a more positive attitude in comparison with others. Therefore, it is believed that proper measurement of this variable would allow a better understanding of an individual internal motivation in integrating with international speakers of English.

Yashima (2002) operationalised International Posture by breaking it into the following domains: interest in foreign affairs, interest in international vocation/activities, intercultural friendship orientation in learning english, and intergroup approach avoidance tendency, as presented in Figure 2.



Note ** $p < .01$ (IFO) Intercultural Friendship Orientation in Learning English; (IVA) Interest in International Vocation/Activities; (IFA) Interest in Foreign Affairs; (AAT) Intergroup Approach Avoidance Tendency.

Figure 2. The measurement construct of International Posture in Yashima (2002).

According to Yashima (2002), all the measurement constructs of International Posture in the study were significant at $p < .01$ (Figure 1) with the weight (the β values of indicators yield on the variable) of the dimensions towards the construct varying from moderate to strong (IFA, .36; AAT, .77; IVA, .78; IFO, .85). However, according to Botes et al. (2020), the operationalisation of the variable International Posture has experienced a few changes through Yashima's studies in 2002, 2004 and 2009. These changes are essentially made to address different types of language learners and their views for optimum language learning.

Yashima et al. (2004) replicated Yashima's (2002) study by focusing on younger language learners. This study was conducted to include the element of L2 behaviour or frequency of communication into the previous model. Thus, they selected their sample among high schoolers who had a native English speaker as their EFL and homeroom teacher. Their other group of samples were high school students who were involved in a study-abroad programme in the United States of America. In this study, the variable of International Posture was measured through (1) interest in international vocation/activities, (2) approach-avoidance tendency, and (3) interest in foreign affairs. The measurement constructs for the variable International Posture used in the study by Yashima et al. (2004) are presented in Figure 3.

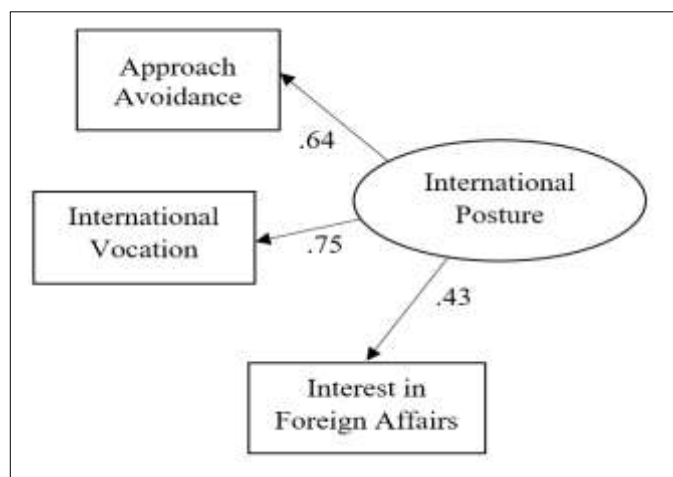


Figure 3. Measurement construct of International Posture (Yashima et al., 2004)

As shown in Figure 3, the weights of the dimensions towards the construct of International Posture are stated as .43 for Interest in Foreign Affairs, .64 for Approach Avoidance, and .75 for International Vocation. However, International Friendship Orientation was omitted from the measurement construct as the focus in the study shifted to the participants that had bigger opportunities in L2 communication. Hence, communication in the English language did not only focus on international friendship.

In 2009, in an effort to bring forward the concept of Ideal L2 Self, Yashima conducted another study. The concept, Ideal L2 Self, functions as an encouragement for the language learners' L2 related actions and conducts. Hence, a more meaningful language learning situation can be created. Therefore, the scale of International Posture was revised again in this study and a new sub-scale was added. Yashima (2009) named the new sub-scale as "Having things to communicate to the world" and proposed four items to measure this sub-scale. An example of one of the items is "I have issues to

address with people in the world.” [Item 2]. The measurement construct of the variable, International Posture, in Yashima (2009) is presented in Figure 4 below.

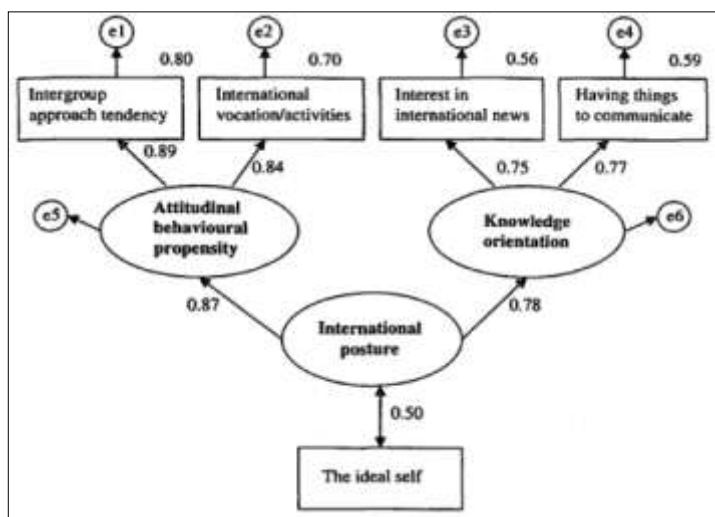


Figure 4. The measurement construct of International Posture in Yashima (2009).

Based on Figure 4, it can be clearly seen that the four sub-scales of International Posture are divided into two categories, that is Attitudinal Behavioural Propensity and Knowledge Orientation, with the correlation coefficient of .87 and .78 respectively. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results of the two subscales formatted under the Attitudinal Behavioural Propensity are at .89 for Intergroup approach tendency and .84 for the International Vocation/Activities. The CFA results of the two subscales formatted under Knowledge orientation are at .75 for Interest in International News and .77 for Having things to Communicate.

These three studies by Yashima and colleagues in 2002, 2004, and 2009 have operationalised International Posture in determining its relationship in enhancing language learners’ WTC in English, specifically in Japan. Other than that, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was utilised as the method of data analysis in all these three studies by Yashima. In support of this construct and its vast potential in explaining language learners’ WTC, the researchers believed that it is significant to test the validity of this variable in the Malaysian English language learning context as presented in sub-sections 4.2 and 4.3.

3. METHOD

The current study is a quantitative study utilising Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as the statistical analysis method. The participants of the study were 540 Malaysian undergraduates from a public university. The researcher used proportional quota sampling to identify the participants in the study. A questionnaire with 5-scale answers ranging from totally agree to totally disagree was employed in the current study to measure the four sub-scales of International Posture. The four dimensions are (1) intercultural Friendship Orientation (IFO), (2) Interest in International Vocation/Activities (IIV), (3) Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency (IAT), and (4) Interest in Foreign Affairs (IFA), adapted from Yashima (2002). These dimensions

are referred to as IFO, IIV, IAT and IFA respectively in the current study. Each item is labelled as IN_POSTURE_1 until IN_POSTURE_21. The sub-scale of 'Having Things to Communicate to the World' from Yashima (2009) is not included in the study as the English language is used more frequently in Malaysia, where English has the status of L2, as compared to Japan.

Data were collected through the distribution of questionnaires to 600 undergraduates studying in a public university. The data analysis process started with transferring the raw data into SPSS (version 25). Then, the data were examined. This examination stage is crucial, especially when the study involves the use of SEM, as the data are assumed to be error-free after the descriptive statistical analysis. Subsequently, the researchers screened the data for suspicious response patterns and missing values through a complete case analysis. The outliers were discarded before examining the normality of data distribution. A final 540 samples were selected before the data were computed into scores. Finally, the data were transferred into SMART-PLS, a statistical software program enabling the Partial Least Square-Structure Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) analysis. We chose PLS-SEM as compared to Covariance Based-Structural Equation Modelling (CB-SEM) as the model tested in the study because it has a combination of reflective (indicators are reflected by a latent variable) and formative measurement models (latent variable measured by the indicators). When the model is a combination of reflective and formative measurement models, PLS-SEM is likely to be the ideal choice (Memon et al., 2017).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results are presented in three sub-sections. The first section examines the level of each construct under the affective variable of International Posture. The second sub-section presents the validity and reliability of the indicators (items) through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of reflective measurement model assessments, namely (1) internal consistency, (2) convergent validity and (3) discriminant validity. The third sub-section explores the CFA of the formative measurement model which includes three assessment steps, namely (1) assessing convergent validity, (2) addressing collinearity issues, and (3) assessing the relevance and significance of the formative indicators.

4.1 Level of each Construct under the Affective Variable of International Posture

International Posture was assessed under four constructs, that is (1) IFO, (2) IAT, (3) IIV (4) IFA as presented in Figure 5. This figure indicates that IFO has the highest mean (4.3), whereas the mean of IAT is 3.9. Meanwhile, the mean for both IIV and IFA is 3.8. Conclusively, all International Posture dimensions have high mean values, exceeding 3.5. This result proves that Malaysian undergraduates have a high interest in engaging with the world outside Malaysia, especially in the aspect of IFO that mainly explored the undergraduates' interest in making friends with foreigners and exploring their cultures. Therefore, it is clear that Malaysian undergraduates' interest to learn the English language is not concentrated on integrating with the native

speakers of English as suggested by Gardner (1985). Instead, their target of 'integration' is the international community.

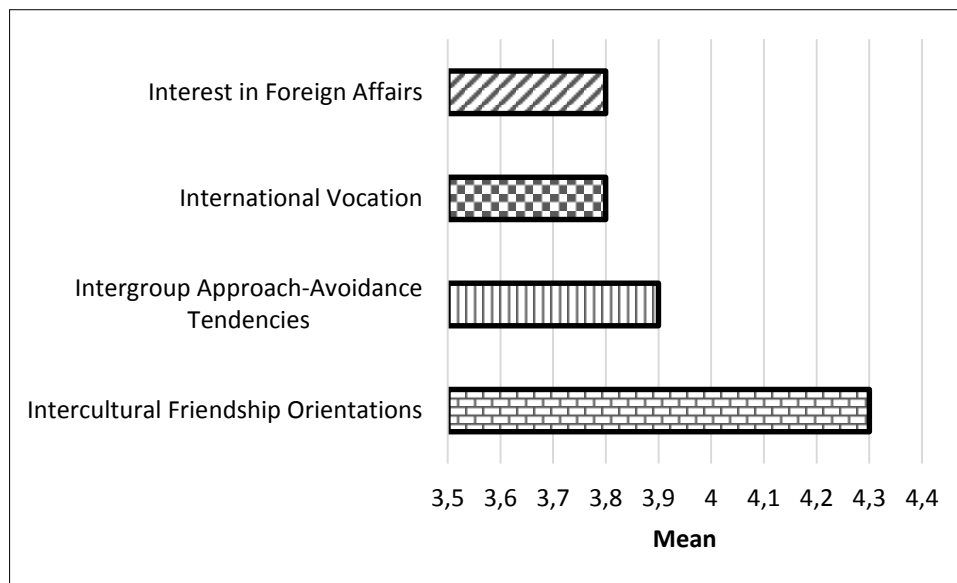


Figure 5. Level of each construct under International Posture

The next step is to confirm the validity and reliability of these constructs towards the affective variable, International Posture.

4.2 Validation of Reflective Measurement Model

International Posture is a Higher Component Model (HCM). The assessment of the reflective measurement model for this HCM in this sub-section is crucial to ensure that each indicator (item) in the questionnaire measures the lower order constructs that it represents. Each construct was measured through 4 to 5 indicators in the questionnaire. Details of these indicators can be referred to in the Appendix. These indicators are reflective in nature and thus represented in the reflective measurement model discussed below.

The reflective measurement model involves the assessment of the validity and reliability of the indicators (items) (see Table 1). Three types of validity assessments were conducted under the reflective measurement model, i.e. (1) internal consistency, (2) convergent validity, and (3) discriminant validity. Internal consistency test is conducted through the value of composite reliability (CR). Convergent validity is the degree to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common (Hair et al., 2010, p. 771). In accordance with Hair et al. (2017), factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) were used to assess the convergent validity of the indicators in the current study.

As shown in Table 1, loadings which exceeded the recommended value of 0.708 (Hair et al., 2017) are retained. Similarly, some items with low loadings are deleted*. Even though the loading score of item IN_POSTURE_9 is only 0.650, it is retained as the sum of loadings resulted in high loading scores leading to AVE scores greater than 0.5 as recommended by Byrne (2016). Consequently, all the four dimensions satisfied the threshold values for composite reliability (CR) and AVE, whereby all the CRs are

greater than 0.7, and all the AVEs are more than 0.5 after the item deletion process (Hair et al., 2017). Hence, the reliability and validity of the measurement model in the current study are confirmed.

Table 1. Reflective measurement model

Construct	Dimension	Item	Loadings	AVE	CR
International Posture (Attitudes towards the International Community)	Intercultural Friendship Orientation	IN_POSTURE_2	0.891	0.811	0.945
		IN_POSTURE_3	0.917		
		IN_POSTURE_4	0.906		
		IN_POSTURE_5	0.888		
	Intergroup Approach- Avoidance Tendency	IN_POSTURE_8	0.764	0.552	0.830
		IN_POSTURE_9	0.650		
		IN_POSTURE_10	0.807		
		IN_POSTURE_12	0.741		
	Interest in International Vocation/ Activities	IN_POSTURE_14	0.812	0.716	0.883
		IN_POSTURE_15	0.880		
		IN_POSTURE_16	0.846		
	Interest in Foreign Affairs	IN_POSTURE_19	0.825	0.700	0.903
IN_POSTURE_20		0.833			
IN_POSTURE_21		0.884			
IN_POSTURE_22		0.801			

Note * IN_POSTURE_1, IN_POSTURE_6, IN_POSTURE_7, IN_POSTURE_11, IN_POSTURE_13, IN_POSTURE_17, and IN_POSTURE_18 were deleted due to low loadings.

Next, the establishment of discriminant validity using the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT) technique is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. HTMT criterion

	Intercultural Friendship	Approach- Avoidance	International Vocation	Interest in Foreign Affairs
Intercultural Friendship				
Approach-Avoidance	0.597			
International Vocation	0.426	0.788		
Interest in Foreign Affairs	0.473	0.739	0.623	

Discriminant validity is established when the values are lower than the threshold value of HTMT.85 suggested by Kline (2011). Furthermore, according to Henseler et al. (2015), to confirm discriminant validity, we must ensure that the HTMT inference results do not demonstrate confidence interval values of 1 for any of the constructs. All the measurement constructs in the current study have the discriminant validity below the threshold value of HTMT .85 (see Table 2). Hence, the discriminant validity of these four measurement constructs has been established.

4.3 Validation of Formative Measurement Model

As stated earlier, International Posture is an HCM that includes both reflective and formative measurement models. As the validity and reliability of the lower order constructs have been achieved in the previous sub-sections, the validity and reliability of the higher order constructs are presented in this sub-section. The higher order

constructs are formative in nature and thus represented in the formative measurement model discussed below.

In the formative measurement model, three assessment steps were taken, namely (1) assessing convergent validity, (2) addressing collinearity issues, and (3) assessing the significance and relevance of the formative indicators. These assessments were conducted to validate the formative measurement model for the higher order model of the affective variable, International Posture. Details of the measurement properties of the formative construct of International Posture are as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Measurement properties of the formative construct of International Posture

Construct	Item	Convergent Validity	Weight	VIF	t-value	p
International Posture (Attitudes towards the International Community)	Intercultural Friendship Orientation	0.836	0.341	1.378	4.501	.000
	Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency		0.430	2.060	4.887	.000
	Interest in International Vocation/Activities		0.207	1.698	2.598	.009
	Interest in Foreign Affairs		0.273	1.678	3.430	.001

Based on Table 3, the path coefficient of the formative construct of International Posture is 0.836. According to [Klassen and Whybark \(1999\)](#), the value that is more than 0.7 suggests that the construct has a sufficient degree of convergent validity. Regarding multi-collinearity, all the indicators of the formative construct satisfied the variance inflation factor (VIF) values and are consistently below the threshold value of 5 as stated by [Hair et al., 2017](#)) and 3.3 as stated by [Diamantopoulos & Siguaaw, 2006](#)). As such, it can be concluded that collinearity is not an issue for the estimation of the PLS path model in the current study.

Besides, IAT, IFO, IFA, and IIV were proven to be significant indicators of the International Posture construct with t-values of 4.501, 4.887, 2.598, and 3.430, respectively. As such, we can conclude that the reflective-formative measurement model for International Posture in the current study is valid and reliable.

Overall, the result of CFA in this study confirmed the validity of the four measurement constructs (IFO, IAT, IIV, IFA). These four measurement constructs were included in the study of [Yashima \(2002\)](#), and three of these measurement constructs (exclude IFO) in the study of [Yashima et al. \(2004\)](#). [Yashima et al. \(2004\)](#) omitted the construct IFO as Yashima's participants were language learners that were in contact with the native speakers of English. However, the construct of IFO was included in the current study as our participants were Malaysian undergraduates studying in a public university in Malaysia. Other than that, the constructs of IFO and IAT were also included by [Yashima \(2009\)](#) in the second order model of Attitudinal and Behavioural Propensity. However, the constructs of IIV and IFA were omitted as the study by [Yashima \(2009\)](#) aimed at including the second order model of Knowledge Orientation. Hence, the current study has confirmed the measurement constructs of

International Posture utilised in Yashima (2002, 2009) and Yashima et al.'s (2004) second order model of Attitudinal and Behavioural Propensity.

4.4 Research Model

Based on the assessments that have been presented in the above sections, it is clear that the construct of International Posture is valid and reliable for Malaysian English language learners. After all the analyses for testing the validity of International Posture were completed, the final model of the scale developed to measure this variable is presented in Figure 5.

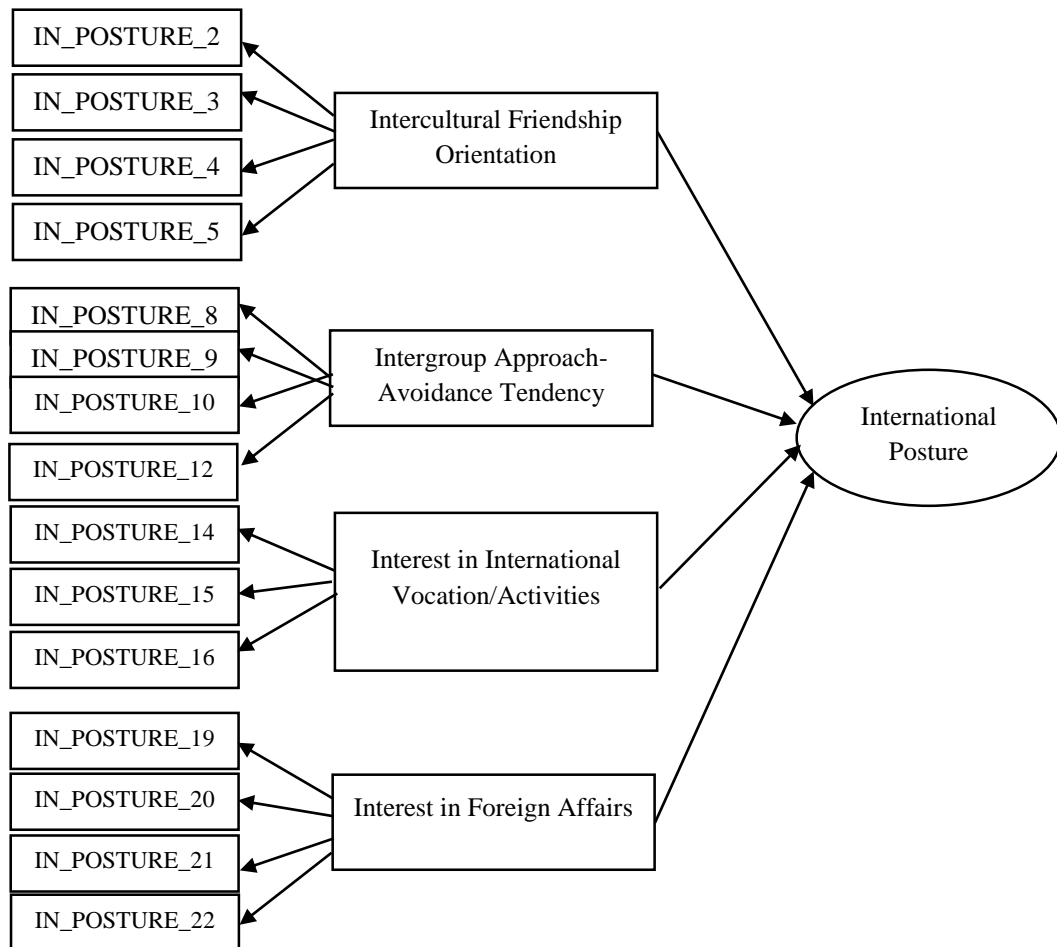


Figure 5. Structural model for International Posture

Based on the results presented above, to answer research question 1, the researcher has identified the level of each measurement construct under the effective variable of International Posture. Based on the results gathered, the four measurement constructs are at the mean level of above 3.5 from the scale of 1 of completely disagree and 5 of completely agree. IFO is the highest construct with a mean of 4.3. Among the indicator item for this construct are “learning English will allow me to know various cultures and peoples” and “Learning English will allow me to make friends with foreigners”. The undergraduates’ interest to communicate with the international

community using the English language are shown through this measurement construct. In the measurement construct of IAT with the mean of 3.9, an example of indicator items stated is “I would talk to an international student if there is one in class”. This construct represents the undergraduate’s readiness to engage in a communication event using the English language voluntarily. Another two measurement constructs are IFA and IIV with the same mean score of 3.8. IFA measurement construct concerns the undergraduates’ interest in foreign affairs. An example of the indicator item for this measurement construct is “It is important for me to know the current international issues”. It is believed that the undergraduates’ interest motivates them to learn the language that eases the process of them accessing the international information. Lastly, IIV measurement construct is measured through indicator items such as “I want to work in an international organization such as United Nation”. The undergraduate’s interest in travelling abroad getting involved with international activities requires them to be able to communicate using the English language.

In research question 2, the researcher validated the capability of these four constructs in measuring the affective variable of International Posture among Malaysian undergraduates. The process of validating these four constructs involved higher order and lower order model’s CFA through a reflective measurement model and formative measurement model. In the reflective measurement model, internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity tests were conducted to ensure the reliability and the validity of the lower order measurement model. Through the analysis of internal consistency, seven indicator items (refer to Table 1) were deleted due to low loadings. The deletion of these indicator items improved the composite reliability (CR) to above the threshold value of .70 in all four measurement constructs, proving the reliability of the indicator items measuring the four measurement constructs. The convergent validity above .50 in all the measurement constructs signifies that the convergent validity has been established. It indicates that each indicator included in the scale reflects the convergence construct as compared to indicators measuring other constructs (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). The validity of the reflective measurement construct was measured through HTMT discriminant validity test. No further deletion of indicator item was made as the results satisfied the threshold value of the convergent and discriminant validity tests. In the formative measurement model, the assessments conducted were convergent validity test, collinearity test, and the significance and relevancy of the formative indicators were valued. All the tests conducted in this phase satisfied the threshold value required (refer to sub-section 4.3.1). Therefore, no deletion of formative measurement construct was made at this phase, and all the measurement constructs (IFO, IAT, IIV, IFA) were proven to be reliable and valid in measuring the affective variable of International Posture among the Malaysian undergraduates

5. CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study has revealed that the International Posture among the Malaysian undergraduates is high as shown in the measurement construct levels. On top of that, this construct has been proven as valid to be operationalised in the context of Malaysian English language learning. The scale of International Posture that has

been adapted in this study specifically for Malaysian English language learners is valid and reliable, and all set to be used to measure this affective variable in future studies.

Other than the operationalisation of International Posture in the Malaysian context, the study also has contributed towards the underlying design of the variable International Posture. The underlying design of this variable covered integrative and instrumental constructs of motivation in English language learning through the four dimensions (IFO, IAT, IIV, IFA) as well as its respective indicators. Therefore, this variable has been carefully studied through its lower order and higher order models by employing PLS-SEM as the statistical analysis tool. Hence, the theoretical background embedded in the model could be clearly observed and, when needed, an amendment can be made to suit future re-examination and confirmation of the affective variable, International Posture.

Undeniably, studies on International Posture are still limited, especially in the Malaysian English language learning context. This variable, derived from the socio-educational model of second language acquisition by Gardner (1985), has the potential to predict English language learners' WTC and encourage better L2 proficiency. With a scale that has been tested and validated specifically in this context, hopefully it will be used in more studies that focus on this area in the future. However, in the current study, this validated scale is only tested among undergraduates with ages range from 19-24 years old. Hence, the applicability of this scale might differ in case of other language learners with different age groups.

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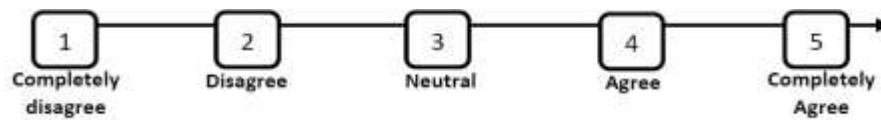
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Appendix

International Posture Questionnaire (Yashima, 2002)



Construct	Label	Indicators
		From an international community perspective, ...
Intercultural Friendship Orientation	IN_POSTURE_2	learning English will allow me to meet and converse with various people.
	IN_POSTURE_3	learning English will allow me to know various cultures and peoples.
	IN_POSTURE_4	learning English will enable me to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.
	IN_POSTURE_5	learning English will allow me to make friends with foreigners.
Intergroup Approach-Avoidance Tendency	IN_POSTURE_8	I would talk to an international student if there is one in class.
	IN_POSTURE_9	I would NOT mind sharing a room with an international student.
	IN_POSTURE_10	I want to participate in a volunteer activity to help foreigners living in the neighbouring community.
	IN_POSTURE_12	I would help a foreigner who is in trouble communicating in a restaurant or at a station.
Interest in International Vocation/Activities	IN_POSTURE_14	I want to live in a foreign country.
	IN_POSTURE_15	I want to work in an international organization such as United Nation.
	IN_POSTURE_16	I am interested in volunteer activity in developing countries such as participating in Youth International Development Assistance.
Interest in Foreign Affairs	IN_POSTURE_19	I often read and watch news about foreign countries.
	IN_POSTURE_20	I often talk about situations and events on foreign countries with my family and/ or friends.
	IN_POSTURE_21	it is important for me to know the international current issues.
	IN_POSTURE_22	it is important for me to know the world's problems, such as terrorism, nuclear proliferation, debt, climate change, bird flu, and AIDS.



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Culture Teaching in EFL Classes: Teachers' Beliefs, Attitudes, and Classroom Practices

Lucky Amatur Rohmani*
Erna Andriyanti

Master of English Language Education, Faculty of Language and Arts, Universitas
Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta 55281, INDONESIA

Abstract

It is inevitably believed that culture teaching is the pivotal feeling of integrating culture into the teaching of a language, including in the EFL setting. This study aims to explore the English teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and the reflection of their beliefs and attitudes on the teaching syllabi. The sequential explanatory mix-methods design was applied in junior high schools in Ngawi. The data were obtained from 144 English teachers' answers to a questionnaire and interviews with six teachers. Then, the data were analysed by using descriptive statistics, the independent sample T-test, and the Mann-Whitney test. The results indicated that the majority of junior high school English teachers believed in the importance of incorporating culture into their teaching of the language taught and students' learning process. Moreover, both state and private junior high school English teachers showed similar beliefs and attitudes related to culture teaching. When they taught English, the culture associated with that language had also been taught so that the misconception of learning the language can be minimized. The result of teachers' practices strongly indicates that the English teachers in Ngawi had implemented the teaching of culture and inserted various cultural elements in the process of their teaching and learning in the EFL classes.

Keywords: Attitude, belief, culture teaching, English teacher.

* Corresponding author, email: luckyamatur@mail.com

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1. INTRODUCTION

Belief in culture teaching in language classes is considered to be the main concept because there should be the relevance of culture teaching towards the language used and taught (Sellami, 2000; Thanasoulas, 2001). This also means that when a teacher believes culture is very important to be acknowledged, his/her attitude will automatically follow his belief to act accordingly. As a result, the strategies or techniques have also become important parts (Chen & Yang, 2016; Pishghadam et al., 2017). However, the implementation of the strategies or techniques pertinent to the culture into the teaching and language learning does not seem to be wholly actualized due to its fragmented implementation in the language classroom activities (Pishghadam et al., 2017).

Henceforth, there is a challenge faced by the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers, namely what strategy should be used and which culture should be taught (Choudhury, 2013). The challenge for the EFL teachers is that they have to choose what culture should be implemented in the teaching and language learning since culture itself has several definitions (Brown, 2000; Huber & Reynold, 2014; Idris, 2020; Kramsch, 2002). Choudhury (2013) argues that the challenges mostly faced by the EFL teachers are related to the chosen materials. Besides, he also emphasizes that age, gender, profession, regional origin, social classes, religion, and ethnic background can be the problems in the teaching and language learning process since these demographic factors are also culturally specific.

Furthermore, Kim and Elder (2002) stated that English plays an important role as a lingua franca, which is used by people around the world for cross-cultural communication. From this activity, these people also meet others with multicultural identities and function as a means of promoting linguistic tools in the process of teaching and learning. Therefore, for an English teacher, the teaching of English as a foreign language should not be limited to teaching English as a linguistic skill only, but it should be expanded to the teaching and learning of the culture.

In the Indonesian context, the English language is placed as a foreign language, which has been taught and used for almost sixty-five years (Marlina, 2013). Jayadi (2004) states that English is taught as a foreign language in a secondary school as a compulsory subject; however, most Indonesian students still face difficulty in learning English. They use English only in a situation that urges them to use it. Based on Le (2007), even though the EFL learners have developed their linguistic competence that relates to the English learned, they are unable to perform communication effectively since they lack sociolinguistic competence. Consequently, they usually inappropriately transfer their native language expressions into the target language. Thus, the role of an English teacher becomes vital to help his/her student to acquire and use the target language, English, effectively and properly (Wolfson, 1989).

Several researchers have reported their views about integrating culture in foreign language learning. Kitao (2000) reveals that studying culture gives students a reason to study the target language because understanding culture makes studying foreign languages and literature more meaningful. It means that learning the culture of the target language leads students to use the language appropriately as the native speakers, and develop their cultural awareness. Besides, Bennett et al. (2003) support Kitao's (2000) opinion through their statement that there is a term 'fluent fool' for people who learn the language without learning the culture. This implies that learning a language

without learning its culture is not relevant in the real situation. The language users probably use the language inappropriately due to cultural matters. Likewise, Wang (2008) also reveals that foreign language teaching is foreign culture teaching, and foreign language teachers are foreign culture teachers.

Incorporating the culture and the role of English teachers to help their students to be able to mingle and communicate using the target language properly and effectively in the process of teaching and learning in the classroom is very important. Yet, there have been only a few research studies regarding Indonesia's tertiary junior high school English teachers' beliefs, and attitudes related to culture teaching in the classroom (Zacharias, 2003), especially that focuses on a survey study concerning the role of English as a global language. Saddhono (2015), for example, is concern with the integration of culture in Indonesian language learning for foreign speakers at Indonesian universities. Sudartini (2012) focuses on inserting culture in English language teaching to promote character education, and Munandar and Ulwiyah (2012) concern with the intercultural approaches to the cultural context of Indonesia's high school ELT textbooks. These aforementioned studies have not yet been concerned with the exploration of teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and the reflection of beliefs and attitudes in their classroom practices. Therefore, this present study is essential to explore the English teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and the reflection of their beliefs and attitudes in their teaching syllabi for their EFL classrooms.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teachers' Beliefs on Culture Teaching in Classes

The concept of belief has been discussed in various research literature so that there have also been found several different uses of the term 'belief' (Shinde & Karekatti, 2012). This study, therefore, uses the term 'belief' in the education context (see, for example, Ellis, 2008) that relates to the role of belief and the successful learning of language. Added to this, Zheng (2009) and Sen (2010) state that belief is a set of a group that constitutes name, definition, and structure that these contents are driven to people's behaviours.

Ajzen (1988) argues that beliefs are part of the fundamental points in all fields in education that deal with human behaviours and learning. Meanwhile, Dogruer et al. (2010) point out that teacher's belief is regarded as a complex topic which includes several aspects of belief such as the belief itself, the language use, the learners, teachers, and the power of the teacher-learner relationship. Afterward, they bring those aspects into their teaching and learning activities. As stated by Williams and Burden (1997), teachers are mostly influenced by their own beliefs. This means that teachers' belief has a role to influence their teaching attitude, methods, performances, and teaching policies as well as to influence their teaching behaviours, and effect students' development as well (Dogruer et al., 2010).

In addition, the role of teachers' belief inevitably becomes very crucial to demonstrate the complexity of behaviours of teacher command or instructions such as when s/he makes sense of how the diverse culture should be incorporated into the process of teaching and learning activities as well as good classroom atmosphere (Civitillo et al., 2019; Yunus, 2020). Belief, according to Bandura (1997), is a concept

of an individual related to his/her behaviour and the external environment. The relationship between personal belief, behaviour, and the external environment can exist or be seen in the school activities, classroom characteristics, and many others. Yet, the influence of individuals towards the external environment varies for different activities and circumstances. Thus, the role of teacher belief regarding cultural diversity in which it is seen as an important part of the teaching and learning process becomes vital.

2.2 Teachers' Attitudes on Culture Teaching in Classes

In relation to the notion of attitude in EFL classes, the term 'attitude' as stated by [Pickens \(2005\)](#) is defined as a sort of mindset to act in a specific way pertinent to one's experience. Furthermore, [Hogg and Vaughan \(2018\)](#) and [Udu \(2021\)](#) mention that the attitude is considered to represent a tendency towards the groups, symbols, and/or events that has a positive or negative degree. The responses can be in the form of favourable or unfavourable responses. Thus, it is clear that attitude brings someone's feeling towards their surroundings since it urges them to act and/or respond positively or negatively. Hence, teachers should comprehend all kinds of aspects as well as understand deeply the concept of attitude in the EFL classes. Moreover, the attitudes will also influence their teaching methods, the choice of the sources needed, and their organizational classroom practices ([Karanezi & Rapti, 2015](#); [Puspita & Pranoto, 2021](#)). In other words, the teachers should be very careful with their attitudes since they can affect their approaches when they teach in the classroom.

In addition, the words of culture and language are interconnected with each other. [Risager \(2006\)](#) states that culture always includes language, and human language cannot be conceived without culture. The term 'culture' constitutes the systems of knowledge including values, beliefs and attitudes, notions of appropriate behaviour, statuses, and role expectations shared by a group of social cohesions ([Brown, 2000](#)). [Brown \(1987\)](#) notes that language and culture are intricately interwoven as such one cannot separate the two within losing the significance of either language or culture. Thus, it is hoped that not only students but also teachers are urged to know about the condition and situation in the country which uses English as a foreign language.

2.3 Culture Teaching in EFL Classes

In the related literature that is connected with teaching activities in the EFL classrooms, the cultural belief systems are impossible to be expelled from making syllabi in the context of foreign language teaching ([Byram, 1989](#); [Kramsch, 2002](#)). It can be interpreted that the teachers' beliefs have significant roles towards their thought process, teaching methods, and learning to teach ([Zheng, 2009](#)). [Xu \(2012\)](#) also argues that the key roles in the process of teaching and learning in EFL classes come from the significant beliefs of teachers. The teachers' beliefs influence their knowledge in planning the lessons, the types of decisions they choose, and their classroom activities as well ([Ehsan et al., 2021](#); [Gilakjani, 2017](#)). Moreover, the teachers' beliefs can make them decide what they will have and plan to do. According to [Nation and Macalister \(2010\)](#), what the teachers do can be identified through their beliefs. Thus, it is clear

that the beliefs of the teachers regarding the activities in the EFL classes can be related to the importance of making syllabi.

Based on [Brown \(2000\)](#), many researchers, in their foreign language teaching syllabi, integrate the cultural elements through several questions such as, should culture be implemented in the EFL classes? Should it be taught or caught? Or should it be taught in its sociocultural context? It means that the ways of integrating the cultural elements vary from one teacher to another. The teacher can use or make various techniques that can be implemented in either systematic or spontaneous approaches depending on the course syllabi ([Çakir, 2015](#)). While for the term attitude (behaviour), it is considered important in understanding the teachers' thought processes, classroom practices, changes, learning to teach, and conducting their teaching syllabi ([Richardson, 1996](#)) because the attitude can influence someone's perception ([Jabeen & Shah, 2011](#)). The word attitude can also be defined as a mental response to a given situation that may also be interpreted as a cognitive and experiential condition ([Halliday, 1999](#); [Sumardi et al., 2020](#)). The behaviourists describe attitude as a social product, meaning that someone's process of thought is reflected in his behaviour and relates to his behavioural patterns ([Speilberger, 2004](#)). Attitude also manifests in the form of culture. The implementation of the behavioural patterns related to making syllabi is that it can urge the teachers to be more creative as well as always ready in any unexpected situations.

2.4 Previous Related Studies

There are a number of studies conducted related to the importance of incorporating culture teaching in the EFL context. Those studies can be in the form of literature and empirical research. This sub-section presents a brief discussion of the previous relevant studies.

[Choudhury \(2013\)](#) and [Al-Rifa'i et al. \(2021\)](#) conducted literature research related to teaching culture strategies and several challenges faced by the EFL teachers while delivering the target culture to their students in the EFL classroom. In the study by [Al-Rifa'i et al. \(2021\)](#), the focus was on the awareness of Foreign Language (FL) culture that should be seen as an essential component of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning/teaching. In his opinion, culture was a theory that could be about a world view or the ways of someone's life that should be distributed among them. The culture included knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, laws, costumes, and any other habits and/or competences gained through socialising in society.

Furthermore, [Al-Rifa'i et al. \(2021\)](#) pointed out that teaching culture was considered to be the fifth control skill in language teaching and learning. Also, he emphasized that to understand the language a learner needs not only grammar knowledge but also some features and characteristic of the culture itself. Culture is a continuous overflow of behaviours, attitudes, ethnics, and so forth, of a group of people. This perception means that the English teacher should understand those things before conducting the process of teaching and learning with their students. According to him, the students must be provided with the necessary elements of linguistic, culture, communicative, and intercultural skills so that they were able to express and reflect their own culture and others as well as to present and portray the target culture and language they learned.

Choudhury (2013) also emphasized the importance of incorporating culture in teaching the EFL. Moreover, he also suggested how and which components of cultures to be taught. The process of transferring the components of culture can be in the form of choosing what culture should be taught and/or delivered, either the American or British culture. Byram (1997), as cited by Choudhury (2013), explains that culture learning is a comparative process in which the learners, the English teachers, and their students, are encouraged to be aware of their own culture and the target culture they learn.

The empirical research was done by Liton and Madanat (2013) and Aydemir & Mede (2014) about the integration of target culture in EFL classroom showed that there were significant implications and effects regarding motivation on the language learner and the attitudes of teachers towards incorporating the target culture in an EFL classroom. The implications could be in the form of the practicability of foreign language teachers while they were teaching in the classroom. They should obtain information on the target culture and gain adequate knowledge to raise students' awareness of the target culture. According to Aydemir and Mede (2014), their study could be used to design and evaluate language preparatory programs for EFL students.

Integrating culture into the language teaching programs has an effect on motivation of the language learners and the process of teaching and learning. This perspective can be seen in the research conducted by Liton and Madanat (2013). In their research, the issue related to the integration of culture into English as a Second Language (ESL) or EFL becomes the main point. They used both qualitative and quantitative approaches and obtained data through observations as well as using other primary and secondary sources. Besides, this research indicated that the culture teaching or putting the culture into the process of teaching in ESL/EFL classroom was highly recommended since it could motivate the students' learning and it also could develop the student's intercultural competence and understanding related to effective cross-cultural communication skill.

Additionally, Larzén- Östermark (2008) attempted to figure out the attitudes of teachers towards the integration of culture in EFL teaching. The point of her study was to investigate the concept of culture in EFL teaching, how the cultural objectives were achieved, and what the teachers did regarding those goals. The data were gained from interviews with 13 Finnish-Swedish teachers of English in grades 7-9. Her study revealed that even though most teachers felt that culture was important, they thought that they still lacked the appropriate and sufficient knowledge as well as skills to teach about culture from an intercultural perspective because they had not spent as much time in English-speaking countries.

Hence, the vital aim of language teaching and learning, particularly English, was that it should establish a meaningful conversation among the people for a number of diverse reasons. The positive tendency built through the communication was to ensure effective communication globally, and it needed to increase the capability of intercultural competence and perceptions. Henceforth, integrating culture into ESL/EFL classrooms should be implemented by the EFL teachers (Aydemir & Mede, 2014; Larzén- Östermark, 2008). Moreover, culture teaching in language learning had a strong relationship pertaining to communicative competence (Byram, 1997; Tseng, 2002).

3. METHODS

This study used a sequential explanatory mix-methods design in which the collection and analysis of quantitative data were in the first stage, then followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in the second stage (Creswell, 2009). This study involved 62 private and 62 state junior high schools in Ngawi districts, East Java. Initially, the questionnaire was sent to 227 teachers, hence, only 144 of them returned the questionnaire to the researchers. The researchers obtained back the data of the questionnaire with a total of 144 teachers. They were participants from the first to the third grades whose teaching periods and experiences were considered. The description of the research participants is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Description of the sample.

No	Categories	Number of schools	Number of teachers
1.	Private	62	62
2.	State	62	82

3.1 Data Collection Techniques and Instruments

The instruments in this study were adapted from Sen's (2010) that consisted of two: (1) questionnaire and (2) semi-structured interview guidelines. For quantitative data, the questionnaire was employed. To increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the researchers used face validity, content validity, and expert judgment validation. Then, the questionnaire was piloted to the non-selected respondents randomly with the same characteristics namely private and state junior high school English teachers. The results were measured using a score of *Pearson Product Moment Correlation* and showed a high-reliability coefficient with Cronbach Alpha .700. The questionnaire was used to figure out their perceptions related to their beliefs, attitude, and their plan for EFL practical classes. The researchers used the self-enumeration technique in which the respondents completed the questionnaire without any assistance from the researcher(s) (Fellegi, 2010). In this condition, the researchers shared an online questionnaire in a Google Form with the respondents through a community of English junior high school teachers. It asked the respondents to tick one of the options in the column provided and answer the open-ended questions in it.

Then, the qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews, which were conducted by phone to obtain information about the teachers' beliefs and attitudes of culture teaching in the EFL classroom, and how they were reflected in their instructional practices including their syllabi. Based on consent, the interviews were conducted with six English teachers (from three state and three private schools). The six participants were chosen purposively based on their teaching experiences and teaching periods. Each interview lasted between 20 and 40 minutes and all were recorded for later transcription and analysis.

Lastly, concerning the classroom activities or practices, the data were taken from the English teachers' syllabi. The analysis of the syllabi comprised teaching topics, teaching activities, and sources used by the English teachers. Classroom observations were initially planned but cancelled due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

3.2 Data Analysis

In this study, the quantitative data were first tabulated and then analysed by SPSS 22. To explore the private and state junior high school English teachers' beliefs and attitudes, descriptive statistics were used to see the percentages, means, and standard deviations. To see whether there is a significant difference between the beliefs and attitudes of the state and private junior high school English teachers, the independent t-test and Mann-Whitney test were employed.

Meanwhile, the qualitative data were analysed based on the contents relevant to the research objectives and the emergence of relevant themes. In other words, the data which were collected from the questionnaire were then strengthened with deeper information gained via the semi-structured interviews carried out with three (N=3) private and three (N=3) state junior high school English teachers. Bogdan and Biklen (1998), as cited in Aydemir and Mede (2014), state that the recorded answers are transcribed at first, and then identified by the researcher. At last, this was used to create a development of major themes sorted under the specific sub-headings in the next section. The teachers were coded as T1-T6, respectively.

4. RESULTS

4.1 The English Teachers' Beliefs towards Culture Teaching in EFL Classes

The teachers' beliefs towards culture teaching in EFL classes were analysed quantitatively as shown in Table 2, with the abbreviations of SD (strongly disagree), D (disagree), ND (not decided), A (agree), and SA (strongly agree). It shows that the first item ('teaching target culture means teaching mainly American culture'), 61.1% of English teachers strongly disagree. It means that the majority of the English teachers had in their mind that teaching target culture was not solely related to teaching the American culture.

The finding in the second item ('culture and language can be separated') shows that 43.1% of English teachers disagreed that culture and language were separable. The finding in the third item ('target culture should focus on the teaching of beliefs i.e., religion, likes and dislikes, values, taboos, etc.') shows that 43.0% of English teachers showed their disagreement that target culture should be focused on the teaching of beliefs. After that, the fourth item ('it is impossible to learn target culture without living in that country for a while'), indicates that 49.3% of English teachers were opposed to the idea that it was impossible to learn the target culture without living in that country for a while. This result figures out their belief that it was still possible to learn the target culture without living in that country. The finding for the fifth item shows that there were 43.1% of English teachers who agree that target culture should focus on the teaching of monumental aspects of culture i.e., famous people, painting, best-sellers, and buildings. This means that they believed that monumental aspects of culture should be the focus in teaching the target culture.

Interestingly, in item number 6 ('the term target culture means the culture of everyone who speaks English'), there were only 0.7% of English teachers who strongly agree. This means that the word of target culture could be meant as the culture of one who spoke English. Next, of 144 English teachers, 48.6% agree with the seventh item

(‘the coursebooks I use contain a lot of cultural information’), yet, 51.3% of English teachers disagree. They thought that the coursebooks they used did not contain a lot of cultural information. Thus, it can be said that the English teachers did not rely on the coursebooks as the main source of cultural information. Next, in item number 8 (‘learning target culture has harmful effects on Indonesian culture’), it was found that there were 47.9% of English teachers disagree. This means that learning other target cultures had no harmful effects on the Indonesian culture. The last item (‘target culture should focus on the teaching of material culture i.e., food, clothing, transportation, facilities, et cetera.’) shows a finding that 65.3% of English teachers agree that the item of target culture should be focused on the teaching of material cultures.

Table 2. Teachers’ beliefs towards culture teaching in EFL classes.

No.	Item	Scale					Mean	Std. Dev.
		SD (%)	D (%)	ND (%)	A (%)	SA (%)		
1.	Teaching the target culture means teaching mainly the American culture.	13.9 %	61.1 %	6.3 %	18.8 %	0%	2.30	.932
2	Culture and language can be separated.	22.9 %	43.1 %	2.8 %	27.8 %	3.5 %	2.46	1.217
3	The target culture should focus on the teaching of beliefs (i.e., religion, likes and dislikes, values, taboos, etc.).	6.9 %	34.0 %	4.9 %	49.3 %	4.9 %	3.11	1.141
4	It is impossible to learn the target culture without living in that country for a while.	11.8 %	50.7 %	2.1 %	27.8 %	7.6 %	2.69	1.215
5	The target culture should focus on the teaching of monumental aspects of culture (i.e., famous people, painting, best-sellers, and buildings).	4.2 %	39.6 %	9.0 %	43.1 %	4.2 %	3.03	1.080
6	The term target culture means the culture of everyone who speaks English.	9.0 %	38.9 %	7.6 %	43.8 %	.7 %	2.88	1.100
7	The coursebooks I use contain a lot of cultural information.	4.9 %	21.5 %	22.2 %	48.6 %	2.8 %	3.23	.980
8	Learning the target culture has harmful effects on Indonesian culture.	12.5 %	47.9 %	8.3 %	30.06 %	.7 %	2.59	1.074
9	The target culture should focus on the teaching of material culture (i.e., food, clothing, transportation, facilities, etc.).	.7 %	23.6 %	4.9 %	65.3 %	5.6 %	3.51	.939

4.2 Junior High School English Teachers’ Attitudes towards Culture Teaching in EFL Classes

The teachers were asked to respond to four items with a five-point Likert scale pertaining to their attitudes towards culture teaching in EFL classes. The presentations of the findings are item by item in the sequence as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Teachers' attitudes towards culture teaching in EFL classes.

No.	Item	Scale						Mean	Std. Dev.
		SD (%)	D (%)	ND (%)	A (%)	SA (%)			
1	I try to teach the effects of culture on language (i.e., not so common of 'have a good meal' versus the mandatory <i>selamat makan</i>).	1.4%	16.7%	7.6%	73.6%	.7%	3.56	.826	
2	I provide contrasting culture examples (i.e., In Indonesian, we say this but in English, we say that).	2.1%	12.5%	6.9%	74.3%	4.2%	3.66	.829	
3	I tell what I heard (or read) about the target culture.	.7%	13.2%	2.1%	76.4%	7.6%	3.77	.800	
4	I believe culture is very important in establishing appropriate communication.	1.4%	4.2%	3.5%	68.1%	22.9%	4.07	.745	

Based on Table 3, there were 73.6% of the English teachers agree that they have tried to teach the effects of culture on language through giving examples. Related to responses to item number 2, 74.3% of English teachers agree that they have also tried to provide contrastive cultural examples. This means that the English teachers comparing Indonesian culture and the target culture should be implemented in the process of teaching and learning.

Next, the finding for item number 3 showed that 76.4% of English teachers agree and only 0.7% of the English teachers strongly disagree with the item. This means that most of the English teachers told what they heard or read related to the target culture to their students. The last item showed that 68.1% of English teachers agree; this means that most of the English teachers had the same opinion that culture is important in establishing appropriate communication in the target language.

4.3 Teachers' Practices of Beliefs and Attitudes as Reflected in Teaching Syllabi

Regarding the implementation of teachers' beliefs and attitudes, the syllabi of their teaching were then analysed based on whether they were explicitly or implicitly reflected, as displayed in Table 4.

Table 4. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes as reflected in teaching syllabi.

Teachers	Reflected in the teaching syllabi		
	Belief	Attitude	Evidence
T1	√	√	Explicitly reflected
T2	√	√	Explicitly and implicitly reflected
T3	√	√	Explicitly reflected
T4	√	√	Implicitly reflected
T5	√	√	Explicitly reflected
T6	√	√	Implicitly reflected

From Table 4, the analysis of the six teachers' syllabi revealed that all the teachers inserted cultural elements in their syllabi. For example, T1, T2, T3, and T5 provided learning materials about kinds of expressions and how to pronounce and use the expressions correctly. In their teaching syllabi, several expressions mentioned

included greeting, saying goodbye, thanking, apologizing, asking for attention, checking to understand, rewarding good performance, asking/expressing opinions and responses, giving instructions, inviting, prohibiting, asking permission, and responding, stating, asking, and responding to self-introductions. Learning activities of listening, mimicking, and demonstrating several sample conversations, correct pronunciation, stress, and intonation, were also mentioned. In addition, learning materials about time, date, month, and year were stated in the teaching syllabi of T1, T3, and T5. For example, how to use cardinal number which is followed by an article 'the', the use of prepositions (in, on, and at) in mentioning month, year, and time. Added to this, T3 and T5 stated the differences in mentioning time, date, month, and year in English with those in Indonesian as well. Unfortunately, their teaching syllabi did not mention examples of what differences presented to the students.

Furthermore, in the syllabi of T2 and T6, the researchers found that there was a material in the form of narrative texts (fables) implicitly. In this case, the teachers inserted the element of cultures such as the language used and narrative texts that contain the different origin of the story. For example, in the teaching syllabi, there were two different narrative texts about the fables. The first text was an Indonesian fable entitled 'Mousedeer and Crocodile', and the second one was the target culture's fable entitled 'A Fox in A Sheep Clothing'. Moreover, it revealed that the material about a song was implemented in the syllabi of T2, T3, T4, T5, and T6. It meant that this process of the teaching and learning activity was related to [Adaskou et al. \(1990\)](#), who state about cultural elements which could be divided into four parts and one of which was the aesthetic element. This element includes cinema, literature, media, and music. Hence, the material about a song is significantly related to the importance of inserting the cultural element in the process of teaching and learning activity.

Regarding the development of the syllabi, not all of the teachers had developed their syllabi that included the cultural element explicitly. Yet, it did not mean that there were no cultural aspects or materials in their teaching and learning processes. Based on the data collected, it was found that there were only 40% of the total data showed the insertion of the cultural elements in the forms of topic, activity, text, and dialogue. And the rest of the sixty percent of the data gathered, the syllabi showed that the cultural elements were clearly stated. This means that the sources they used from books, or other sources were reflected in the syllabi. For example, in the syllabi, the sources covered various cultural topics such as the topic of using the expressions of Western daily greetings. Then, in this opportunity, the teachers explored and asked their students to compare or share with other students the expressions from their own culture. In other words, the teachers provided contrasting examples to gather implicit information gained from the speakers.

4.4 The Result of the Interviews

The interviews with the six English teachers were conducted to corroborate the results of the questionnaire. Each one was interviewed individually and was not given the questions beforehand so that the answers could be more natural and reliable.

In Table 5, it shows that all six junior high school English teachers had the same arguments related to the definition of the target culture. According to T1, target culture means delivering the culture from the target culture to the students. Further, this participant emphasized that a teacher who taught a language should insert any

information about culture from the language used, for example, the English language. It was because culture and language could not be separated. Therefore, the target culture should be informed to the students when teaching any language such as English.

Table 5. The results of interviews.

Question	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6
Defining target culture	Delivering the culture from the target language to the students.	The activity of teaching culture of the language used to the students.	The culture that we are going to learn.	The culture of English as the language that we learn.	The culture that we, as English teachers, should forward or explain to our students.	The culture is related to the language used.
Whose culture do the English teachers teach	Combine American and British	British	British and American	British	Prefer American but British is still given to the students.	British
Skills incorporated in teaching	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	Speaking	Speaking	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	Speaking	Listening Speaking Reading Writing
Sources of knowledge about culture teaching	Internet YouTube Books	YouTube Reading texts Module	Social media YouTube School books	Newspaper Online resources Movies	Online sources such as YouTube	Online sources such as movies

T2 also defined that teaching the target culture as the activity of teaching the culture of the language used to the students. However, T2 emphasized the cultural teaching should be relevant to 'Islam' regulation. For instance, when the teacher taught English with the topic of food, she or he should explain whether the food was '*halal*' (meaning lawful or permitted) or not since most Western people are non-Muslims and can eat non-*halal* food. Meanwhile, most Indonesians are Muslims and are not allowed to eat non-*halal* food. Moreover, T3 stated that most Western people perceived friend intimacy differently from the Eastern culture. For example, when people of different sexes meet, they did not feel shy to kiss one another. Another example is some outfits they wore are considered minimalist by the Eastern people, especially Muslims. Furthermore, T3 compared the Western people and Indonesian people in terms of their breakfast: bread was a common meal for the former and rice for the latter.

Related to the American or British culture, T1 argued that both cultures should be combined as materials for the students since those two cultures were perceived as tightly related to English. They had different accents, and therefore the English teachers needed to promote and introduce them correctly. The teachers asked the students to watch some videos or listen to audio materials, then explained to the students that the conversations in the video used either British or American accents.

Yet, T2 preferred British culture materials due to the perception that they provided several contents related to education. According to this teacher, American culture connotes a number of slang words and is therefore unsuitable to be taught to EFL classes. While T3 said that both western cultures, American and British, could be seen through the people's daily life such as how they eat, what they eat, and their clothing.

The next result shows the skills and tasks that the English teachers implemented when they were teaching English in the EFL classes. T1 emphasized that all skills namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be integrated into the process of teaching culture. For example, the teachers might search a reading material containing some aspects of Western culture so that the students would get information about it besides their own. However, it was not easy to do so since the capability of the students could not be the same. Related to the speaking skill, T2 usually used a dialog that contained cultural aspects such as the use of greeting and times. The students should know well when to use 'good morning', 'afternoon', 'good evening', and 'good night' correctly because, in the Indonesian context, the expressions are different. For instance, at 11 a.m. Indonesians greet with *selamat siang* ('good afternoon'), but in English, it is still 'morning'. Thus, this kind of culture should be understood well by the students. Based on T3, the skill of speaking for the students could be gained through doing a dialog or performing drama from Western countries such as *Beauty and the Beast*, *Cinderella*, and others.

Moreover, the sources used were mostly from the internet. It is similar to T5 who said that she was much thankful for the era now that had changed the routine life and education a lot. From an education perspective, the changes could be seen from the methodology of how to teach the students. For example, the teacher could teach the students via YouTube. This means that T5 preferred to use YouTube because it was easy and could be done by just showing the video taken from YouTube and then asking the students to learn the dialog from the video. Besides, T5 also added that the source could be from used books that there was 'QR Code' in them, so from this code, the students could notice what the dialog was and so forth. An interesting answer was from T4, who stated that he got the source accidentally.

T3 said that she got the sources from social media, YouTube, and of course school books. But, most of the time, she used social media and YouTube to teach culture. This platform makes it easy for the teacher and the students, too. Then, according to T2, the sources could be taken from YouTube, reading texts, and modules. Thus, it was clear that all the six teachers used social media such as YouTube and the like as the most used in the process of teaching culture in the EFL classes.

4.5 The Result of Independent Sample t-Test of Beliefs

The result of the independent sample t-Test showed that there were no significant differences in beliefs of both state and private junior high school English teachers related to culture teaching in EFL classes. This is as shown in Table 6.

Table 6. The result of independent sample t-test of beliefs.

	Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% Confidence interval of the difference	
								Lower	Upper
Beliefs									
Equal variances assumed	1.263	.263	1.215	142	.226	1.71746	1.41301	-1.07579	4.51071
Equal variances not assumed			1.581	25.513	.126	1.71746	1.08637	-.51767	3.95259

4.6 The Result of Mann-Whitney Test of Attitudes

The result of the Mann-Whitney Test of attitudes showed that there were no significant differences between the attitudes of state and private junior high school English teachers related to culture teaching in EFL classes (see Table 7).

Table 7. The result of the Mann-Whitney test of attitudes.

	Attitudes
Mann-Whitney U	791.000
Wilcoxon W	8919.000
Z	-1.859
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.063

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 English Teachers' Beliefs in Culture Teaching: Focus, Materials, and Perceived Effects

The first research objective relates to the teachers' beliefs about culture teaching in the EFL classes. The results show that most junior high school English teachers believed in which elements of culture their teaching should focus on. Their materials included food, clothing, transportation, facilities, etc. These results may indicate that the teachers taught not only the language but also inserted the cultural elements in the process of their teaching activity (Adaskou et al., 1990; Choudhury, 2013; Liton & Madanat, 2013). This result supports the study of Tran and Dang (2014) which reveals that the participants' teachers believe in the importance of cultural information in ELT, and culture should not be ignored in language teaching and learning.

The teachers in this study also stated that when teaching English, the culture of the language must be transferred to the students properly so that the misunderstanding or misconception of language learning could be minimized. Furthermore, the teachers believed that the term 'target culture' may relate to everyone who speaks English. This means that they used a language to communicate with others who probably have

different contexts and situations in which the cultural elements are involved (Kramersch, 2013).

Another result revealed that a majority of the junior high school English teachers had the same opinion that teaching culture in EFL classes was not solely teaching the American culture, but also the British culture. This result supports Choudhury (2013) and Hammar (2013) that teaching the English culture does not mean teaching only the culture of the Americans, but also of the British culture because those two cultures are dominant in terms of teaching and learning the English language. The possible reason behind the selection of American and British culture is that it might be the most common culture known by the English teachers. This is supported by the results from the interviews with T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, and T6 that they taught both the British and American cultures.

Furthermore, the junior high school English teachers used the materials to teach the English subject such as coursebooks that contain cultures, which indicates that the language and culture cannot be separated in the English teaching context. As stated by Paige et al. (2003), culture should be integrated with language teaching. Liton and Madanat (2013) reveal that it is important to combine culture into language teaching because it can increase the students' motivation to learn the English language. Larzén- Östermark (2008) and Aydemir and Mede (2014) show that the integration of culture in EFL classrooms has a significant effect regarding motivation on the language learners.

Another result showed that the English teachers thought that it was still possible to learn the target culture of the English language without necessarily living in an English-speaking country. In this sense, the teachers utilized several authentic materials that could improve the students' understanding of other cultures rather than their own, such as film, news, television, shows, magazines, newspaper, and other printed materials (Purba, 2011). If teachers can maximize the use of authentic sources, the students can automatically develop their cultural understanding, attitudes, and performances within a group in a societal situation and can communicate with other people in that condition (Selye, 1993).

The statistics also revealed that the English teachers believed in which culture their teaching needs to focus on (e.g., religion, likes, dislikes, taboos, and values). This belief means that the language teachers did not only teach grammar knowledge, but also some other features of the culture itself (Al-Rifa'i et al., 2021). However, the result of this present study showed that these teachers in Ngawi believed that learning the target culture also has harmful effects on the Indonesian culture. For example, Indonesians, especially teenagers, tended to imitate the target culture such as the lifestyle including music, fashion, food, and so on. To avoid this situation, the teachers should understand the principles related to culture teaching, namely relating the first culture (e.g., Indonesian culture) with the target culture, as an interpersonal process to understand the values, beliefs, and norms.

5.2 English Teachers' Positive Attitudes towards Culture Teaching

The second research objective is about the attitudes of the junior high school English teachers towards the culture teaching in the EFL classes. It revealed that these teachers taught the effects of culture on the language used. They also provided the students with contrasting cultural elements from the Indonesian and Western cultures.

Thus, the students knew the differences between the compared cultures properly so that the establishment of the appropriate communication could be achieved. The teachers used several sources to make their students understand what they have learned through media, television, books, magazines, and newspapers (Sen, 2010). In addition, the teachers also inserted the teaching beliefs in the forms of religion, dislikes, likes, and values, all of which could influence one's attitude (Sen, 2010). Taylor and Marsden (2014) argue that beliefs and attitudes should be done in communication so that they can influence the behaviours or actions of others. In short, the attitudes will influence the teachers' ways of teaching, the ways of choosing the sources needed, and the ways of organizing the classroom practices (Karanezi & Rapti, 2015).

The results of the interview indicated that the English teachers had implemented the four skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing of English to teach culture by using some social media such as the Internet, YouTube, and movies. YouTube was the most frequently used media to stimulate their students' understanding of other cultures. Through watching the video from YouTube, the teachers could teach and ask the students about the contexts, languages, and other elements so that the students' perspective of the world could increase. As suggested by Tseng (2002), the effect of teaching and giving culture to the students can enhance their individual's view and make them able to negotiate the meaning of such perspective and can understand the communicative context. Therefore, the teachers are also expected to emphasize the importance of putting contexts for the component of language that is being taught in their teaching and learning in EFL classes.

Moreover, other arguments from the interviewees showed that they preferred not only incorporating speaking, listening, reading, and writing of teaching culture but also inserting vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, review, and homework for their students. This result is aligned with Zacharias' (2003) findings that speaking is the most preferred skill to insert culture teaching. A similar result is also evidenced by the study conducted by Hammar (2013) that reports that in inserting culture teaching, listening skills and vocabulary are prioritized then followed by oral skill. This might happen because the focus of language learning is for students to communicate effectively and properly so that misconceptions and misunderstandings can be avoided.

Additionally, the teachers also upgraded their knowledge related to the target culture via TV, films, websites, supplementary instructional materials, books, magazines, journals, comics, social media such as Facebook, Twitter, etc., and invited native speakers to teach English in their schools. Thus, it may be inferred that with globalization, the visual media as stated previously becomes the easiest way or source of learning other cultures as well as increasing one's knowledge about the culture being taught (Sen, 2010). Although social media have helped both the English teachers and the students to learn the culture through the language used, some junior high school English teachers disagree with using such media in the process of their language teaching. This is due to the negative effects if the students do not use it properly.

5.3 English Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes as Reflected in Their Teaching Syllabi

The last research objective is related to the teachers' beliefs and attitudes in their teaching syllabi. The teachers admitted that their syllabi referred to the Indonesian

Ministry of Education and mostly included the cultural elements in the process of teaching and learning activity. The learning resources showed how native speakers use the language such as expressions in their daily life. However, not all of the teachers inserted and developed the cultural material explicitly. The cultural materials were also found in their learning sources and teachers' statements about the learning processes related to culture teaching which was not mentioned explicitly in the syllabi.

Besides, related to the learning activities, the teachers compared the target culture and Indonesian culture. This was done by all teachers, but some of them did not explicitly state it in the syllabi. Therefore, it led the students to ask about cultural elements of the target culture like the actresses, capital cities, music, tourism places, and the like, directly to the teachers. And thus, even though the cultural elements were not clearly seen in the syllabi, yet, the teachers added the cultural elements while conducting the process of their teaching and learning in the EFL classes. This implicitly shows that the role of the teachers' belief indicates a process of additional thought, teaching methods, and learning (Zheng, 2009).

Additionally, all of the teachers believed that in the teaching and learning of the EFL classroom, there should be cultural elements in it (Xu, 2012). Therefore, most of the teachers inserted the cultural elements explicitly in the syllabi, while others did them implicitly through the sources used that comprised cultural elements. They also incorporated culture teaching through activities in teaching and learning in the classrooms. Furthermore, both the state and private English teachers show the same idea of the importance of teaching culture to their students when they teach English in EFL classrooms. This result also means that the junior high school English teachers understood how to give a grounding to their students properly based on the sources they used so that the students found it stress-free to learn the language because learning language means learning the culture.

6. CONCLUSION

The beliefs and attitudes of the junior high school English teachers in Ngawi related to culture teaching are proven essential. They significantly influenced how they designed proper lesson plans, chosen materials, and conducted activities with culture insertion in the process of teaching and learning. These teachers were also mostly aware of utilizing social media to teach their students to understand that learning a language means learning culture. Additionally, they also believed that culture teaching had effects on the language used, and every language has its own culture. Related to the teaching syllabi, the data indicated that the English teachers in Ngawi had implemented culture teaching and inserted various cultural elements in the process of their teaching EFL classes.

The findings only reflect the investigated specific groups and are not meant to be generalized to other junior high school English teachers from other groups on beliefs and attitudes related to culture teaching. In addition, the classroom practices were only described through the teaching syllabi due to the pandemic situation. Thus, future researchers may conduct a similar study in different or broader areas. Moreover, future researchers are expected to further explore the real teaching practices performed by the English teachers during the teaching and learning activities in the classroom.

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Zooming in on the Indonesian EFL Primary School Students' Intercultural Sensitivity and Their Extroversion

Ahmad Sugianto*
Eri Kurniawan
Didi Sukyadi

English Education Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature Education,
Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung 40154, INDONESIA

Abstract

Intercultural sensitivity and personality traits constitute eminent and inseparable elements associated with EFL learning. Nevertheless, to the best of the writers' knowledge, limited investigations in an Indonesian EFL primary school level concerning these two variables were found; therefore, the present study was intended to scrutinize the Indonesian EFL primary school students' intercultural sensitivity and personality traits. 96 students from the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of one primary school in Bandung were involved. An embedded design of a mixed-method was employed. The data were garnered using 4-Likert scale questionnaires gauging the students' intercultural sensitivity and their personality traits focusing on extroversion, followed by some open-ended questions. The findings revealed that students' intercultural sensitivity was considered good (the mean of 80.06 and standard deviation of 8.50), and most students tended to be extroverted (the mean of 72.62 and the standard deviation of 9.89). The students' intercultural sensitivity was found to be significantly related to their extroversion at a 99% level of confidence ($.000 < .01$). Finally, the findings along with the previous studies explicating the intercultural sensitivity and personality traits advocate some pedagogical implications for facilitating students' English learning.

Keywords: Extroversion, intercultural sensitivity, personality traits, primary school.

* Corresponding author, email: ahmadsugianto@upi.edu

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1. INTRODUCTION

The intercultural sensitivity in English learning is deemed in great demand as students attend the English class. By having intercultural sensitivity in their English learning, students are expected to gain several benefits. They will have more understanding about their own cultures and other people's cultures. Furthermore, the possession of intercultural sensitivity assists students to have good language skills and good social beings (Byram et al., 2002; Hyder, 2015). Additionally, it helps them to cope with the challenges induced by globalization, i.e., the interactions involving different countries and cultures become more prevalent (Azizah et al., 2021; The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2018). Thereby, intercultural sensitivity is necessarily required to be taken into account in the context of English language learning and one area that is worth scrutinizing.

To begin with, to make use of intercultural sensitivity effectively, students are required to consider some aspects. One of the crucial aspects is the psychological factor realized in their personality traits. The present study focuses on personality traits in association with intercultural sensitivity. In particular, one type of personality, i.e., extroversion, was investigated with respect to intercultural sensitivity. Evidence shows that these two variables are crucially required to be explored on account of the discrepancy of the findings by previous researchers. On the one hand, extroversion was found to have an association with social support and subjective well-being (Yu et al., 2021) as well as the way individuals experience various cultures (Ahadi et al., 1993). However, on the other hand, some contradictory issues in regard to extroversion were found, for instance, it had no association with cultural diversity (Aydin & Şahin, 2017). Also, it is considered insignificant in cross-cultural transition (Benitez-Devilbiss, 2018) and unrelated to children's attachment (Jacobsen & Hofmann, 1997). Thus, the present study constitutes an alternative to clarify the discrepancy among the previous researchers' findings.

Furthermore, studies concerning the variables explored in the present study, particularly in the context of primary school level, were still limited. The studies were mostly conducted in high schools (Wurf, 2018) and university school levels (Nadeem & Haroon, 2019). Moreover, albeit some studies were found in the children's context, they were not conducted in the EFL context, particularly in the Indonesian context (Gaias et al., 2012; Piri et al., 2018). Hence, it is considered crucial for the present study to fill the void left by the previous studies. The results are expected to provide novel insights and depictions concerning the primary school students' extroversion vis-à-vis their intercultural sensitivity, particularly in the Indonesian EFL context. These variables are crucial for they are integral parts of students' learning and communicative interactions (Shatz, 2007). In a similar vein, the communicative interactions are invariably unable to be separated from cultural values and beliefs regarding the target language (Marcellino, 2015) and the students' psychological factors, namely personality (Brown, 2000; Halonen & Santrock, 1999).

Based on the rationale above, the present study attempted to fill the gap left by the previous studies. Thereby, it aimed at finding out the students' intercultural sensitivity in relation to their personality traits, focusing on extroversion, especially in the Indonesian EFL primary school setting. In particular, this study was intended to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent is the EFL primary school students' intercultural sensitivity?

2. To what extent is the EFL primary school students' extroversion?
3. Is there a significant relationship between EFL primary school students' intercultural sensitivity and their extroversion?
4. How are the EFL primary school students' attitudes towards other cultures?

Additionally, to that end (particularly that which has to do with the purpose of quantitative study), the present study was aimed at scrutinizing and testing the null hypothesis (H_0) at the 99% confidence level. There is no significant relationship between EFL primary school students' intercultural sensitivity and their extroversion.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Intercultural Sensitivity in the Indonesian English Language Teaching and Learning (ELTL)

The concept of intercultural sensitivity has become the interest and research area of lots of experts recently; hence, numerous studies around the world at present try to investigate it, including Indonesia. In this regard, the concept and the term intercultural sensitivity and intercultural competence have been regarded interchangeably (Hyder, 2015); hence, it is important to delineate the meaning of intercultural competence. To begin with, Elsen and St. John (2007, pp. 23-25) elaborate intercultural competence concept into three elements: 1) *inter* which refers to 'connecting' other people's culture via rigorous understanding and effective communication; 2) *culture* which can be delineated into three angles, namely the 'essentialist and generalized view' (i.e. seeing culture as nationality, ethnicity, religion, and language), 'essentialist and diversified conceptions of culture' (i.e. not only represent the former concept but also other layers comprising gender, generation, education, social class, region or city, language community, special interest group or family and life experiences), and 'anti-essential dynamic conceptions of culture' (i.e., culture is seen as something created, shaped, and constructed through dynamic processes as a result of social or cultural interactions); 3) *competence* which refers to the aspects of knowledge, affective, and skills through which communicative goals in intercultural context are accommodated and attained.

In regard to intercultural sensitivity, some dimensions or stages can be considered as the levels of one's intercultural sensitivity. In this case, Hammer et al. (2003) point out that there are two main strands, namely ethnocentrism and ethnorelativism; the former comprises stages such as denial, defense reversal, and minimization, while the latter encompasses the stages such as acceptance, adaptation, and integration (see Figure 1).

To find out one's intercultural sensitivity, a means for measuring it is in demand. In this regard, numerous tools have already been proposed by a number of experts. In this case, Fatini and Tirmizi (2006) assert and note that there are 87 tools to assess intercultural competence. Nevertheless, the present study only used one of them, the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale developed by Chen and Starosta (2000). It has five constructs: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness that they claim based on their pilot study to be valid and reliable (Chen and Starosta, 2000, pp. 172-173).

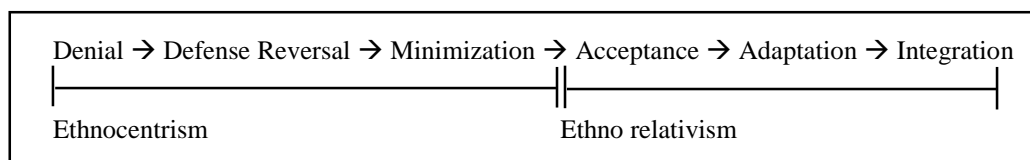


Figure 1. Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (p. 424).

Besides, on the one hand, intercultural sensitivity in ELTL, particularly in the context of Indonesia, is regarded to provide some benefits. These comprise fostering students' critical analysis and English skills (Haerazi & Irawan, 2020; Miftakh, 2017). On the other hand, some challenges still emerge. In this case, the matters had to do with the time constraints, the inadequacy of materials, and teachers' cultural knowledge (Abdulrahman et al., 2016; Putra et al., 2020; Rosyidi & Purwati, 2018; Silvia, 2015).

Based on the evidence above, intercultural sensitivity constitutes a beneficial entity that assists individuals in evaluating their own culture and the other people's cultures that are different from theirs. In the context of Indonesian ELTL, despite having some positive benefits and impressions for the students, intercultural sensitivity or competence should be deemed rigorously since English teachers deliver the English instructions in which some challenges may appear. For instance, English teachers are required to teach the multicultural aspects creatively and use multimodal materials to foster the students' engagement in the cultural tasks (Setyono & Widodo, 2019). Cooperative learning can be the alternative approach through which the English teachers accommodate and build their intercultural competence and sensitivity (Telaumbanua et al., 2020).

2.2 Construing the Extroversion and Intercultural Sensitivity: A Context of EFL Primary School Level

Personality constitutes one of the salient elements in EFL teaching and learning. It is because as students learn a second or foreign language, they are not only required to involve their cognition but the way they behave and feel also should be taken into account (Brown, 2000; Cummins, 1991); thus, it is crucial to include such psychological aspect, which in this case, is students' personality traits. Personality itself is defined as characteristics and attributes that belong to human beings (Dornyei, 2005). More specifically, it can be associated with the way individuals interact with other people that can be encapsulated by the way they think, feel, and behave (Halonen & Santrock, 1999).

Evidence had shown that extroversion personality was significantly correlated with general adjustment (Ramalu et al., 2010); such relationship is essential since, as Triandis (2000) asserts, it may lead to subjective well-being; therefore, individuals' mental health may be dependent upon the suitability between the personality and culture (Caldwell-Harris & Aycıçegi, 2006; Ward & Chang, 1997). Moreover, extroversion was reported to have an association with supportive attributes that might be accommodative as individuals mingle with others during their social interactions (Barrett & Pietromonaco, 1997) and adjust to new cultures (Masgoret et al., 2000). It will be beneficial to entrench the intercultural sensitivity since some of its constructs have to do with (social or intercultural) interactions (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Based

on the aforementioned notions, extroversion is a part of the personality that constitutes one of the key facets of entrenching intercultural sensitivity.

In addition, the extroversion investigated in the present study derives from The Big Five Model. It was used because, based on the rationale, as McCrae and Costa (1989) argue, that this model is practical if used in various settings, including education. A study delineating the instance of the use of the Big Five Model in the educational context reported that the children's extroversion was found to have a significant correlation with a particular culture, namely the Islamic culture that resided at school (Aisyah et al., 2020). Similarly, the other studies (Callueng et al., 2020; Goldner & Scharf, 2013) reveal that children's extroversion was in relation to the social domain or behavior. In addition to the evidence, Draguns (2009) asserts that personality and culture comprise inseparable entities. Culture is not the only one that may relate to personality; it is still perceived to possess power and role as 'a huge class of external influence' of one's life, hence including personality traits (Allik & McCrae, 2002, p. 318). Moreover, these two variables are considered as some of the essential facets, particularly in the EFL context, through which students acquire English (Khodadady & Younesi, 2017).

Based on the related previous studies and theories above, it can be assumed that EFL students' personality traits, which in this regard are extroversion, and their intercultural sensitivity, are connected to a certain extent. Personality traits are viewed to have a crucial role in the way individuals cope with intercultural issues leading to language acquisition.

3. METHODS

The instruments used comprise the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale developed by Chen and Starosta (2000) and the Big Five Trait Taxonomy developed by Oliver and Srivastava (1999). The two questionnaires were translated into Bahasa Indonesia with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree/*sangat setuju* (scored 4) to strongly disagree/*sangat tidak setuju* (scored 1). Besides, following the questionnaires, open-ended questions enclosed with some images containing cultural issues to find out the students' voices with respect to their intercultural sensitivity were employed. These questions were developed and adapted from the studies conducted by Kiss and Weninger (2017) and Yue (2019), as shown in Table 1.

Furthermore, a mixed-method, utilizing an embedded design, was employed. In this study, the quantitative data were corroborated by the qualitative data. This combination method was utilized to provide in-depth data and consulted based on the research questions advocated leading to robust findings (Cohen et al., 2000; Hamied, 2017; Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991). Initially, the study was targeted to 240 students as the participants deriving from fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in one primary school in Bandung city. Nevertheless, as the instruments were disseminated, only 96 responses were returned. This study underscored the voluntary participants, so only that number of students filled it when the questionnaire was distributed. Besides, 31 out of the 96 students were involved in instruments tryout. Thereby, the number of subjects in the present study comprised 65 students participating as the main targeted subjects. As the ease of access was found, the convenient sampling technique was preferred (Taherdoost, 2016).

Table 1. Questionnaire Matrix of Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (Chen & Starosta, 2000).

Intercultural sensitivity		Personality trait	
Factor	Item No.) *	Factor	Item No.) *
Interaction engagement	1, 11, 13, 21, 22R, 23, 24	Extraversion	1, 6R 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
Respect for cultural differences	2R, 7R, 8, 16, 18R, 20R		
Interaction confidence	3, 4R, 5, 6, 10		
Interaction enjoyment	9R, 12R, 15R		
Interaction attentiveness	14, 17, 19		

)*R: reversed items;)**the numbers shown in this Table 1 were based on the original source

Regarding the data collection, a cross-sectional design was employed. The data were garnered through the questionnaires disseminated using Google Form in one shot collection (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). Next, the collated quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and correlational analysis. Moreover, some particular analyses featuring the correlational analysis were utilized; these had to do with the depiction concerning the linearity, normality distribution testing, and heteroskedasticity (Cohen et al., 2000, 2018; Hamied, 2017). Also, some systematic coding procedures were utilized to gain the main themes of the qualitative data obtained from the open-ended questions. The student's responses to the open-ended questions were checked, read thoroughly, and coded; this is what is called initial coding. Then, the initial coding was followed with axial coding in which the specific codes from the previous coding were categorized or grouped into some categories—broader related codes. Next, these categories were classified into broader related themes/concepts using selective coding. The selective codes were used to ascertain the findings based on the research question proposed.

Additionally, concerning the ethical issues, the information related to the proposed research project was informed to the school's headmaster, teachers, and students. The subjects were given informed consent, i.e., their identities would remain confidential and that they had rights whether or not they would participate in this study.

4. RESULTS

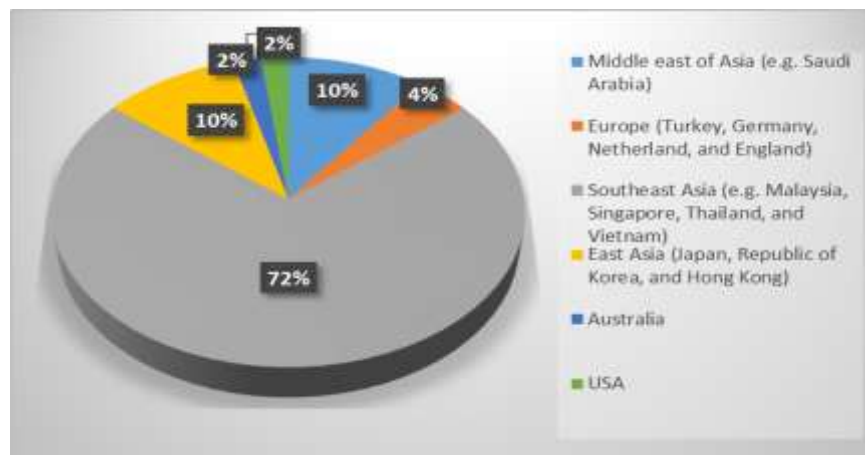
4.1 Demographic Profile of the EFL Primary School Students

Based on the demographic questionnaire disseminated to the students, some findings were found. Firstly, the subjects were dominated by 5th graders, i.e., 33 students (50.77%) with ages ranging from 11 to 12, followed by 23 students from the sixth grade (35.39%) whose age was around 11-13, and 4th graders, i.e., nine students (13.85%) around 9-11 years old. Most of the students come from some cities around West Java province, e.g., Bandung, Cimahi, Sumedang, Cianjur, Sukabumi, Bogor, and Bekasi (58 students or 89.23% of the whole population). Some students derived from other cities from different provinces, for example, three students from Jakarta and one student from Gresik (East Java province). The others were born overseas; one student was born in Saitama (Japan), and another was born in England. Moreover, the students were dominated by female students, 41 students (89.23%), whereas the number of male students participating in the present study was 24 students (36.92%).

Table 2. Demographic profile of the EFL primary school students.

Variables	4 th graders	5 th graders	6 th graders
Age			
9 years old	2 (3.08%)		
10 years old	6 (9.23%)	9 (13.85%)	
11 years old	1 (1.54%)	24 (36.92%)	7 (10.77%)
12 years old			14 (21.54%)
13 years old			2 (3.08%)
Origins (place of birth)			
Bandung	6 (9.23%)	25 (38.46%)	21 (32.31%)
Cimahi		1 (1.54%)	
Sumedang			1 (1.54%)
Cianjur		1 (1.54%)	
Sukabumi			1 (1.54%)
Bogor	1 (1.54%)		
Bekasi	1 (1.54%)		
Jakarta	1 (1.54%)	2 (3.08%)	
Gresik		1 (1.54%)	
Denpasar		1 (1.54%)	
Saitama Higashi Omiya		1 (1.54%)	
England		1 (1.54%)	
Gender			
Female	9 (13.85%)	17 (26.15%)	15 (23.08%)
Male		16 (24.62%)	8 (12.31%)

Besides, some students reported that they had visited foreign countries. In this regard, the countries from Southeast Asia were the most frequently visited countries (72%), followed respectively with middle east of Asia (10%), east of Asia (10%), Europe (4%), USA (2%), and Australia (2%) (see Figure 1 below).

**Figure 2.** The countries that the students ever visited.

4.1.1 Instrument reliability and validity

Based on the tryout of the instrument with 31 students, some results regarding the validity and reliability were obtained. In this regard, concerning the reliability of the intercultural sensitivity scale, it was found that the instrument was deemed to be excellent, indicated by the Cronbach's alpha value of .905. Moreover, in terms of validity, three out of twenty-four items (items numbers 2, 4, 11) were found to have a

lower validity with r counted values of .329, -.193, and .350 respectively with r_t ($\alpha=.05$) =.355. Therefore, the three items were excluded or dropped from the targeted subjects. Consequently, there were only twenty-one items used for the targeted subjects. Furthermore, due to the deletion of the three items, the value of Cronbach's alpha indicating the reliability of the intercultural sensitivity scale increased to .922.

In addition, in terms of the instrument assessing the extroversion, it was found that it was considered to have excellent reliability shown by the Cronbach's alpha value of .775. Furthermore, concerning the validity, some items were found to have low validity. Three out of eight items of extroversion, item no. 1, 6, and 31 were found to have a lower validity with r counted values of .191, .199, and -.144 consecutively with r_t ($\alpha=.05$) =.355. Therefore, the items were excluded from the targeted subjects. Consequently, there were only eighteen items concerning the personality traits used for the targeted participants.

4.1.2 Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability

These four terms, i.e., credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, have to do with the trustworthiness of the qualitative data. Some endeavors were conducted to ensure that the qualitative data had met trustworthiness. Concerning credibility, peer debriefing was conducted through consulting the data and findings to the professionals and colleagues. To maintain the transferability, the technique employed was 'collecting and developing thick descriptive data' to compare with the other contexts. Generating an 'audit trail' in the form of documentation constitutes the technique used regarding dependability. In the case of confirmability, the quantitative data obtained were utilized to corroborate and complement the qualitative data and vice versa (Guba, 1981, pp. 84-88).

4.2 The Students' Intercultural Sensitivity

The students' intercultural sensitivity (IS) was gained through the questionnaire disseminated to 65 students via the Google Form. In this regard, the detailed information about it is presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of students' Intercultural Sensitivity (IS)

	Descriptive statistics			
	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
IS score	61.90	97.62	80.06	8.48

Based on Table 3, the quality classification concerning the students' intercultural sensitivity can be calculated using the ideal mean (IM) and the ideal standard means (ISD). The criteria with the formula are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Guidelines for classification.

Interval scores	Criteria
$x > IM + 1.5 ISD$	Very good/high
$IM < x < IM + 1.5 ISD$	Good/high
$IM - 1.5 ISD < x < IM$	Moderate
$X < IM - 1.5 ISD$	Low

Based on the formula for each criterion shown in Table 4 above, the criteria for the final score are obtained. It is presented in Table 5 below. By taking account of the statistics below, it is clear that with a mean of 80.06 a standard deviation of 8.50, the students' intercultural sensitivity was deemed good.

Table 5. Classification of IS.

Interval scores	Criteria
$x > 88.69$	Very good/high
$79.76 < x < 88.69$	Good/high
$70.84 < x < 79.76$	Moderate
$X < 70.84$	Low

4.3 The Students' Personality Trait: Extroversion

The students' extroversion data gained from the questionnaire, which in this case is similar to the intercultural sensitivity scale, was disseminated through Google Form. Table 6 provides the descriptive statistics for the personality types concerning extroversion.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of students' extroversion.

	Descriptive statistics			
	Min	Max	Mean	Std. deviation
Extroversion	40.00	95.00	72.62	9.89

Akin to the intercultural sensitivity data, the classification for the students' extroversion was obtained through calculating the ideal mean and standard deviation with the aforementioned formula (see Table 4). Based on the statistics represented in Table 7 below, with a mean of 72.62 and a standard deviation of 9.89, the students' personality traits, in terms of extroversion, were considered to be good/high.

Table 7. Classification of extroversion.

Interval scores	Criteria
$x > 81.25$	Very good/high
$67.5 < x < 81.25$	Good/high
$53.75 < x < 67.5$	Moderate
$X < 53.75$	Low

4.3.1 Normality distribution testing

Normality distribution was tested through a test using Shapiro Wilk and the values of skewness and kurtosis. The results are illustrated in Table 8 and Table 9.

Table 8. Test of normality distribution using Shapiro Wilk.

Variables	Shapiro Wilk		
	Statistic	df	sig
Intercultural Sensitivity	.982	65	.459
Extroversion	.946	65	.007

Table 9. Test of normality distribution using Skewness and Kurtosis.

Variable	Skewness			Kurtosis		
	Skewness	Std. Error	Ratio	Kurtosis	Std. error	Ratio
Intercultural Sensitivity	.133	.297	.447	-.433	.586	-.74
Extroversion	-.505	.297	-1.7	1.662	.586	2.84

Based on Table 8 above, it can be inferred that the normality distribution was only found in the data concerning the intercultural sensitivity ($p > .05$). Meanwhile, the data set for extroversion was not normally distributed ($p < .05$). Moreover, based on Table 9, the data of intercultural sensitivity was considered to be reasonably normally distributed, indicated by the values of skewness and kurtosis obtained, i.e., .447 and -1.7, respectively. The value is within accepted values ranging between -2 and 2. Nevertheless, in terms of extroversion, there was no issue found concerning the skewness ratio (1.662) because it was still within the acceptable range. The value of its kurtosis ratio (2.84) was found beyond the acceptable values (Bachman, 2004, p. 100).

Another inspection was conducted to follow up the issue concerning the normality distribution of the data set of extroversion. By using graphical plots, the box and whiskers plot and detrended normal plot, shown in Figures 3 and 4 below.

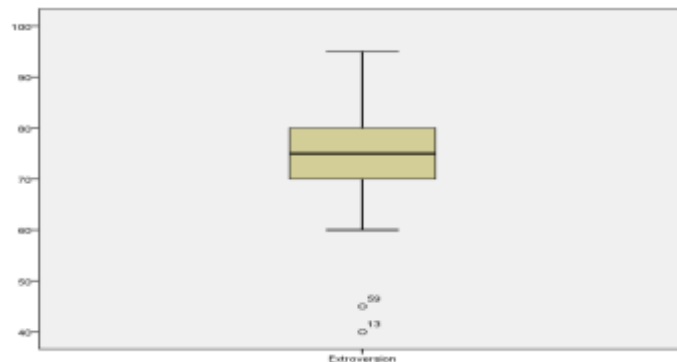


Figure 3. Box and Whisker plot of extroversion.

Based on Figure 3 and Figure 4, there were two extreme cases found. Subjects 59 and 13 scores were located far below the mean in Box and Whisker plot (see Figure 3) and were beyond three standard deviations from normal (see Figure 4) (p. 101). Thereby, based on the evidence shown by numerical and graphical inspections followed with data processing trail and scrutiny from the subjects' responses in the Google form, Subjects 59 and 13 were justified as outliers instead of facilitating cases, and these were excluded from the data analysis for testing the hypotheses. Moreover, to cope with the normality of the data, instead of using data transformation, another means to test the hypotheses concerning the scrutinized variables was set, non-parametric testing Spearman correlation coefficient (p. 100).

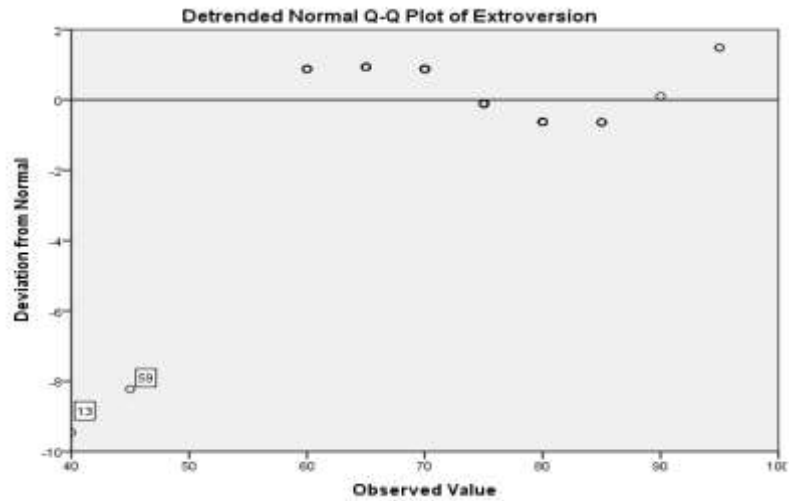


Figure 4. Detrended Normal Q-Q plot of extroversion.

4.3.2 *Linearity and Heteroskedsticity testing*

The linearity of the two data sets between IS and personality type of extroversion is tested through ANOVA, of which statistics are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. ANOVA for Linearity Testing.

		df	Mean Square	F	sig
Between Groups	(Combined)	7	256.26	6.132	.000
	Linearity	1	1078.38	25.805	.000
	Deviation from Linearity	6	119.27	2.853	.017
Within-group		55	41.79		
Total		62			

Based on Table 10, the p-value is higher than the 95% level of confidence (.000<.05), hence H0 is rejected, and Ha is accepted, meaning that the regression model between the two variables is considered linear.

Moreover, concerning heteroskedasticity, the verdict utilizes the Glejser test. Based on Table 11, it can be seen that the p-value obtained was higher than the 95% confidence level (.172 > .05), meaning that heteroskedasticity was not found in the regression model.

Table 11. The coefficient for Heteroskedasticity Testing.

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficient	t	Sig.
	B	Std. error	Beta		
(Constant)	11.867	4.569		2.598	.012
Extroversion	-.085	.062	-.174	-1.383	.172

4.4 Relationship between the EFL Primary School Students' Intercultural Sensitivity and Extroversion

To answer research question 3, namely the relationship between the EFL primary school students' intercultural sensitivity and extroversion, a correlational analysis by Spearman's rho is used. The result is illustrated in Table 12.

Table 12. Coefficient Correlation Spearman rho.

			Extroversion	IS
Spearman's rho	Extroversion	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.476
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
		N	63	-1.383

Based on the sig (2 tailed) value at 99% level of significance shown in Table 11 below, the p-value (.000) was found to be lower than the 99% level of confidence (.000 < .01). Hence it can be considered that there is a significant relationship between these two variables.

4.5 The Students' Attitudes toward Other Cultures

The students' attitudes towards other cultures were scrutinized using the open-ended questions disseminated through Google Form. The open-ended questions were developed and adapted based on the studies conducted by [Kiss and Weninger \(2017\)](#) and [Yue \(2019\)](#). In this regard, based on their responses regarding the pictures and questions given, several main themes were obtained. These comprise the figure of Mulan associated with war, movies, and preferences. As such, some of the prominent ones, for instance, as Subject 61, Subject 58, and Subject 33 point out:

- 1 *Mulan adalah seseorang yang berani dan sangat peduli terhadap keluarganya. Dia menggantikan ayahnya yang sedang sakit walaupun Mulan adalah perempuan tetapi ia mengikuti latihan perang sampai medan perang.* [Mulan is a person who is brave and really cares about her family. She substituted for her father who was sick, even though she was a female, she joined the war training as well as took part in the war.] (Subject 61)
- 2 *Mulan rela menggantikan ayahnya untuk wajib militer karena ayahnya sedang jatuh sakit. Pilihannya itu sangat hebat.* [Mulan sincerely substituted for her father who was sick to join the conscription. Her choice is very great.] (Subject 58)
- 3 *Sebenarnya saya tidak setuju dengan Mulan yang mengikuti latihan perang layaknya pria karena Mulan adalah perempuan tetapi jika alasannya karena ia harus menggantikan ayahnya (yang sakit) saya setuju. Mulan adalah sosok yang tidak egois, pekerja keras dan juga berani.* [Actually, I do not agree with Mulan joining the training for the war as a man because she was a girl, but if it was because she was to substitute for her father (who was sick to join the war), I would agree. She was an unselfish, hard-working, and brave person.] (Subject 33)

Such answers indicate their critical thoughts by providing a compelling and sound argument which is one of the characteristics of intercultural competence included in the cognitive aspect. Besides, they consider Mulan's choice, joining the conscription on behalf of her father positively, can be indicated as a way to respect an individual's choice which is essential in intercultural communication.

The other theme has to do with positive impressions due to some grounds, namely the plot, the characteristics of Mulan, and the moral values that can be obtained from the movie. In this case, the plot was perceived positively and Mulan was viewed as a good woman, for instance as Subject 57 and Subject 53 assert:

- 4 *Sangat bagus karena menceritakan seorang anak yang sangat berbakti untuk menyelamatkan nyawa sang ayah dan menjaga martabat keluarganya.* [It is great because it tells about a child who devoted herself to save her father's life and kept her family's dignity.] (Subject 57)
- 5 *Menurut saya film ini merupakan film yang sangat bagus, karena film ini menceritakan tentang role model seorang perempuan yang kuat dan juga memberikan contoh yang baik bagi anak-anak muda di seluruh dunia.* [I think this film is very good because it talks about the role model, a woman who is strong and gives a good example for the youth in the world.] (Subject 53)

Based on the subjects' responses above, the students seem to have positive attitudes toward the main character, namely Mulan, as well as the story itself in which there are moral values given. Also, such positive attitudes are accompanied by some reasonable grounds and critical arguments which are necessarily required for intercultural communication.

5. DISCUSSION

Based on the aforementioned findings, it was clearly seen that the students' intercultural sensitivity was deemed good, with a mean of 80.06 and a standard deviation of 8.50. Such finding seems in line with the findings obtained from the open-ended question delivered to them. Most students were found to have good impressions of the cultural product and person (Sugianto & Wirza, 2021; Yuen, 2011), the Mulan Live Action movie. They credited the movie with some moral values and viewed Mulan as having good characteristics encompassing bravery, responsibility, being passionate, and caring for her family, particularly her father, who was sick. Again, such findings conform to the findings concerning one of the constructs of the intercultural sensitivity, namely respect of cultural differences in which they were considered to have good respect of cultural differences (indicated by the quantitative data with the mean of 86.08 and standard deviation of 10.99).

The primary school students' personality trait in terms of extroversion was deemed to be good. It was indicated by the mean of 72.62 and the standard deviation of 9.89. This personality type, extroversion, is associated with positive emotions (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2016; Roccas et al., 2002) that are in line with the students' responses concerning the attitudes towards other cultures scrutinized in the open-ended questions. It was found that most of them had positive attitudes, particularly towards the cultural issue about Mulan who took part in war training and in disguise as a man; they mostly perceived positively due to Mulan's intention who did it for the sake of her father and helped her father who was sick. Based on this evidence, it can be indicated that the students were likely in the acceptance stage of intercultural sensitivity, a stage in which others' cultures are appreciated by accepting them as the parts of reality that exists (Greenholtz, 2005).

In addition, the correlational analysis shows a significant relationship between the primary school students' intercultural sensitivity and extroversion at the 99% level

of significance ($.000 < .01$). This finding follows a study conducted by Han and Pistole (2017), who found that extroversion has a relationship with diversity. Besides, Civitci (2020) reports that openness can influence attitudes towards diversity. Hence, it is also related to extroversion; pertaining to Civitci's finding, most of the students in the present study were tolerant and open to the cultural products and person indicated by their positive impressions. Nevertheless, one concern that should be taken into account is, as Nadeem and Haroon (2019) assert, personality traits were found to vary in particular cultures. Thus, understanding other people's cultures become a salient component (Byram et al., 2002), and it should also consider extroversion for one of the central constructs is sociability (Olino et al., 2005). In the EFL learning context, these two variables have a significant impact on the students' learning. For instance, Jialing (2019) contends that personality traits have a significant relationship with the students' learning, and the same thing works for intercultural sensitivity.

Students are challenged with the era in which the opportunities to interact with environments with cultural diversity have registered an increase in value starting from the primary level (Gunay, 2016). Thereby, teachers are expected to introduce cultures and integrate them into their instructional practices. These can be conducted using a number of ways, for instance, either explicitly using text containing cultural values or implicitly utilizing pictures and learning activities (Afifah & Zuchdi, 2019). Also, utilizing technology can be an efficacious alternative for introducing cultures to students. By integrating cultures into their teaching practices, students can be more engaged in the learning process they experience (Sugianto, 2020). In the case of students' personality issues, collaboration with parents can be valuable to know the students' personalities and matters they face (Sugianto & Ulfah, 2020). By conducting these, any supportive atmosphere leading to students' learning outcomes is expected to be feasible (Ahmadi et al., 2015; Aybas, 1997; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Hakim, 2015; Hashim et al., 2014; Zafar et al., 2017; Piri et al., 2018; Zafarghandi et al., 2016); thus, academic and social involvement and integration are yearned in the classroom (Tinto, 1997).

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings mentioned above, the present study reaches some conclusions. First, the EFL primary school students' intercultural sensitivity indicated by the mean of 80.06 and standard deviation of 8.50 was deemed good; albeit for a certain extent, based on the qualitative data, few students were found to be in the ethnocentrism stage. Second, most of the primary school students' personality was deemed to have good extroversion, indicated by the mean of 72.62 and the standard deviation of 9.89. Third, a significant relationship was found between the students' intercultural sensitivity and their extroversion indicated by the p-value of Spearman's rho that was lower than 99% confidence level ($.000 < .01$), meaning that the more students extroverted, the higher their intercultural sensitivity would be. Such findings result in pedagogical implications that English teachers should take into account. Firstly, integrating cultures into teaching practices is advocated, and these can be conducted with several fashions, either implicitly or explicitly. Secondly, teachers are required to consider the affective issue in the classroom, particularly by construing their students' personality types. Such construal of the students' personality types can

be used to foster the rapport between teachers and students as well as generate students' academic outcomes due to the supporting atmosphere that suits the students' characteristics.

Furthermore, the present study had some constraints that future researchers can follow up, namely, scrutiny involving intercultural sensitivity with respect to the other personality traits. Besides, the use of other instruments such as classroom observation is advocated to gain in-depth data concerning the way they behave, perceive, or think about other cultures.

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Keywords: Multimodal texts, narrative writing, print-based, semiotic resources.

1. INTRODUCTION

The English language is fundamental for students to access information and technology especially in this age of global competitiveness. Within the Malaysian context, students need to equip themselves with the essential skills of communication, creativity, critical thinking, and problem solving in order to keep up with the growing global economy.

Writing, next to listening, speaking, and reading skills, is an important skill to master as it enables students to communicate and clarify their thoughts and ideas in words. For low proficiency students, writing is not only a meaningless task but also a seemingly insurmountable task. They often grapple with putting down something on paper. Therefore, it is not surprising that the product of such an effort is often full of errors, stereotyped and unimaginative. Malaysian students generally perform unsatisfactorily in the writing section of English language examinations as they have a poor command of the language (Azman, 2016). Hence, students might find writing a difficult skill to acquire because of poor writing skills such as generating and organizing ideas, translating ideas into a clear and comprehensible text, and selecting proper words/vocabulary (Fhonna, 2014; Richards & Renandya, 2006). Therefore, teachers could adopt and adapt a variety of appropriate teaching strategies to improve students' writing in English (Chan et al., 2003; Foo, 2007).

One way to improve students' writing skills is to introduce multimodal texts in the English Language (EL, hereafter) classroom. Multimodal texts are print-based and digital texts. However, this study focuses on print-based multimodal texts. Print-based multimodal texts utilize more than one mode of semiotic resource to represent meaning potentials (Serafini, 2015). Text encapsulates semiotic resources such as written language, still images, colours, spatial design, and so forth that are significant in its production. Print-based multimodal texts include among others graphic novels, comics, newspapers, magazines, brochures, and posters. As pedagogical tools, they offer a creative outlet for students to communicate their thoughts in writing.

A picture is a multimodal text as it instantiates the co-deployment of the visual and the spatial resources that function together and support each other in the production of the coherent whole. Conversely, poetry, like other literary genres, not only serves as a model of language but also acts as a platform for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Illustrated poems as multimodal texts merge both literature and visual art together in the construction of the total composition.

The meanings embedded within these semiotic resources in both these multimodal texts help students generate ideas for narrative writing. According to Guijarro and Sanz (2009), images may simply illustrate the written story or can be used to tell different aspects of the story, even contradicting the written words. Based on Guijarro and Sanz's (2009) assertion, it is evident that semiotic resources such as images and words allow students to come up with multiple interpretations of multimodal texts. It is the interpretation and information provided by the semiotic resources that help students to come up with ideas for their narratives. Therefore, these multimodal texts provide students with the opportunity to indulge in writing which is

original and individual in character. Furthermore, it encourages multimodal literacy and visual literacy in the EL classroom.

The purpose of this study is to provide insights on the effectiveness of print-based multimodal texts in generating ideas for narrative writing and to discover if the texts enable Form Four (tenth grade) students to write narratives in an EL classroom. Therefore, the objective of the study is to explore how multimodal print-based texts could be utilized as tools to generate ideas for narrative writing and to find out how these materials enable students to write narratives. In line with its objectives, this study is guided by the following research questions:

1. Are print-based multimodal texts effective in generating ideas for narrative writing?
2. How do print-based multimodal texts enable students to write narrative texts?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Common European Framework of References (CEFR)

The [Malaysian Education Blueprint \(MEB\) 2013-2025 \(2013\)](#) stipulates that every student should be independently proficient in the English language as defined by the Common European Framework of References (CEFR, hereafter) for languages. The CEFR formulated in 2001 has been adopted as an international framework by many countries for language teaching, learning and assessment. This framework describes in detail what language learners need to achieve in order to communicate using a language. The framework constitutes six levels of descriptors and they are utilized to classify learners' ability to use a language. Language users are categorised into three primary clusters. They are Proficient users (levels C1 & C2), Independent users (levels B1 & B2), and Basic users (levels A1 & A2). The 'can do' statements refer to what the language learners are able to do and these detailed descriptors encompass all four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

It is hoped that the respondents of this study would be able to achieve the subject objectives of the CEFR Assessment Format for *Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia* (SPM or Malaysian Certificate of Education). These objectives include:

- respond to, analyse and evaluate a variety of literary text types;
- communicate with appropriate language, form, and style in a variety of contexts.

2.2 Multimodality

Multimodality is an inter-disciplinary approach where a variety of semiotic resources integrate to convey meanings. [Brandt \(2004\)](#) refers to multimodality as the combination of several semiotic resources within a socio-cultural domain that contributes to a semiotic product. [Gibbons \(2012\)](#) opines that multimodality enables readers to be engaged actively with the text and to construct meaning from a variety of visual and semiotic clues.

Print-based multimodal texts provide students with opportunities to read, view, and interpret images and written text. As they analyse these visual and verbal modes, they will understand how these modes are pertinent in the construction of meanings. Pictures are an amalgamation of various semiotic resources such as images, colours, and space. The interplay of these resources produces a coherent whole on the page.

Similarly, illustrated poems embrace multimodality as they combine various semiotic resources to create meanings that are coherent on the page. The multimodal approach to pictures and illustrated poems provide the opportunity for the development of various literacy skills. Blake (2009) postulates that the multimodal approach helps teachers to develop creative and critical thinking in students. Husarova (2012) in her study on creative writing reported that a multimodal approach to writing encouraged creativity and sensory learning among students. Therefore, it is hoped that the uniqueness of print-based multimodal texts enables students to apply their imagination, creativity, and critical thinking to generate ideas for narrative writing.

According to Rajendra (2015), although the multimodal approach has been carried out in Malaysian classrooms with digital texts, traditional print-based multimodal texts should be encouraged. This is because traditional print-based multimodal texts are readily available and can be made as photocopyable materials for students. Moreover, despite the advancement in technology, studies indicate that teachers have not adequately integrated information and communication technologies into the teaching of reading and writing (Hutchison & Reinking, 2011; Yamaç & Öztürk, 2018). Therefore, this might pose a problem to students when their teachers are not digitally literate to use digital texts in the classroom.

The multimodality of pictures and illustrated poems encourages students to think outside the box by discovering the visual, linguistic, and spatial elements in the texts. This, in turn, allows them to come up with ideas for their narrative essays. For example, the introduction part in a student's essay is considered the orientation stage in a narrative. Here, the student can utilize the visual and linguistic elements from the illustrated poem to come up with the characters and the setting of his/her story.

2.3 Local Studies on Writing and Multimodal Approach

Writing has always been considered a difficult skill to master, especially writing in English (Waters & Waters, 1995). According to Lim and Wong (2015), ESL or EFL students often grapple with structural issues in writing which include generating ideas and developing ideas on specific topics, proper word selection, and correct grammar usage.

Many studies have been carried out locally on students' writing skills. A study by Darus and Subramaniam (2009) on a group of high school students in a semi-urban secondary school in Malaysia revealed that the students mainly faced difficulties in applying correct grammatical rules in their writings. Their findings also showed that students had problems in constructing simple and complex sentences. Similarly, Maros et al. (2007) examined errors made by students in six rural schools and concluded that the students often encounter issues in utilising correct English grammar in their writings. Other studies suggested students from low socio-economy backgrounds or rural areas faced difficulties in their writing tasks as they were of low English proficiency level, utilized fewer writing strategies, hardly conversed in English, and had limited access to English speaking environment (Ler, 2012; Sovakandan et al., 2018).

Jalaluddin et al.'s (2011) study on the effects of teacher's assistance in developing rural students' writing skills revealed that students' vocabulary improved when teachers utilized an interactive approach as opposed to the process approach. Teachers' feedback in the form of questioning and providing comments is important

if successful writing is to take place in the EL classroom. These studies clearly indicate that Malaysian students often face challenges in writing tasks. Idea generation, language (grammar), and vocabulary need to be addressed if one is expected to write skilfully.

On the other hand, studies are advocating the efficacy of multimodal approaches in the Malaysian classroom (Kaur & Sidhu, 2007; Pillai & Vengadasamy, 2010). Ganapathy and Seetharam (2016) examined the effectiveness of ESL teaching and learning using multimodal approaches on literacy in meaning-making among 15 students in a private school in Penang, Malaysia. They reported that the integration of multimodal approaches had the potential to promote autonomous learning and facilitate various learning styles.

However, the studies that employ the multimodal approach in the Malaysian classrooms (Madarina et al., 2020; Nallaya, 2010; Puteh-Behak & Ismail, 2018) seem to be preoccupied with digital texts such as online articles/news, podcasts, weblogs, and social media. Though this development is highly encouraged, traditional print-based multimodal texts should also be advocated as not all digital texts can meet students' needs.

The studies above clearly denote that although much has been written in relation to writing and multimodal approach, literature on print-based multimodal texts and narrative writing is scarce. Therefore, there is a need for an insightful study in this area as an effort to contribute to the knowledge on narrative writing utilizing print-based multimodal texts in educational contexts. Therefore, this study focuses on the effectiveness of print-based multimodal texts in generating ideas for narrative writing and how these materials help students to develop and write narratives.

2.4 The Narrative Text

A narrative text tells a story with a beginning, a middle, and an end. It often conveys to the reader what happened, how it happened, and why that particular event was meaningful and relevant. Purba (2018) opines that the narrative is the most common type of writing as the writer tells his/her story without any purpose, hence making narrative writing popular among students.

The narrative structure is important in order to grab the reader's attention and keep him/her engaged. According to Droga and Humphrey (2003), a narrative text structure encompasses an orientation, a complication, and a resolution. They state that the orientation of a story encapsulates information about the characters, setting, time, and place. Complication refers to a problem faced by the main character or other characters in the story. Resolution refers to how the problem is resolved, hence bringing the story to a close. In sum, the narrative structure is pertinent as it presents the order in which a narrative text is communicated to the reader.

2.5 Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking

The National Assessment Program, Literacy, and Numeracy or NAPLAN (2010) which is based on the Australian Education Curriculum is adapted to evaluate the students' narrative essays. NAPLAN is administered annually through a series of tests to Australian students. These standardised tests focus and assess students' basic skills

that encapsulate reading, writing, numeracy, and language conventions (spelling, grammar, and punctuation).

NAPLAN's Writing-Narrative Marking Guide is chosen as it encompasses the important elements of a narrative. The ten criteria assessed are the audience, text structure, ideas, character and setting, vocabulary, cohesion, paragraphs, sentence structure, punctuation, and spelling. However, this study only concentrates on the criteria of text structure, ideas, character, and setting, and vocabulary as the focus is on the effectiveness of print-based multimodal texts in generating ideas and how the texts enable students to write narratives. NAPLAN's Writing-Narrative Marking Guide would guide the researcher to discover students' ability to organize their narratives, generate ideas, explore characters and settings, and also use good vocabulary to make their narratives vivid and descriptive. By exploring and unpacking the illustrated poems, students are able to get an idea of what to write, thus expanding on the plot of their narrative essays. Semiotic resources would help to form the orientation, complication, and resolution in the narratives. Paragraphs, punctuation, and coherence are generally assessed and subsumed under text structure. The criteria of audience and spelling are omitted as they are considered not relevant to this study.

Table 1. The analytical rubric for narrative marking (adapted from [NAPLAN Writing Narrative Marking Guide, 2010, p. 4](#)).

Criteria	Descriptor	Score range
Text structure	- The sequence or organisation of events in a narrative that comprises of an introduction, complication, and resolution that contributes to an effective text structure	0-4
Ideas	- The selection, creation, and crafting of ideas for a narrative	0-5
Character and setting	- The portrayal, description, and development of a character/characters physical and personal traits, point of view, thoughts, and actions - Setting establishes the time, place, and environment and serves as the backdrop for the character's actions	0-4
Vocabulary	- The range and precision of language choices that encapsulate imagery and figurative language as well as content and grammatical words - Imagery refers to descriptive words that evoke one or more of the six senses- sight, touch, sound, smell, taste, and movement - Figurative language says one thing in terms of something else. Examples are simile, metaphor, and personification - Content words describe objects and concepts and encompass nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, and etcetera - Grammatical word classes refer to prepositions, articles, conjunctions, pronouns, and interjection	0-5

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Samples

The research sample of this study comprised five Form Four (Year 10 or tenth grade) students from a suburban secondary school in Selangor, Malaysia. There were nine Form Four classes in this particular school. However, the students' attendance

was not encouraging due to the Covid-19 pandemic as most parents preferred not to send their children to school. The five students were from one class and they were selected from 20 students based on purposive sampling. Creswell (2012) defines purposive sampling as a form of non-random sampling. The students were of B2 (Upper Intermediate) and C1 (Advanced) levels of the Common European Framework of References (CEFR) level of language proficiency. Although these students could be considered as good students, their grades were not consistent as their results often fell between a B2 and a C1. The researcher limited the number of respondents in the study as it would have been time-consuming to involve an entire class. The selected students attended school regularly and were committed to their work. They also came from different economic and social backgrounds, and the English language was not their mother tongue. The students' names were coded throughout the paper with Student 1, Student 2, and so forth.

3.2 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

This study employed a qualitative approach in research design as the nature of the analysis was to analyse the content of the respondents' narratives to see if they adhere to NAPLAN Narrative Marking Guide. A written test in the form of a pre-test and a writing assignment was utilized as instruments for the study. Diary notes were used to support the findings from both the pre-test and writing assignments. The topics for the pre-test and writing assignment were the same but with different instructional materials. Therefore, the instructional materials were a pond-based picture-stimulus and an illustrated poem 'Pond'. However, both these texts employed different semiotic resources to communicate meaning. The picture-stimulus had a combination of images, colours, and spatial design to construct meaning. Conversely, the illustrated poem employed the semiotic resources of images, written language, typography, colours, and space. The utilization of the illustrated poem for the writing assignment was pertinent as it employed semiotic resources such as written language and typography which could contribute to idea generation that indirectly affects meaning-making and the overall telling of the story. The instruments and the procedures are discussed in the next sub-sections.

3.2.1 Pre-test

The pre-test was carried out to gauge the students' narrative writing ability and to identify what the students already knew about narrative writing. It was also conducted in order to compare the pre-test written scripts with the assignment written scripts which the students were to produce later. All five respondents were asked to write a narrative essay based on the title 'Pond'. The narrative should be based on the picture-stimulus as depicted in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Pond (source: [Pond Maintenance, 2018](#))

The multimodal picture-stimulus ‘Pond’ was selected as it aligned with the topic ‘Mother Nature’ which was one of the topics in the prescribed Form 4 English Curriculum set by the [Malaysian Ministry of Education \(2013\)](#).

The respondents were required to write for 40 minutes within a minimum of 250 words. As this was a pre-test, no pre-writing activities were involved. However, instructions were given on what they were supposed to do. Therefore, they wrote based on their own understanding of the picture-stimulus to write an error-free narrative essay. The respondents’ narratives were read and graded according to the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking (Table 1).

3.2.2 Writing assignment

The writing assignment was carried out over two lessons to see if the respondents showed any improvement in generating ideas for their narratives after the first lesson. The objective was to see if the utilisation of the illustrated poem ‘Pond’ had a significant effect on students’ generation of ideas and also to see if they were able to write narratives.

The illustrated poem, ‘Pond’ (Figure 2) was written by Joan Bransfield Graham with the illustration by Steve Scott ([Graham & Scott, 1994](#)). It is a suitable print-based multimodal text that fulfils the Form Four English Syllabus and promotes interdisciplinary education in the classroom. [Mathison and Freeman \(1997\)](#) posit that the integration of two or more disciplines (in this case, language, literature and arts), increases understanding, retention, and application of general concepts in students.



Figure 2. 'Pond' (from 'Splish Splash' by Graham & Scott, 1994).

3.2.3 Writing assignment procedure

a. Lesson 1

During the first lesson (70 minutes), clear instructions on the purpose of the lesson and the writing task were given to the students. The teacher/researcher introduced a few illustrated poems to expose the respondents to a variety of semiotic resources. She also encouraged the respondents to discuss or give comments about the poems.

The respondents then discussed the poem 'Pond' with the teacher/researcher based on a set of open-ended questions. The questions were asked to address the respondents' understanding of the poem and to generate ideas for their narrative. According to Creswell (2009), a qualitative design employs open-ended questions so that the respondents can express their views. They brainstormed about the poem and its images and exchanged their thoughts and ideas about it. She also encouraged the respondents to think about a plot (an outline) for a story that centred around a 'Pond'. The teacher/researcher also discussed the elements of a narrative and the marking criteria with them. This enabled them to get an idea of what and how they were supposed to write so that they would not repeat their pre-test 'mistakes' here.

b. Lesson 2

During the second lesson (70 minutes), the teacher/researcher recapped the first lesson and asked the respondents to write a narrative essay (40 minutes) within 250 words based on their own interpretation of how they viewed and comprehended the poem 'Pond'. The respondents' narratives were then marked and graded based on the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking.

3.2.4 Diary notes

In addition to pre-test and written assignments, the teacher/researcher also kept diary notes to record everything that happened during the teaching and learning

process. These entries included observation, reflection, and evaluation of the respondents' performance during the pre-test and writing assignment lessons.

3.3 Data Analysis of Written Scripts and Diary Notes

The data elicited from both the written scripts (pre-test and written assignment) are interpreted and discussed to provide an in-depth description of the data. Extracts from the respondents' scripts are inserted in the discussion to strengthen the analysis. This approach provides valuable insights into how the respondents generate ideas and how they write narratives. Data from the diary notes are analysed where the excerpts are included in the discussion. The analysis of the diary notes is pertinent to identifying how the respondents come up with ideas for their narratives. Triangulation allows the researchers to verify the results within the same phenomenon with different methods, thus improving the internal and external validity of the study (Bentahar & Cameron, 2015).

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Findings of the Pre-Test

Based on the data from the pre-test, it can be concluded that not all the five respondents wrote narrative essays. Three respondents wrote factual essays and only two respondents wrote narrative essays. This is illustrated in Figure 3.

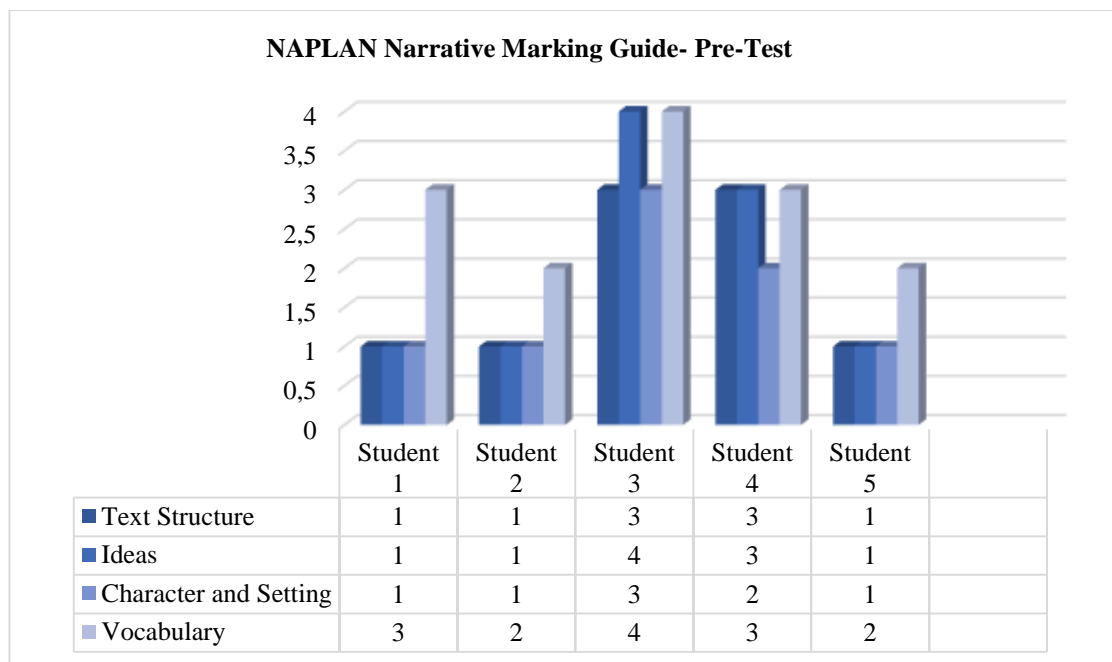


Figure 3. Pre-test - NAPLAN narrative marking guide.

The data analysis for the pre-test (Figure 3) clearly indicates that three written transcripts did not fully adhere to the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking. The scripts comprised factual information, and they did not conform to the criteria of text

structure, ideas, character, and setting. It was interesting to know that although the respondents were of the intermediate-advanced levels, they were unable to differentiate the basic types of text. This clearly indicates that necessary input should be given by the teacher prior to conducting any lessons even if it requires him/her to repeat the lesson. However, all the five respondents did adhere to the criterion of vocabulary as indicated in Figure 3.

4.1.1 Facts presented by respondents as regard to the picture-stimulus of 'Pond'

The examples of facts based on the picture-stimulus are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Pre-test - factual information in respondents' written transcripts.

Number	Name	Facts
1	Student 1	Plants such as lilies are floating on the pond. (physical appearance)
2	Student 2	A pond provides animals with food, shelter, and oxygen. (benefit)
3	Student 5	A pond is an area filled with water that is smaller than a lake. (definition)

Based on Table 2, it is evident that the three respondents gave clear and concise information about a pond. The information provided encompassed the definition of a pond, its physical appearance, and its benefits.

Conversely, two other respondents (Student 3 and Student 4) wrote narrative essays and they adhered to the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking. This is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Pre-test - narrative elements in respondents' written transcripts.

Number	Name	Narrative (Story)
1	Student 3	The crystal-clear water and the green forest bring calmness to Luke. (text structure-orientation, ideas, character, and setting, vocabulary)
2	Student 4	The fiery ball in the sky prevented Shane from swimming. (text structure-complication, ideas, character, and setting, vocabulary)

In Table 3, for example, the line 'The crystal-clear water and the green forest bring calmness to Luke' (Student 3) distinctly depicts the orientation in the story. Phrases such as 'crystal-clear water' and 'green forest' are ideas brought about by the image of the pond and the cattail plants. The colour blue lends itself to 'crystal-clear water' and the feeling of 'calmness'. This line also introduces the character (Luke) and the setting of the story (green forest). Vocabulary is strengthened through phrases and words such as 'crystal-clear water' and 'calmness'.

As presented in Table 4, it is evident that content and grammatical words were prevalent in all five written transcripts. In addition, sensory information was mostly communicated through the sense of sight, sound, movement, and touch. For example, the line 'Ducks and insects like dragonflies live above the water' ... clearly denotes the content words 'ducks, insects, dragonflies' and 'water' and also grammatical words such as 'and, above' and 'the'. In addition, this line evokes the sense of sight and movement where the reader can visualise ducks and dragonflies moving above the water. In conclusion, the pre-test written scripts reveal that 60% of the respondents wrote factual essays instead of narrative essays.

Table 4. Pre-test- utilization of vocabulary in respondents’ written transcripts.

Number	Name	(Content/Grammatical Words and Imagery)
1	Student 1	‘Ducks and insects like dragonflies live above the water’. (content and grammatical words, imagery -sight, movement)
2	Student 2	“... green trees, colourful flowers, and a beautiful Pond” (content and grammatical words, imagery -sight)
3	Student 3	‘Then, he relaxed and started to play with the cold water’. (content and grammatical words, imagery -sight, touch)
4	Student 4	‘The pond looked peaceful but it was full of buzzing insects and creeping crawlies’. (content and grammatical words, imagery-sight, sound, movement)
5	Student 5	‘Croaks of frogs and chirping of birds are heard near a pond’. (content and grammatical words, imagery -sound)

4.2 Findings of Written Assignment (Based on the Illustrated Poem ‘Pond’)

The findings of the written assignment revealed that all five respondents were able to generate ideas for their narrative writing. They also had adhered to the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking. This is indicated in Figure 4.

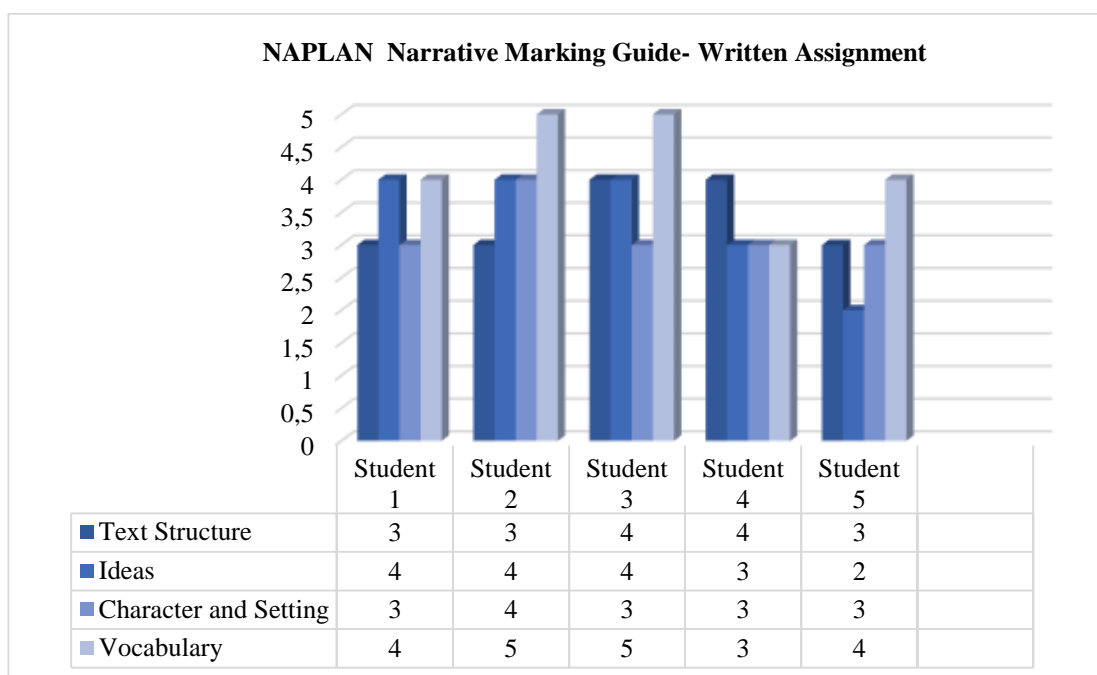


Figure 4. Written assignment - NAPLAN narrative marking guide.

Based on Figure 4, it is clear that the respondents were able to interpret the multimodal print-based illustrated poem ‘Pond’. They came up with possible plots for their narratives utilising the semiotic resources and their narratives fulfilled the criteria of text structure, ideas, character and setting, and vocabulary. This is illustrated in detail below.

4.2.1 Text structure

The composite nature of illustrated poems enabled the respondents to write coherent and complete narratives that comprised an introduction, complication, and

resolution. It was interesting to note that all five respondents interpreted the illustrated poem differently and this was evident in the plots of their narratives. Signal words such as ‘soon after’, ‘however’, ‘when’ and ‘during’ helped to tie the ideas together. This contributed to an effective text structure with clear endings. For example:

- (1) The pond looked inviting during summer. The upright cattail plants reminded me of standing meerkats. (Student 1) (orientation)

In the sentences above, Student 1 has employed the image (pond) and the word ‘summer’ to describe the setting of the story. She also compared the images of cattails plants to standing meerkats which added realism to the orientation of the story. This clearly indicates that images and words contribute to the overall telling of the story but they do so in different ways

- (2) Soon after, it started attacking us. (Student 4) (complication)

Student 4 has created complications in his narrative essay by introducing the Yeti, a fictional and monstrous creature as the antagonist in his story. Student 4 employed the semiotic resources of image, words, typography, and colour to capture the terrifying moments where the creature appears unexpectedly

- (3) However, the frozen icy water reminded me that the pond was God’s blessing. (Student 5) (resolution)

Student 5 utilizes the image (pond) and the word ‘winter’ to create the impression of God’s gifts to mankind, thus bringing the story to an end.

4.2.2 *Ideas*

The findings demonstrated that the illustrated poem ‘Pond’ provided the opportunity for the respondents to create original and appropriate pieces as they explored the poem and its images. This significantly improved their narrative writing as they were able to generate ideas based on the discussion, brainstorming, and question-answer sessions. For example, the meaning brought about by the images of cattail plants and the typography of the phrase ‘for jumping into’ provided information about the pond in summer. The phrase ‘for jumping into’ also conveyed a paralinguistic message. Moreover, the image of the figure eight skating movement described the act of skating during winter.

The integration of semiotic resources enabled the respondents to aptly describe the pond and the activities in summer and winter. This, in return, furnished them with possible plot lines that centred around these seasons. The ideas were developed to explore a particular theme which contributed to a coherent and complete story. This is illustrated in the examples below.

- (4) The yellow flame trees exploded with blooms. I feel the summer breeze on my face. I am always happy and calm when I am at the pond until that unfortunate day. How can I forget that face? (Student 2)

Here, Student 2 utilized the word ‘summer’ to depict the setting and the mood of the story. He constructed the nature of events around summer. First, he described

summer in all its galore and then added a twist at the end of the story. Therefore, his story was not all about the beauty of summer but incorporated the element of suspense. The use of the inner voice ‘How can I forget that face?’ gives a hint to the reader of what is to come or what happens later in the story. As the story develops, the reader is left to wonder that summer is not as beautiful as it sets out to be.

- (5) Then, we saw IT! The menacing and monstrous Yeti, a mythical monstrous creature believed to be roaming the Himalayas. Soon after, it started attacking us. (Student 4)

Student 4, on the other hand, turned the season of winter into a living nightmare. His story revolved around the snow-capped Himalayas, and as the story progressed, the protagonist had to face his innermost fear. It is evident that Student 4 had used winter as the setting for his grisly story. This demonstrates that Student 4’s perceptions of the characters are influenced by the settings where the characters are placed. Informative and illustrative details such as ‘Yeti, mythical monstrous creature’ and ‘Himalayas’ further supported and developed the story.

- (6) I liked the cold weather and started imagining being a famous figure skater. Oh, I wish I could skate! This weather is not stopping me! I told myself. (Student 5)

Student 5, on the other hand, chose to focus on the activities that were carried out in winter, like figure skating. Her story developed from wanting to become a figure skater to enrolling herself in a skating academy. The incorporation of Student 5’s inner voice ‘Oh, I wish I could skate! This weather is not stopping me!’ reinforces the main idea in the story which is becoming a figure skater.

The examples above denote that the same illustrated poem may trigger different interpretations for different people. The respondents’ creativity and imagination were evident through the choice of plotlines that contributed to well-developed narratives.

4.2.3 Character and setting

The written transcripts revealed the portrayal of the characters through their actions and thoughts. The narratives were written from the first-person point of view where the utilization of the pronouns ‘I’, ‘we’ and ‘our’ were employed to express opinions and to mention what happened around and to the characters as illustrated in the examples below.

- (7) I quickly removed my sandals and jumped into the pond. (Student 1)

- (8) I would be over the moon to experience it again! (Student 5)

The setting was clearly established through selected details to create an appropriate atmosphere according to the storyline. For example:

- (9) I had a great time watching the pond appearing alive with figure skaters... (Student 5)

- (10) I watched the feeble old man picking a bundle of firewood near the gloomy looking pond. (Student 2)

4.2.4 Vocabulary

The language choice which encapsulated the vocabulary was precise and suitable according to the plot of the narratives. During the brainstorming session, the words from the illustrated poem helped generate other words or phrases associated with a pond. Besides, the colours of the fonts and images in the poem helped to build on the vocabulary. For example:

(11) pond – ‘picturesque’, ‘crystal blue water’, ‘majestic’, ‘floating lilies’

(12) jumping – ‘leaps’, ‘dive’, ‘feeding fish’, ‘floating boat’

(13) winter – ‘bone-breaking cold weather’, ‘cold icy’, ‘snowflakes’, ‘powder white’, ‘chilly’

The respondents were exposed to imagery and figurative language (simile, personification) in Form 3 (Year 9 or grade eight), and hence, they were able to use them in their narratives. The prevalence of imagery brought about a multisensory journey to the reader through the use of descriptive words. The dominance of visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, and tactile imagery provided sensory details to the narratives. Phrases such as ‘lined with yellow flame trees’, ‘flapping my arm’, ‘dark blue sky’ and ‘cold icy water over my skin’ distinctly describe experiences that are evoked by senses. Imagery helped to heighten the experience by providing concreteness to the narratives. However, the use of figurative language concentrated mainly on simile and personification. This is illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5. Examples of figurative language in respondents’ narratives.

Figurative language	
Simile	Personification
as quickly as lightning	heart flutter
mad as a hornet	The pond was brimming with pride
as silent as the grave	winter called me outside to play

As shown in the examples in Table 5, the respondents were able to create stories that centred around a pond, the weather, and the seasons: summer and winter. The poem ‘Pond’ offered information in the form of images and words that they could translate into writing. According to [Alvarez Valencia \(2016\)](#), every single element in a multimodal text is designed to contribute to its general meaning, and these elements combine to create a specific message. The semiotic resources in ‘Pond’ contributed to meaning-making and the generation of ideas.

4.3 Findings of Diary Notes

The findings from the diary notes revealed that the respondents showed an understanding of the picture stimulus and the illustrated poem ‘Pond’. However, the interpretation of both these instructional materials differed as shown in the data above. The excerpts in Table 6 present the observation, reflection, and evaluation of the respondents’ performance during the pre-test and written assignment stages.

Based on Table 6, there was a difference in how the respondents carried out their tasks. This was indicated in both the pre-test and written assignment. In the pre-test, the respondents only achieved 60% of the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking as

three of them wrote factual essays. At the beginning of the pre-test, the respondents seem to suffer from ‘writer’s block’ as they did not have anything in mind.

Table 6. Excerpts from diary notes.

	Pre-test	Writing assignment	
		1 st Lesson (Stage 1)	2 nd Lesson (Stage 2)
Observation	i. Respondents - answer as directed based on picture stimulus ii. No clear purpose, they feel their essays are correct	i. Respondents - active in class discussion/ brainstorming session ii. React positively to feedback	i. Recap of the previous lesson - better grasp of content/ good preparation before writing ii. Answer confidently
Reflection	i. Respondents do not know the elements of narrative writing ii. Wrote what they thought was right - facts about pond	i. Effective teaching-learning process took place ii. Utilising multimodal texts with visual/verbal elements gives them more confidence	i. Knowledge in the form of discussion, brainstorming, question /answer session - important in shaping students’ thoughts and ideas ii. Illustrated poem - helps in generating ideas
Evaluation	i. Not all conform to the Rubric of Narrative Marking. ii. 3 students wrote factual essays	i. Showed the knowledge acquired in their sharing of ideas/plotline of stories	i. Adhere to the Rubric for Narrative Marking. ii. Narratives fulfil the criteria

As for the written assignment, the respondents actively took part in class discussion and brainstormed the images in the layout and possible related vocabulary. The brainstorming, discussion, and question-answer sessions helped them to focus their thoughts on illustrated poems in general and on the poem ‘Pond’ specifically. They were encouraged ‘to think beyond the layout’. In other words, they did not simply describe what they saw in the poem but rather speculated about what the semiotic resources in the layout mean.

Therefore, the discussion involved some level of critical thinking. This enabled them to construct personal opinions and develop an understanding of the multimodality of an illustrated poem. The findings also revealed that Lesson 1 successfully ignited the respondents’ imagination and creativity which they could later transfer into their writing of narratives. In Lesson 2, the respondents were able to experience better performance and made significant progress as they adhered to all the elements of narrative writing. In the end, they were able to produce interesting narratives.

5. DISCUSSION

In this section, the answers to the research questions are discussed. The findings for the first question ‘Are print-based multimodal texts effective in generating ideas for narrative writing?’ clearly demonstrate that both the print-based multimodal texts generate ideas but in comparison with picture stimulus, illustrated poems generate ideas more effectively, and it is comparatively better. The multimodality of the

illustrated poem 'Pond' enabled the respondents to generate ideas for their narratives by identifying the semiotic resources and the meaning-making functions of these resources. By doing so, they were able to interpret the poem and come up with possible plots for the narratives. This underpins [Serafini's \(2014\)](#) notion that students would get an idea of what these texts are, how they are organized and produced, and what they could do as they begin to read, understand and experience a variety of texts. Consequently, multimodality provides educators with the opportunity to exploit and explore poetry's communicative potential ([Xerri, 2012](#)).

As for the second research question, 'How do print-based multimodal texts enable students to write narrative texts?', the evolution of the respondents' narrative writing skills could be noticed from the extracts of their written scripts and diary notes entries. The respondents were given the opportunity to navigate through the distinguishing features of an illustrated poem, and they were able to draw on their knowledge to write narratives that fulfilled the criteria of the Analytical Rubric for Narrative Marking. The utilization of picture stimulus to a certain extent encouraged the generation and development of ideas in narrative writing as shown in the extracts from the written scripts. Some of their phrases conveyed paralinguistic messages, and this supports [Bateman's \(2008\)](#) notion that typographical elements function as visuals as they communicate paralinguistic information. Their use of images to describe acts also concurs with [Lewis's \(2001\)](#) view that all pictures have decorative, narrative, and interpretative potential. This buttresses [Crossley et al.'s \(2016\)](#) views that the originality of ideas and the appropriateness of ideas among others are important components in writing. Nevertheless, students have to be guided by teachers to exploit the meaning-making potentials of these print-based multimodal texts.

There were some noteworthy differences in students' written scripts in the writing assignment compared to the pre-test. The respondents were able to write detailed information with longer paragraphs, had better organization skills, utilized sufficient supporting sentences, and had a good understanding of tenses in their written assignment. In short, the respondents produced better narrative essays for their writing assignment compared to the pre-test.

Interestingly, this study also revealed that it is important to take equal consideration of the visual component of meaning-making in multimodal texts next to the verbal component of meaning. This is because when students started exploring meanings in these texts, they might be aware that meaning-making goes beyond the decoding of words/written language.

Feedback and comments given during the brainstorming, discussion, and question-answer sessions are fundamental in improving the quality of writing. This clearly proves that teachers should encourage and motivate students despite having differences in opinions and ideas. The study's findings are also consistent with [Purba \(2018\)](#) who suggests that students should be provided with enough language and information in order for them to write successfully. According to [Wiggins \(2012\)](#), a successful teacher's feedback provides a student with a better understanding to become a proficient writer.

The findings of the study also suggested that the respondents were able to achieve the subject objectives of the CEFR Assessment Format for SPM. They were able to respond, and analyse the print-based multimodal texts and communicate their thoughts and ideas in writing by using appropriate language, form, and style.

Therefore, they realized the ‘can do’ statement as stated in the CEFR Assessment Format and achieved the maximum of a C1 level.

The utilization of print-based multimodal texts promotes multimodal and visual literacy as students read and unpack the semiotic resources that combine to create meaning within these texts. By doing so, they creatively come up with their own style of writing narratives. Goldstein (2016) posits that nowadays learners have greater access to visual materials but they are not fully aware of their use in an academic context. The illustrated poem ‘Pond’ encouraged interdisciplinary learning among the respondents as they applied their knowledge from the fields of language, literature, art, and geography to their writing.

Nevertheless, providing students with multimodal texts without proper instruction might lead to misinterpretation of the question as in the case of the pre-test in this study. Students need proper instruction, discussion, and preparation about the subject matter before they start writing. Importantly, this study proves that any texts that are accompanied by verbal, visual, or spatial modes contribute to idea generation and writing of narratives successfully.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that print-based multimodal texts helped to generate ideas for narrative writing, and the respondents were able to write interesting narratives. Therefore, these multimodal texts offer students the opportunity to experience and understand how different semiotic resources integrate to construct meaning. Nevertheless, it must be noted that this is not a study that aims to generalize the findings for good practices in narrative writing. Each student is endowed with different learning styles, creativity, and interest, and teachers need to adopt and adapt different teaching strategies according to their students’ proficiency levels.

The effectiveness of using multimodal texts in the EL classroom indicates that teachers need to diversify their teaching materials that encapsulate both monomodal and multimodal texts. Therefore, they need to rethink and revamp their pedagogical approaches to suit the current changes in literacy practices as the combination of visual and written text is becoming a norm in today’s educational landscape.

Future studies should include more participants which include students from urban, suburban, and rural areas in Malaysia. Moreover, similar studies should be carried out on a larger sample size with different levels of proficiency in English. By doing so, researchers may obtain insightful findings and gain a better understanding of using print-based multimodal texts in narrative writing. Furthermore, this study may be replicated using other print-based multimodal texts such as comics, drawings, and print advertisements.

The study’s limitations were unavoidable as it was carried out in a short span of time due to the Covid-19 pandemic. Face-to-face school sessions were carried out for a few months only. During this duration, students’ attendance was largely poor. Therefore, the sample of the participants was restricted to only one class. In conclusion, print-based multimodal texts help students generate ideas for narrative writing and enable them to write interesting narratives. Teachers should consider them to promote meaningful and effective learning in the writing classroom.

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Indonesian EFL Students' Perceptions of Effective Non-Native English Teachers

Ummi Zurrahmi*
Anita Triastuti

Graduate School of English Language Education, Faculty of Languages and Arts,
Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta 55281, INDONESIA

Abstract

Effective non-native English teachers (NNETs) are essential to facilitate students to develop their English mastery. However, while students are directly affected by teachers' instructions, they have been limitedly involved in teacher education and development research. The current study aims to explore the qualities of effective non-native English teachers (NNETs) from students' perspectives in Tanjungpinang, Indonesia. This study was mixed-method research specifically an explanatory sequential design. In the quantitative phase, 380 students were selected using cluster sampling techniques. Meanwhile, in the qualitative phase, six students were purposely selected based on their English proficiency levels and gender. The instruments used were a questionnaire adapted from Park and Lee (2006) and an interview guide. To analyze the questionnaire data, descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were employed. MANOVA test was run to seek significant differences by students' gender and English proficiency levels. Meanwhile, the qualitative data were coded to identify the emerging patterns. The results show that the qualities concerning teachers' socio-affective skills gained the highest mean scores compared to those concerning teachers' subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills. This study also confirms that there was a significant difference among students in perceiving effective NNETs by English proficiency levels. This study is expected to help various stakeholders to improve pre- and in-service EFL teacher education and development in Indonesia.

* Corresponding author, email: ummizurrahmi95@gmail.com

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1. INTRODUCTION

Many English foreign language (EFL) students are taught by non-native English teachers (NNETs). Effective NNETs are essential to facilitate students to develop English mastery, particularly in this globalization era where English plays an important role as an international language. Nowadays, students are expected to meet world-class standards, compete globally, and succeed in coping with future challenges in the workplace and life (Malik, 2018). To do so, students need to be able to use English as a means of communication which is useful to expand their knowledge and catch up with the development of science and technology. Therefore, NNETs play an important role as a force that highly influences students' language learning (Usman et al., 2016). Hence, NNETs teachers have the responsibility to effectively prepare students to master English. With this in mind, investigating the characteristics of effective NNETs is an essential issue in the field of second/foreign language teachers' education and development.

Studies on effective NNETs have largely taken into accounts the voices of various stakeholders, such as teachers, schools, and administration staff (Bell, 2005; Brosh, 1996; Hidayat, 2017; Karim, 2021; Kwangsawad, 2017; Park & Lee, 2006; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009). However, little is known about effective NNETs as represented in students' voices (Barnes & Lock, 2010, 2013; Çelik et al., 2013; Khaerati, 2016; Mudra, 2018; Said, 2017). It is in line with Tarone and Allwright (2005), as well as Tsui (2011), who claim that research on English teachers has made little reference to students, and if existed, students' voices have largely remained silent. It is problematic because, in fact, students act as the party who is directly affected by the instructions managed by the teachers. Therefore, students' perceptions are worth considering, particularly since the ultimate purpose of teachers is to enhance the quality of their student learning. Moreover, considering the students as the subject of learning mandated on the law No. 20 Year 2003 (Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2003), it is important to explore students' perceptions of effective NNETs.

This study is a conceptual replication (Mackey & Gass, 2005) of Park and Lee's (2006) study. This study is "conceptually" true to the original study and carefully considers the theoretical claims of the original research (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 22). Therefore, this study adapted the questionnaire and the framework of teacher dimension in order to collect and analyze the data. Replication studies have been argued to be conducted in social science research as it aims to establish and confirm the outcomes of research, including in second/foreign language teaching and learning research (Brown, 2011; Language Teaching Review Panel, 2008). A conceptual replication study of Park and Lee's (2006) is considered significant to be conducted in the Indonesian context, particularly in Tanjungpinang because the conceptions among people toward effective NNETs are different depending on the levels of schooling, curriculum, gender, major area, and background (Barnes & Lock, 2010, 2013; Brosh, 1996; Kwangsawad, 2017; Mudra, 2018; Park & Lee, 2006; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009). Therefore, the purpose of conducting this conceptual replication study is to prove whether the findings in Park and Lee's (2006) study can be extended to a

different setting and to a different group of participants (Mackey & Gass, 2005), which in this case is the Indonesian context. The differences between this study and that of Park and Lee (2006) are that this study focused on the perspectives of the participating students from Indonesia (i.e., Tanjungpinang) and employed a mixed-method approach to provide a complete understanding of the following research problems:

1. How do public senior high school students perceive effective NNETs?
2. Is there any significant difference between public senior high school students by their gender in perceiving effective NNETs?
3. Is there any significant difference among public senior high school students by their English proficiency level in perceiving effective NNETs?

This study is significant to the body of knowledge on teacher education and development in EFL school contexts. This study is expected to inform NNETs about the students' needs in the EFL classroom, which perhaps could help to improve EFL teaching practices, especially in the Indonesian context.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Conceptions of Effective NNETs

'Effective teachers' is one of the terms used by people when referring to required and desired teachers. People may say 'good' (Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2007), 'outstanding' (Faranda & Clarke, 2004), 'professional' (Amin, 2015), or 'best' (Liando, 2010) teachers. However, within the context of this study, the word used is 'effective'. Walker (2020) defines effective teachers as teachers who are successful in helping students to learn. In this study, the concept of effective NNETs is in agreement with Walker's (2020) definition, which is to put less emphasis on marks or grades to judge the students' learning outcomes.

2.2 Dimensions of a Teacher

Within the context of this study, the characteristics of effective NNETs focus on three major dimensions that have a direct impact on the students' learning outcomes from the students' perspectives; they are subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and socio-affective skills (Park & Lee, 2006).

Vélez- Rendón (2002) defines subject matter knowledge as what teachers know about what they teach. Additionally, to describe what teachers need to know regarding their subject matter, Lafayette (1993), as cited in Vélez- Rendón (2002), points out the three components of language teachers' subject matter knowledge, which comprises language proficiency, civilization and culture, and language analysis. Within the subject matter knowledge dimension, the qualities of effective NNETs were explored in accordance to teachers' language proficiency, knowledge about civilization and culture (Vélez- Rendón, 2002), knowledge about language system, materials, and resources, classroom equipment, and up-to-datedness/insightful (Harmer, 2007). Added to these, pedagogical knowledge refers to what teachers know about teaching their subjects (Vélez- Rendón, 2002). Pedagogical knowledge alludes to second/foreign language acquisition theories, teaching methods, and testing (Vélez- Rendón, 2002). In this study, within the pedagogical skill dimension, the

qualities of an effective English teacher were explored in accordance with the teacher's lessons preparation, delivery, methods and strategies, classroom management, and assessment.

Finally, the term socio-affective skills refer to the emotional side of human behavior (Brown, 2007) or social and emotional behaviors (Stronge, 2018). This present study intended to investigate the characteristics of effective NNETs within the socio-affective category in accordance with teachers' physical appearance, social capacity, cultural qualities, and psychological makeup (Penner, 1992, cited in Brosh, 1996).

2.3 The Standard of Professional Teacher Competences in Indonesia

In the Indonesian context, teachers are expected to have certain competences. The act of Republic Indonesian no. 14/2005 requires teachers to have four competencies, including pedagogical, professional, social, and personal competence (President of Republic of Indonesia, 2005). In the Ministry of National Education and Culture (MNEC) regulation (Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2007), the elaboration of the teacher competence standards is presented. The elaboration of the competence standard was developed integrally from the four main competencies. Professional competence has additional competences that are specific to each subject. In the English subject, teachers should know the English language as a system and as a means of communication and master English both in spoken and written forms. Since the aforementioned act and regulation are mainly aimed at teachers in general, the results of this study could reveal particular characteristics of effective NNETs in the Indonesian context from students' perspectives.

2.4 Relevant Studies

Several studies investigated the characteristics of effective teachers both inside and outside the domain of the English language education (Barnes & Lock, 2010, 2013; Bell, 2005; Brosh, 1996; Çelik et al., 2013; Khaerati, 2016; Mudra, 2018; Park & Lee, 2006; Schulte et al., 2008; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009; Walls et al., 2002; Witcher & Onwuegbuzie, 1999). In general, these studies revealed some of the most important characteristics of effective teachers such as 'friendly' (Schulte et al., 2008; Walls et al., 2002), 'motivating' (Schulte et al., 2008; Witcher & Onwuegbuzie, 1999), 'building good relationships with students' (Khaerati, 2016; Schulte et al., 2008; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009), 'organized, prepared, and clear' (Walls et al., 2002), 'varying teaching methods' (Witcher & Onwuegbuzie, 1999), 'involving students in authentic learning questioning and discussion' (Walls et al., 2002), and 'knowledgeable' (Schulte et al., 2008; Witcher & Onwuegbuzie, 1999). However, there were some characteristics of effective teachers which are distinctive in the English language education domain such as 'proficient in the target language' (Barnes & Lock, 2013; Brosh, 1996; Park & Lee, 2006), 'having sufficient knowledge of the target language' (Çelik et al., 2013; Mudra, 2018), and 'using communicative approaches' (Bell, 2005).

These following studies also revealed that there were differences in the students' perceptions of the qualities possessed by English teachers (Barnes & Lock, 2010, 2013; Bell, 2005; Brosh, 1996; Çelik et al., 2013; Hidayat, 2017; Karim, 2021;

Khaerati, 2016; Kwangsawad, 2017; Mudra, 2018; Park & Lee, 2006; Said, 2017; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009). These studies indicate that the conceptions among people toward effective NNETs were proved to be different depending on levels of schooling, curriculum, gender, major area, and background.

3. METHOD

3.1 Research Design

The design of this study was mixed-method research, specifically explanatory sequential design (Creswell, 2012). By combining quantitative and qualitative methods, it provides a better understanding of the research problem and question. In this design, the researchers implemented two phases in a sequence. The quantitative phase followed with the qualitative phases to help explain the quantitative results.

3.2 Research Location and Samples

This study was taken place in Tanjungpinang, the capital city of Kepulauan Riau province, Indonesia. This study was conducted during the Covid-19 pandemic, in which all teaching and learning activities were conducted online. The research samples for the quantitative phase were 380 students. The samples were selected by using cluster sampling techniques. From seven public senior high schools in Tanjungpinang, four schools were involved to be the representatives from each district. With an average of 30 students in each class, the researchers randomly selected 3 classes from every school. All students from selected classes were involved in this study. In the qualitative phase, six students were purposely selected to be the samples in order to seek variations in the students' perspectives based on their different English proficiency levels and gender.

3.3 Instruments

The research instrument used in the quantitative phase was a questionnaire about the criteria of effective NNETs. The questionnaire in this study was adapted from Park and Lee (2006) and was translated into Indonesian in order to make the students understand and answer each statement easily. After the questionnaire was translated into Indonesian, the content was validated by a validator. The validator is a faculty member of a state university in Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta (i.e., Special Territory of Yogyakarta). Corrections were then made dealing with clarity of the language in the translated questionnaire as advised by the validator. Moreover, one item regarding how to 'alleviate students' anxiety in English class' in item number 20 was revised from the original questionnaire. Since this item was categorized within the socio-affective skills, the researchers revised the item to 'alleviate students' anxiety by building more relaxed relationships in the classroom'. Moreover, the researchers decided to remove two items from the questionnaire because the two items had not statistically passed the criteria to be valid and reliable. The items were 'teach English tailored to students' English proficiency levels', and 'assess what students have learned rationally'. The original questionnaire consisted of 27 items but the questionnaire employed in this

study consisted of 25 items. For further data collection and analysis, some items included eliciting personal information (e.g., name, school, grade, contact person, and English proficiency). As for the item focusing on the students' English proficiency, the researcher adopted the scales from [Dörnyei and Taguchi \(2009\)](#). The scales were used to ease the students to self-assessed their English proficiency from the criteria available for each proficiency level.

In the qualitative phase, an interview guideline was employed to gather in-depth information regarding students' perceptions of effective NNETs. The researchers designed the guideline by referring to the conceptual framework and the research questions of the study. The interview guideline consisted of six questions. Furthermore, follow-up questions were asked to the students, when necessary, to triangulate the data with the questionnaire results. To ensure the validity of the data, the instrument used was validated by a validator. Then, a pilot study was conducted to test the validity of each item by using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. Additionally, to establish the trustworthiness of the interview data, there were some strategies that the researchers employed. The strategies were detailed descriptions of the context, consistent research procedures, overlap methods, and the researchers' neutrality. Additionally, the researchers employed peer debriefing and member checking ([Miles et al., 2014](#); [Mills & Gay, 2019](#)).

3.4 Data Collection

The data were collected by administering a survey and an interview. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the researchers used Google Forms to collect the quantitative data. An online questionnaire link was distributed to the samples of the study through their English teachers. The interview was conducted via phone call and was recorded to avoid problems due to an internet connection that might occur while making a video call. Each student was interviewed by following the semi-structured interview procedure. Thus, the students were able to freely explain their perspectives without straying out of the topic.

3.5 Data Analysis

To analyze the data obtained from the questionnaires, the researchers employed both descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. In descriptive statistics, the researchers calculated and compared the items' mean scores and the standard deviations. Then, the inferential statistical analysis was calculated to find out the possible significant group differences in perceiving effective NNETs. Although the normality test showed that the data were not statistically normal, by accounting for the robustness of a parametric test ([Norman, 2010](#)), and considering the sample size, the sampling technique used in this study was MANOVA tests (a parametric test).

The interview data were analyzed through the following phases; data condensation, data display, and drawing and verifying conclusion ([Miles et al., 2014](#)). In this study, the researchers transcribed the interviews and then translated them into English. After that, the data were coded deductively into the preconceived themes: subject matter knowledge, pedagogical skills, and socio-affective skills. The data were displayed by providing the interview excerpts. Finally, the researchers drew and

verified conclusions. The interpretation of the findings was obtained by integrating the results and meanings from both quantitative data and qualitative data.

4. RESULTS

The results combined the quantitative and the qualitative findings. The quantitative result presented the statistical analysis of the questionnaire data, and the result of MANOVA tests to show whether there are significant differences in the effective teacher dimensions by students' English proficiency levels and gender. In the qualitative findings, interview excerpts were provided to clearly illustrate the students' opinions. The names of the students are coded to ensure the students' privacy and confidentiality. Table 1 displays the data of the students involved in the qualitative phase.

Table 1. Students' data in the qualitative phase.

Names	Gender	English proficiency level
Student1	Male	Upper-intermediate and above
Student2	Female	Upper-intermediate and above
Student3	Male	Intermediate
Student4	Female	Lower intermediate
Student5	Male	Post beginner
Student6	Female	Beginner

4.1 Subject Matter Knowledge

This subsection presents the findings from the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study categorized within the teachers' subject matter knowledge. Table 2 presents a summary of the students' responses to the questionnaire within the subject matter knowledge category. From the eight qualities, three items were categorized into strongly agree; items number 3, 4, and 6, while the other five items were categorized into agree. The highest mean score within this category was for item number 3 'read English well' (M=4.3; SD=0.76). The second, third, and fourth highest mean scores were item number 6 'pronounce English well', item number 4 'write English well', and item number 7 'speak English well', respectively. The lowest mean score was item number 2 'effective NNETs know foreign culture well' (M=3.63; SD=0.81). Overall, the majority of the students agreed that the eight qualities were important for NNETs to be effective concerning teachers' subject matter knowledge.

Table 2. The mean scores for items in the subject matter knowledge category.

No.	Items	Frequencies (%)					M	SD
		1	2	3	4	5		
1.	Understand spoken English well	0.79	2.63	15.79	40.26	40.53	4.17	0.84
2.	Know English culture well	-	5.26	42.37	36.32	16.05	3.63	0.81
3.	Read English well	0.26	1.32	12.63	39.74	46.05	4.30	0.76
4.	Write English well	0.26	0.53	13.95	45.79	39.47	4.24	0.72
5.	Have a high level of proficiency with English vocabulary	0.53	3.42	21.84	37.11	37.11	4.07	0.88
6.	Pronounce English well	0.53	0.79	15	40	43.68	4.26	0.78
7.	Speak English well	0.53	1.32	16.32	41.58	40.26	4.20	0.79
8.	Be fully conversant with English grammar	0.26	5	27.37	36.32	31.05	3.93	0.90

Note: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

In the qualitative phase, the quality regarding effective NNETs should 'speak English well' was confirmed. According to Student1, effective NNETs should teach his/her students how to speak by extending the use of English as the medium of instruction in the classroom. The comment in E1 illustrate his opinion (E refers to Excerpt):

- (E1) There are some teachers who teach specifically theory, not using English as the medium of instruction in the classroom. If the teacher speaks English, it can broaden our vocabulary and knowledge. [In the classroom], the teacher [should] speak English and keep on engaging us to speak English without pressure. The point is practicing together...it shouldn't rely too much on theories. Theories can be forgotten but practices can become a habit. (Student1, male-upper intermediate, and above level)

Moreover, the quality regarding effective NNETs should 'be fully conversant with English grammar' was also emerged. One student, Student4, reported that she liked a teacher who explains in detail. The comment in E2 illustrates her opinion:

- (E2) I like an English teacher who explains the lesson in detail. For example, we are learning about past tense, then, the teacher explains in detail about 'to be'. Not just saying that it happened in the past. (Student4, female-lower intermediate level)

The comment above illustrates Student4's preferences about learning grammar and how she wanted an English teacher to explain the materials thoroughly.

Furthermore, another quality that had also emerged was insightful and resourceful. The student argued about the importance of the teacher's knowledge, not limited to the language but also things or issues that can broaden the students' knowledge.

- (E3) I think that a good English teacher is more like...who uses some references or stories. A good teacher is a teacher who isn't strict about the books, and also has a broad insight. (Student1, male-upper intermediate, and above level)

From the statement in E3, he believed that being resourceful and insightful were the characteristics of effective NNETs. This indicates that he needed a teacher who could broaden his knowledge, not limited to teaching him what is in the book.

Based on the above findings of quantitative and qualitative data, the characteristics of effective NNETs within the subject matter knowledge category encompassed being proficient in English, fully conversant with English grammar, and being insightful and resourceful.

4.2 Pedagogical Skills

This subsection presents the findings from the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study categorized within the teachers' pedagogical skills. Table 3 shows the results of the students' responses within the pedagogical skill category. From the eight qualities, only one item (item number 13) was categorized into neutral ($M=2.88$), while the other seven items were categorized into agree ($M>3.41$). The highest mean score in this category was item number 14 'teach English incorporating students' various learning styles' ($M=4.2$; $SD=0.82$), followed by item 9 'prepare the lesson well'. The

lowest score was item number 13 ‘teach English in fully English’ (M=2.88; SD=0.87). It can be seen from item number 13 that only a minority of the respondents agreed to the statement (16.05% agree, and 4.21% strongly agree), while 46.84% chose neutral. These results suggested that in general, the respondents were neutral towards the use of English as the only medium of instruction in the classroom. They neither agreed nor disagreed. Moreover, the mean scores of the other seven items indicated that these qualities were important for effective NNETs albeit the mean scores are lower than those revealed in the subject matter knowledge category.

Table 3. The mean scores for items in the pedagogical skill category.

No.	Items	Frequencies (%)					M	SD
		1	2	3	4	5		
1.	Prepare the lesson well	0.26	0.53	16.32	48.42	34.47	4.16	0.73
2.	Teach how to learn English outside the classroom (ex. Suggest certain websites/apps for self-learning)	1.05	8.95	43.95	31.58	14.47	3.49	0.89
3.	Use various materials, including video, audio, and multimedia	0.26	3.42	34.47	39.74	22.11	3.8	0.83
4.	Maintain good classroom atmosphere using authority, if necessary	0.53	3.42	31.32	44.21	20.53	3.81	0.83
5.	Teach English in fully English	3.95	28.95	46.84	16.05	4.21	2.88	0.87
6.	Teach English incorporating students’ various learning styles	0.26	2.11	17.89	37.11	42.63	4.2	0.82
7.	Provide opportunities to use English through meaningful activities	-	1.32	37.11	46.32	15.26	3.76	0.72
8.	Provide activities that arouse student’s interest in learning English	-	2.11	25.79	48.16	23.95	3.94	0.76

Note: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

From the interviews, the students reported some examples of activities that could arouse their interests differently as in the following excerpts.

- (E4) [Effective teachers] use various methods that are refreshing, not monotonous. In my opinion, the teacher should do a more active approach to the students such as using media, videos and visiting English-speaking places, such as study tours. [I like] learning with games; also, learning with technology. (Student5, male-post beginner level)
- (E5) ...the most exciting [for me] is a reward. ...[by giving rewards] students who are not interested in English become wanting to learn, because there is a prize, there is a reward. (Student4, female-lower intermediate level)
- (E6) I like to broaden my knowledge and my vocabulary. When reading biographies or movies and finding difficult words, I look them up on Google. I also learn from animations or cartoons. (Student1, male-upper intermediate, and above level)

The quality regarding providing opportunities to use English through meaningful activities was also confirmed, in which one student said:

- (E7) I think the efforts were not effective because first, the teacher taught okay, she taught too strict to the theories, she did not teach us to speak, she asked us to make five sentences of present perfect tense/past tense. We should not learn the structures too much; we have to know the structures but not memorize them. (Student1, male-upper intermediate, and above level)

The claim in E7 indicates that the teacher might not have provided the students with a number of communicative activities. Student1 judged the activities provided by the teacher did not meet his goal to improve his communication skills.

The quality regarding the teachers' medium of instruction that should be fully in English obtained the lowest score compared to the other twenty-five qualities. Most of the students answered neutral for this quality. In relation to this quality, E8 depicts a student's reason why she chose neutral:

- (E8) Because [if the teacher teaches in full English], there might be some vocabularies that my friends and I do not know. So, it is better if a teacher says a few sentences and then explains it in Indonesian, or maybe explain with contexts through things around us. It can help me understand more. (Student6, female-beginner level)

In her view, it was not necessary for the teacher to use English all the time in the classroom. She thought about her and her friends' limitation of vocabulary so that it would be better if the teacher mixed the language; English and Indonesia when explaining the lesson.

The quantitative and qualitative data revealed that within the pedagogical skill category, effective NNETs were perceived to have qualities such as considering students' various learning styles in teaching, preparing lessons well, providing activities that arouse students' interests to learn the language, and providing a number of meaningful/communicative activities.

4.3 Socio-affective Skills

This subsection presents the findings from the quantitative and qualitative phases categorized within the teachers' socio-affective skills. Table 4 shows the results of effective NNETs characteristics viewed by students within the socio-affective skill category. From the nine qualities, only one item (item number 17) was categorized into agree, while the other seven items were categorized into strongly agree. The highest mean score in this category was item number 23 'do not discriminate between students and treats them fairly' (M=4.66; SD=0.61). Meanwhile, the lowest score was item number 17 'is helpful to the students inside and outside the classroom' (M=4.01; SD=0.78). Overall, these results suggested that the qualities within the socio-affective skill category were the most important characteristics, compared to those within the subject matter knowledge category and pedagogical skill category. Over half of respondents strongly agreed with statements number 19, 21, 23, and 24. In summary, these results indicate that teachers' socio-affective skills (personalities and relationships with the students) were highly essential for the students.

Table 4. The mean scores for items in the socio-affective skill category.

No.	Items	Frequencies (%)					M	SD
		1	2	3	4	5		
1.	Be helpful to students inside and outside the classroom	-	1.32	25.53	43.95	29.21	4.01	0.78
2.	Alleviate students' anxiety by building more relaxed relationships in the classroom	-	1.05	14.47	46.05	38.42	4.22	0.72
3.	Listen to student's opinions	0.53	-	7.37	41.84	50.26	4.41	0.67
4.	Help students' self-confidence in learning English well	0.26	0.26	6.05	45.00	48.42	4.41	0.64
5.	Be friendly to students	0.26	-	5	30	64.74	4.59	0.61
6.	Have a good sense of humor	0.26	0.53	20.26	32.37	46.58	4.24	0.81
7.	Do not discriminate between students and treat them fairly	-	0.53	5.53	21.32	72.63	4.66	0.61
8.	Arouse students' motivation for learning English	-	-	9.74	38.68	51.58	4.42	0.66
9.	Have interest in students (ex. Remembering students' names) and students' English learning	0.26	0.26	18.95	38.68	41.84	4.22	0.77

Note: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree

From the interviews, most of the students described effective NNETs by mostly concerned with the teachers' personalities and attitudes toward the students. One student reported that effective NNETs should treat the students fairly regardless of their ability in English. E9 illustrates her view about teachers' fairness:

(E9) In the learning process, there are students with high ability and low ability, so the teacher has to guide the students until their (ability) improved. (Student6, female-beginner level)

From the statement in E9, it is clear that she wanted an English teacher who could demonstrate fair treatment to all students, whether the students had high ability level or low ability level. NNETs were expected to guide the students until the intended outcomes were achieved. Some students considered the characteristic of friendly as the quality that could help their learning. When asked about his portrayal of effective NNETs, Student3 said:

(E10) In my opinion, effective teachers are friendly...because not all students can learn English easily, then, maybe, if the teacher is friendly, the students must be happy and get closed with the teacher. It will be great. (Student3, male-intermediate level)

All six respondents demonstrated the importance of teacher-student relationships to help their learning. One of them said:

(E11) First of all, in my opinion, the personality of an English teacher is different from a math teacher. We learn how to communicate, meaning that the teacher should be close to the students, must have a close relationship, more like a friend but still have (certain) boundaries. (Student1, male-upper intermediate, and above level)

Student1 thought that the distinctive characteristic of NNETs was the teachers' attitude to the students. It was important because to learn a language, the teachers should use the language for communicating with the students. To do so, the teachers

were expected to be like a friend figure to increase the students' willingness to communicate with the teacher.

In conclusion, both quantitative and qualitative data show that within the socio-affective skill category, the qualities of effective NNETs which were considered to be highly effective for the students were fairness, friendliness, and closeness to the students. Furthermore, effective NNETs should be able to arise the students' motivation, listen to the students, and increase the students' confidence.

4.4 Significant Differences by Gender

This subsection provides the results of students' differences by gender based on the quantitative and qualitative data.

Table 5. The result of the MANOVA test by gender.

Multivariate Tests ^a					
Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	.98	2.39 ^b	3.00	376.00	.07

Table 5 shows the result of the MANOVA test of effective NNETs dimensions by gender. Using Wilks's statistics, there was no significant difference between public senior high school students in Tanjungpinang in perceiving effective NNETs by gender ($V = 0.98$, $F = 2.39$, $p > 0.05$).

In the qualitative phase, although in general, various perspectives were reported by the six students, in which there were some similarities between male and female students. All students mentioned some qualities related to socio-affective skills regardless of their gender such as 'close with students' and 'friendly'. Moreover, some of the male and female students shared the same opinions about their preference for English teachers' pedagogical skills. Qualities such as 'varying teaching methods' and 'face-to-face learning' were reported by the male and female students. Table 6 shows the similarities of the data from the six students based on their gender.

Table 6. The similarities of the findings from the qualitative phase by gender.

Gender	Subject matter knowledge	Pedagogical skills	Socio-affective skills
Male	-	Varying teaching methods (Student5)	Close with students (Student1, Student3) Friendly (Student3)
Female	-	Varying teaching methods (Student4, Student6)	Close with students (Student2) Friendly (Student6)

4.5 Significant Differences by English Proficiency Level

This section provides the results of students' differences by English proficiency level based on the quantitative and qualitative data.

Table 7 presents the result of the MANOVA test of effective NNETs dimensions by English proficiency level. Using Wilks's statistics, there was a significant difference among public senior high school students in Tanjungpinang in perceiving an effective English teacher by English proficiency levels ($V = 0.95$, $F = 3.17$, $p < 0.05$).

The result of separate univariate ANOVAs on the outcome variables revealed statistically significant differences of subject matter knowledge category ($F= 4.02$, $p < 0.05$), and pedagogical skill category ($F= 2.76$, $p < 0.05$) among students in perceiving effective NNETs by English proficiency level. The result from post hoc Tukey analysis also shows that beginner level students reported a lower score in the subject matter knowledge category ($M= 31.71$, $SD= 5.50$) compared to those at intermediate level ($M= 33.93$, $SD= 4.21$) and those at upper-intermediate and above level ($M= 35.83$, $SD= 3.30$). There was no other significant difference found in the students' scores in the subject matter knowledge category by English proficiency level.

Table 7. The results of the MANOVA test by English proficiency level.

Multivariate Tests ^a					
Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	.95	3.17 ^b	6.00	750.00	.00

Additionally, the result from post hoc LSD analysis shows that upper-intermediate and above level students reported a higher score in the pedagogical skill category ($M= 32.42$, $SD= 3.68$) compared to those at the beginner level ($M= 29.44$, $SD= 4.03$) and those at the post beginner level ($M= 29.89$, $SD= 3.71$). Moreover, intermediate level students reported a higher score in the pedagogical skill category ($M= 32.42$, $SD= 3.68$) compared to those at the beginner level ($M= 29.44$, $SD= 4.03$). There was no other significant difference found in the students' scores in the pedagogical skill category by English proficiency level. However, there was no statistically significant difference in the socio-affective skill category ($F = 1.48$, $p > 0.05$) among public senior high school students in Tanjungpinang in perceiving effective NNETs by English proficiency level.

In the qualitative phase, the findings show that a significant difference among the students by their English proficiency levels was not fully confirmed. However, students from lower intermediate level and upper-intermediate and above level reported qualities within the subject matter knowledge as the characteristic of effective NNETs as more important compared to those at the lower level. In addition, within the pedagogical skill category, a variety of perspectives were expressed by the six students in the interview. Furthermore, within the socio-affective skill category, some students shared similar perceptions about the characteristics of effective NNETs, such as being close and friendly. Table 8 shows the comparison of the data from the six students based on their English proficiency level.

Table 8. The comparison of the findings from the qualitative phase by English proficiency level.

Level	Subject matter knowledge	Pedagogical skills	Socio-affective skills
Upper-intermediate and above (Student1)	Speaking	Communicative activities	Close
Upper-intermediate and above (Student2)	-	To the point	Fair
Intermediate (Student3)	-	-	Friendly, close

Table 8 continued...

Lower intermediate (Student4)	Grammar	Detailed	-
Post beginner (Student5)	-	Various methods, media	Care
Beginner (Student6)	-	Simplified lessons	Friendly, patient, open

Student4, lower intermediate level, and Student1, upper-intermediate and above level, reported qualities such as having good speaking skills; being resourceful and insightful; having sound knowledge of grammar as important to help their language learning. Yet, Student6, beginner level, reported that there were too many rules in the textbook. She thought that the teacher should selectively choose materials to be delivered to the students. In this case, students in the lower level might think that the content in the textbook was too much and the teacher needed to simplify the lessons.

5. DISCUSSION

This study investigated public senior high school students' perceptions of effective NNETs in Tanjungpinang, Indonesia. The quantitative and qualitative data suggest the importance of teachers' socio-affective skills compared to those concerning teachers' subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills. In contrast, [Park and Lee \(2006\)](#) revealed that the students in their study ranked the pedagogical skill category as the highest and the socio-affective skill as the lowest. This could be explained since, within the Indonesian context, the social and affective qualities of human beings are very important. In fact, the current curriculum implemented in Indonesia also had an emphasis on a character-based curriculum ([Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2018](#)). This curriculum has primarily emphasized characters values. This suggests that students should have good characters and acquire certain competences afterward, which means that affective qualities come first in Indonesia. This concept could also be applied to a teacher, in which most students will enjoy learning with a teacher who possesses certain good qualities. Therefore, teachers' socio-affective skills were important to help the students' learning processes. This is in line with [Stronge \(2007\)](#) who states that teachers' affective characteristics are often a primary concern to the students. This result has also confirmed the empirical evidence from previous studies ([Barnes & Lock, 2010, 2013](#); [Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009](#)). [Barnes and Lock \(2010, 2013\)](#) also believed that teacher rapport is essential, particularly to build respectful and understanding atmospheres in EFL classes. Similarly, [Silviyanti et al. \(2021\)](#) revealed that native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) shared similar expectations with students about a strong teacher-student emotional relationship as a handful aspect in EFL classes. It provides encouragement to students, helps students like the class, and makes students learn better.

Some qualities of effective NNETs discovered in this study include subject matter knowledge (teacher's reading and speaking skills, sound knowledge of grammar), pedagogical skills (incorporating students' various learning styles, preparing lessons well, stimulating students' interests, providing meaningful activities), and socio-affective skills (fair, friendly, motivational, and close with students). These findings provide particular characteristics within the English language

teaching field and explain more about the teacher competences that have been stipulated in the act of Republic of Indonesia number 14/2005 (President of Republic of Indonesia, 2005) and MNEC regulation number 16/2007 (Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2007). In regards to the teacher-student relationship, Borg (2006) states the relationship between teacher and students is more prominent in language teaching since there is more communication between teacher and students. During class, students often have to talk about their experiences and their life. As a result, effective NNETs need to engage students in this kind of meaningful communication many times. Therefore, in the English language learning context, the quality regarding teacher-student relationships is very distinctive compared to other subjects.

Furthermore, the findings of the current study also revealed that there was no significant difference between public senior high school students in Tanjungpinang in perceiving effective NNETs by gender. This finding did not support Park and Lee (2006) who discovered a significant difference between the males and the females. However, the finding of this study was consistent with that of Mudra's (2018) who also conducted a study in Indonesia but on the tertiary level. He discovered that there was no significant difference between male and female EFL learners in determining the qualities of effective English lecturers.

In relation to the students' English proficiency levels, quantitatively, it was discovered that there was a significant difference among public senior high school students in Tanjungpinang in perceiving effective NNETs. Likewise, Park and Lee (2006) discovered a significant mean difference between the high achieving students and the low achieving students. Furthermore, based on the qualitative data, it was found that the students with 'lower' levels seemed to be less concerned about the teacher's subject matter knowledge as the characteristic of effective NNETs. They were more concerned with qualities related to socio-affective skills and pedagogical skills. The most likely quality that explained the differences among students with different English proficiency levels was demonstrated by one respondent who reported that there were too many rules in the textbook. In this case, students in the lower level might think that the content in the textbook was too much and the teachers need to simplify the lessons. On the other hand, Student4, the lower intermediate level student, and Student1, upper-intermediate and above-level student reported qualities such as having good speaking skills, being resourceful and insightful, having sound knowledge of grammar are important to help their language learning. Therefore, NNETs should selectively choose materials to be delivered to students based on their English level (Harmer, 2007).

6. CONCLUSION

This study offers insights from students' perspectives regarding the most effective qualities of NNETs that can assist students' learning process in the Indonesian EFL context. This study reveals the importance of teachers' socio-affective skills in students' learning process. Some qualities of effective NNETs are being fair, being friendly, arousing students' motivation, providing activities that engage students' interest to learn the language, and providing meaningful activities, speaking English well, and being fully conversant with English grammar. As replication of Park

and Lee's (2006) work, the generalizability of their findings cannot be extended to the context of this present study. The difference between the results of this study and Park and Lee's (2006) study provides further evidence that different perspectives in perceiving the most valuable characteristics of NNETs exist across cohorts of students, countries, and time. Furthermore, this study also confirms that students perceived different needs regarding the most effective NNETs' qualities in order to help their learning. Thus, NNETs need to explore and meet students' needs so as to enable them to be more effective in managing their instructions.

Furthermore, this finding raises the need to consider students' needs analysis in order to evaluate and modify the teaching processes as mandated in the current curriculum implemented in Indonesia. It is also important to prepare teachers with knowledge and skills that are highly effective to facilitate students' language learning process. This study suggests future research on the characteristics of effective NNETs in various settings to establish a greater understanding of how to develop EFL teaching practices that incorporate relevant aspects of language teaching.

This study has three limitations. First, since the data was collected from only public senior high schools in Tanjungpinang, meanwhile the perspectives of students from private schools were not included. Second, the findings of this study were obtained only from students' perspectives. Hence, readers' discretion is expected to judge which needs are feasibly accommodated into English language teaching. Third, only some qualities identified in the quantitative data were confirmed in the qualitative findings. It is expected that these limitations can be covered by future related studies on this topic.

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Indonesian High School Students' Attitudes towards Varieties of English: A Survey Study

Ruth Eliana Franssisca
Adaninggar Septi Subekti*

¹English Language Education Department, Faculty of Education and Humanities,
Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana, Yogyakarta, 55224, INDONESIA

Abstract

The present study was conducted to investigate Indonesian High School students' attitudes towards World Englishes, a construct developed based on a three-circle model proposed by Kachru. The study used an online questionnaire consisting of 22 items. The number of high school students from various regions in Indonesia participating in the study was 121. It was found that there was a moderate level of acceptance towards varieties of English. The participants believed that they should learn and be taught English varieties from inner-circle countries. However, the participants seemed to have very strong beliefs towards and pride in their local accents, to have high respect towards various accents around the world, and to perceive English to belong to whoever speaks it. Based on the finding on the participants' positive attitude towards their local accents, English instruction could focus on the eventual purpose of learning a language, which is communication and building positive students' self-perception about themselves regarding English. Hence, instead of comparing themselves with native speakers of English, students could focus on sharpening their English skills regardless of accents to be a part of the global community. The limitations and contributions of the present study are also presented, along with possible directions for relevant future studies in the field.

Keywords: Accents, attitudes, Indonesian students, world Englishes.

* Corresponding author, email: adaninggar@staff.ukdw.ac.id

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1. INTRODUCTION

The popularity of World Englishes has spread worldwide due to globalisation. More varieties of English emerged by time as a result of the interaction between native and non-native English speakers (Bhowmik, 2015). This concept brings a diversity of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (Rezaei et al., 2019). The canon work of Kachru (1990) proposed the three-circle model which can be used as a reference to understand the concept of the World Englishes. The model consisted of 'inner circle' countries where the majority of the people speak English as the first language (L1), 'outer circle' countries where English is spoken as a second language (ESL), and 'expanding circle' countries where English is spoken as a foreign language (EFL) (Kachru, 1990). The term 'World Englishes' uses a plural noun acknowledging varieties of English developed in both outer circle and expanding circle countries (Patria, 2021).

Though World Englishes has become more popular in the 21st century (Joshi, 2013), the acceptance of this concept is still vague (Rezaei et al., 2019). In many EFL contexts, parts of the expanding circle, ironically, English varieties spoken by non-native speakers seemed to be less acceptable among teachers and students (Al-Dosari, 2011; Almegren, 2018; Huong & Hiep, 2010; Muhalim, 2016; Pudyastuti & Atma, 2014). Thus, in practice, schools tend to refer to the 'inner circle' varieties as a model for providing classroom instruction, textbooks, and materials (Birkner, 2014). In the Asian EFL contexts, most of which are either outer and expanding circle countries, English varieties from the outer circle and expanding circle seemed to be considered less prestigious than the inner circle varieties (Choi, 2007; Galloway, 2013; Muhalim, 2016; Pudyastuti & Atma, 2014). For these reasons, conducting a study on World Englishes in the expanding circle countries such as Indonesia is important.

Furthermore, the plethora of research in the field has been overwhelmed by studies conducted in university contexts (e.g. Choomthong & Manowong, 2020; Galloway, 2013; Huong & Hiep, 2010; Jung, 2005; Lee, 2012; Rezaei et al., 2019). In comparison, studies conducted in high school contexts are limited. One of such studies is a study by Norman (2017) in the Swedish context. In Indonesia, specifically, quantitative studies involving 22 Indonesian teachers of English, and 46 university students by Pudyastuti and Atma (2014) and Waloyo and Jarum (2019), respectively, albeit the possible contributions, may not be sufficient to obtain more generalisable data as the number of participants in those two quantitative studies was barely adequate to obtain generalisable data, the forte of quantitative studies (Gray, 2014). Hence, a quantitative study through a survey involving more Indonesian high school students from various regions may offer generalisable data (Gray, 2014) in the relatively under-researched Indonesian high school context. Involving perhaps equally under-researched Indonesian junior high school students could also offer some merits. However, considering these students may just embark on their obligatory English classes at this level, involving senior high school students who have learned English formally at school for a longer duration may be more strategic as their attitudes towards English may have been formed more clearly. The findings of such studies can also possibly inform English teachers at the high school level about whether they can introduce varieties of English during instruction or the extent to which they can do that. Accordingly, based on the rationales, the present study seeks to investigate Indonesian senior high school students' attitudes towards varieties of English.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 World Englishes

The concept of World Englishes represents different varieties of English used in ‘diverse linguistics’ and ‘cultural context’ (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Kachru (1990) proposed a three-circle model regarding the varieties of English around the world. Each circle contains names of countries in terms of their English varieties, presented in Figure 1.

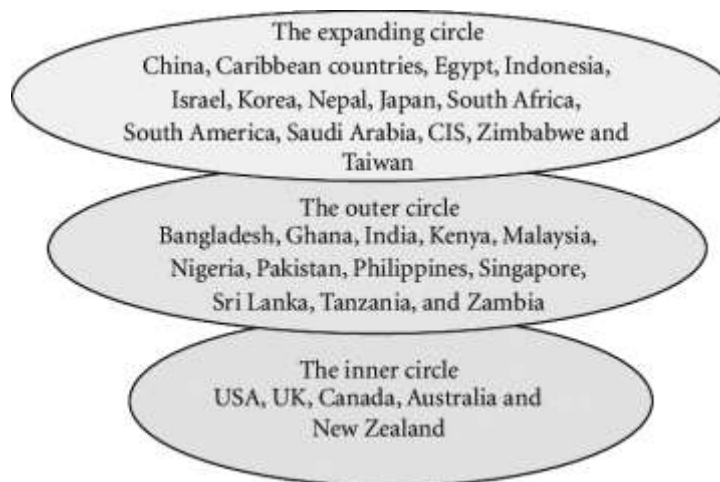


Figure1. Three-circle model (Kachru, 1990).

Figure 1 shows that the first circle, ‘inner circle’, consists of English-speaking countries such as the United States of America (US), United Kingdom (UK), Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, where English is mainly spoken as the first language (L1). The next circle is the ‘outer circle’, containing countries using English as their second language (ESL). The last circle is called as ‘expanding circle’, consisting of countries using English as a foreign language (EFL), Indonesia being one of them. Geographical labels are usually given to each variety, for example, ‘Singaporean English’, ‘Japanese English’, and the likes (Leimgruber, 2013).

The three-circle model by Kachru (1990) has been criticised in several subsequent works (e.g., Disney, 2010; Schmitz, 2014). For example, Disney (2010) argued that this model failed to capture the use of the language in locations mentioned by Kachru and the locations not formally recorded by its colonial history (Disney, 2010). The three-circle model also seemed to ignore the variation within the locals of each country (Bolton, 2005). Furthermore, Schmitz (2014) also argued that Kachru’s three-circle model could not meet the presence of English in this 21st century.

Despite these debates, Disney (2010) stated that although the model is somewhat limited, its status remains valid, and it provides a vivid notion of ‘standard’ varieties and ‘non-standard’ ones. Along the same lines, many studies have been conducted using the three-circle model in various contexts in the last two decades (Almegren, 2018; Choi, 2007; Norman, 2017).

2.2 Previous Related Studies

Although World Englishes concept may seemingly be acceptable among scholars, studies in this field are still popular since the acceptance of the concept of World Englishes among students and teachers is still ambiguous (Al-Dosari, 2011; Almegren, 2018; Choi, 2007; Jung, 2005; Muhalim, 2016; Rezaei et al., 2019; Schmitz, 2014; Waloyo & Jarum, 2019). In the European context, Norman (2017) conducted a study involving 80 Swedish high school students in a survey. The study reported students' belief that having a native-like accent was overvalued and that most of them valued communication over native-like English accents (Norman, 2017).

There were also several studies in the Middle Eastern contexts. For example, Almegren (2018) conducted a study on Saudi Arabian young students' attitudes towards World Englishes. The study found that the participants were reluctant to accept varieties of English besides L1 varieties such as British or American English (Almegren, 2018). Another study conducted in a Saudi Arabian university context by Al-Dosari (2011) reported relatively the same finding. In a similar vein, in Iran, Rezaei et al. (2019) found that their 140 participants perceived American and British accents to have 'best' quality with their Persian accent being at the bottom of the scale.

The results of studies in Korea showed relatively the same findings as those in the Middle East. Choi (2007), for example, conducted a survey study in the Korean university context. The questionnaire was distributed to two groups of students, the first having never been exposed to World Englishes, whilst the second having learned about the concept. Choi (2007) found that the first group perceived L1 varieties as the 'standard' English whilst the second group was more open towards other varieties. In line with that, Lee (2012) also found that Korean students could not accept the Korean variety of English. Furthermore, Japanese students seemed to prefer L1 varieties of English as well. Galloway (2013) conducted a study on the acceptance of the concept of the varieties of English at a university in Japan. She found that Japanese students were uncomfortable with their thick Japanese accent when speaking in English. Thus, they wanted to speak like native English speakers. Despite that, they also believed that they should learn the other varieties of English such as Indian English and Chinese English (Galloway, 2013), suggesting the Japanese students' openness to expanding circle varieties.

Furthermore, several studies have also been conducted in the Southeast Asian context. A study in the Vietnamese university context by Huong and Hiep (2010) also reported that Vietnamese teachers and students had no belief in World Englishes. They viewed American or British Englishes as the standards of learning and teaching English. In line with that, a recent study by Choomthong and Manowong (2020) in a Thai university context also reported that their participants favoured accents spoken by native speakers. However, they also reported that several varieties of English from the expanding circle such as Thailand and Indonesia were easier to understand.

In the Indonesian context, there have also been several studies in the field. Pudyastuti and Atma (2014) conducted a limited quantitative study involving 22 English teachers. Their teacher participants believed that it was useful for both teachers and students to know varieties of English. However, in common teaching practice, they preferred to teach the L1 varieties, especially British and American ones. In line with that, a survey study by Muhalim (2016) involving 51 university students found that these students were unfamiliar with World Englishes. Most of the students did not

know about other varieties of English besides American and British Englishes. In comparison, [Waloyo and Jarum \(2019\)](#) reported their participants' confidence in speaking English with their accents.

Regarding the results of those studies, though not specifically in World Englishes literature, [Yule \(2014\)](#) proposed that accent is a part of identity. Therefore, expanding circle students' generally low perception towards local accents in speaking in English has been an irony and thus, an issue ([Schmitz, 2014](#)). [Jung \(2005\)](#) argued that repeated exposure to certain materials during instruction could affect students' perceptions. For example, repeated exposure to the inner circle varieties leads students to positive perceptions towards these varieties ([Choi, 2007](#); [Faris, 2014](#); [Jung, 2005](#); [Rini, 2014](#)). In comparison, English instructions embracing learners' accents may potentially facilitate learners not only to learn the language but also to have a sense of belonging towards the language in the framework of international posture ([Yashima, 2009](#)) where students speak English 'differently' from one to another as a part of the global community.

3. METHODS

The present study used a survey as the method of data collection. The survey was conducted by distributing a Google Form questionnaire consisting of 22 statements regarding attitudes towards varieties of English. Though World Englishes could include varieties of grammar and vocabulary, several items of the present study's questionnaire were dedicated to varieties of accents. A number of 19 of the 22 items were adapted from a study by [Choi \(2007\)](#) and three items (item numbers 5, 10, and 17) were from that by [Rousseau \(2012\)](#) in the Korean university context, the same expanding circle country as Indonesia. Statements in the original questionnaire were revised to facilitate relevance to Indonesian participants. The possible Likert-scale responses were also modified. For example, the possible neutral response in the original questionnaires was omitted. In the adapted questionnaire, there were four possible responses in each of the questionnaire statements, 'Strongly Agree', 'Agree', 'Disagree', and 'Strongly Disagree'. The questionnaire consisted of 11 negative items in which 'Strongly Agree' indicated a low attitude towards World Englishes, and 11 positive statements in which 'Strongly Agree' suggested a high attitude towards World Englishes. In the positive statements, 'Strongly Agree' was equal to 4 points, 'Agree' was equal to 3 points, 'Disagree' was equal to 2 points, and 'Strongly Disagree' was equal to 1 point. The responses of the eleven negative items were reverse scored.

The questionnaire items were translated from English to Indonesian to allow the target participants' comprehension and more valid responses. Back translation into English was conducted to avoid changes in meaning during the translation process. Before being distributed, the questionnaire was piloted to several university students majoring in English based on whose feedback minor revisions were made.

The Google Form questionnaire link was distributed to senior high school students in Indonesia for six months, from September 2020 to February 2021 through various social media platforms such as Instagram, Facebook, and Twitter as well as messaging platforms such as WhatsApp and Telegram. The total number of senior high school students who completed the questionnaire was 121. Of these 121 students, 58 (47.9%) were males and 63 (52.1%) were females. They were 15 to 19 years old. These

participants were from various islands or regions in Indonesia namely, Sumatera (30.6%), Papua (15.7%), Java (11.6%), Sulawesi (4.1%), Kalimantan (0.8%), and other regions (37.2%).

The present study applied the research ethic principles. An informed consent form, detailing the objectives of the study as well as the participants' rights, was used in this study. It was to ensure the participants' voluntary participation, respecting their autonomy whether to participate in the present study (Vilma, 2018) as well as to ensure they understood the study before deciding to participate, minimising possible harms. Besides, this study maximised the benefits for the student participants as they obtained a monetary appreciation for their participation.

Furthermore, the data obtained from the Google Form questionnaire were processed in SPSS 25. To achieve the present study objective, the descriptive formula was used to calculate the means and percentages of the data. The sequence of data collection and analysis can be seen in Figure 1.

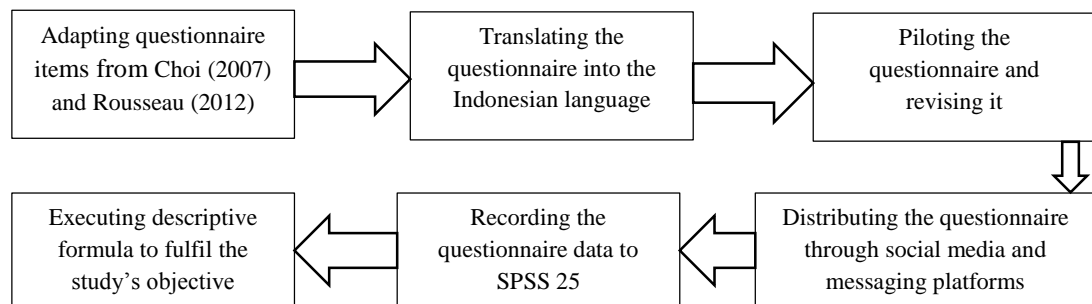


Figure 1. The sequence and data collection and analysis.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the present study's questionnaire on the high school students' attitudes towards World Englishes was .63, suggesting an acceptable level of reliability in terms of internal consistency. The mean score of the participants' responses on all the questionnaire items was 2.59 on a scale of 1 to 4, generally indicating a moderate level of acceptance to World Englishes. The findings could be categorised into three themes, the participants' views on preferred English varieties, their views on accepted pronunciation and accents, and their views on the ownership of English.

4.1 Views on Preferred English Varieties

Eight questionnaire items, numbers 1, 7, 8, 9, 11, 17, 19, and 20, were about the participants' views on preferred English varieties, which seemed to be ambivalent. They strongly preferred the inner circle varieties in four items, whilst strongly preferred the outer and expanding circle varieties in three other items. The mean scores and the detailed responses can be observed in Table 1.

Table 1. Views on preferred English varieties.

Item No.	Statement	Mean Scores	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	It is important for me to use American, British, and Australian English.	1.70	37.2%	55.4%	7.4%	0%
7.	If the use of English is not corresponding to American or British English, it is incorrect.	2.44	9.9%	41.3%	43.8%	5%
8.	The kind of English that is taught in schools must have American or British standards.	2.00	14.9%	70.2%	14.9%	0%
9.	The school exercises should use the standard of British or American English.	2.07	13.2%	66.9%	19.8%	0%
11	I prefer to use British or American English either in speaking or writing.	2.07	18.2%	57%	24%	0.8%
17	I am more comfortable speaking in English with the non-English natives (Thais, Indonesian, Korean, etc.).	2.87	18.2%	54.5%	24%	3.3%
19	The other variations of English from all over the world should be taught in schools.	3.00	24%	55.4%	17.4%	3.3%
20	The exercises in schools can use non-standard English variations.	2.73	9.1%	61.2%	24%	5.8%

In several items (numbers 1, 8, 9, 11), more than 70% of the participants indicated their preference for the inner circle varieties of English. In this case, they might see these countries as the countries where English was the native language of the majority of the people. There were two possible reasons behind this finding. The first reason was related to the limited exposure of the participants to other varieties of English. This limited exposure could lead the students to consider the inner circle Englishes as the ‘right’ and ‘legitimate’ ones (Choi, 2007; Rini, 2014). Secondly, the participants may want to sound like native speakers as doing so could make them look intelligent as speaking like native speakers was seen as prestigious (Almegren, 2018; Rini, 2014). Several previous studies in various expanding circle contexts also found relatively similar findings (Almegren, 2018; Choi, 2007; Rezaei et al. 2019). In Saudi Arabia, for instance, Almegren (2018) and Rezaei et al. (2019) found that their student participants preferred to sound like English native speakers as they would be seen as intelligent.

However, apart from item number 7 which suggested relatively balanced responses between preference on the inner circle varieties and on those of the others, item numbers 17, 19, and 20 suggested that more than 70% of participants’ inclination towards outer and expanding circle varieties, for example, by endorsing the inclusion on the outer and expanding circle varieties in instruction at school. This finding may suggest the participants’ ‘curiosity’ to the potentials of learning ‘non-standard’ varieties of English. Though findings of several previous studies suggested students’ perceived importance of being taught the inner circle English varieties studies (Choi, 2007; Galloway, 2013; Jung, 2005), the present study’s particular finding could be quite encouraging for English teachers. They could provide some materials

accommodating World Englishes, for example, conversation videos or audios of non-native speakers of English. Using the term 'Standard English' to refer to the inner circle English varieties, Jung (2005) argued that if the classroom setting orients lessons towards Standard English, there will be a great potential that students have a Standard English view (Jung, 2005). Likewise, if classroom instructional design orients towards World Englishes, students can have a World Englishes view. Moreover, as inner-circle varieties especially those of American and British have dominated English lesson materials in Indonesia (Faris, 2014), a step-by-step inclusion of other English varieties in the class instruction may offer students more learning choices and opportunities.

4.2 Views on Accepted Accents and Pronunciation

Eight questionnaire items, numbers 3, 5, 6, 10, 14, 15, 21, and 22, were related to the participants' perceptions on accepted pronunciation and accents. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Views on accepted accents and pronunciation.

Item No.	Statement	Mean Scores	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3.	Only American, British, and Australian Englishes are the standard Englishes.	2.14	14%	57.9%	27.3%	0.8%
5.	I am ashamed of the Indonesian accent that I have when I speak English.	2.55	8.3%	39.7%	40.5%	11.6%
6.	I always try to get rid of my Indonesian accent when I speak in English.	2.17	15.7%	53.7%	28.1%	2.5%
10.	The correct pronunciation should be the same as British or American pronunciation.	2.14	14%	59.5%	24.8%	1.7%
14.	I am proud of the local accent that I have.	3.09	22.3%	65.3%	11.6%	0.8%
15.	Other English speakers should know the local accent that I have.	2.78	11.6%	57.9%	28.1%	2.5%
21.	Some mistakes in pronouncing English words are not a problem.	2.80	19.8%	47.9%	24.8%	7.4%
22.	It is important for me to know and respect the various English accents from all over the world.	3.44	47.1%	50.2%	1.7%	0.8%

Table 2 shows that the participants' views on preferred accents and pronunciation were seemingly indecisive. Whilst the findings on item numbers 5, 14, 15, 21, and 22 suggested their preference towards outer and expanding circle English varieties especially in terms of pronunciation and accents, item numbers 3, 6, and 10 suggested their preference on the inner circle ones. More than 70% of the participants considered only the inner circle varieties the 'standard' ones as seen in the responses to items 3 and 10. In addition, 69% of these Indonesian student participants believed that their Indonesian accent should not be noticeable when speaking English.

However, as in the responses to item numbers 5, 14, 15, 21, and 22, the majority of the participants seemed to 'switch sides' to the outer and expanding circle varieties when responding to questionnaire statements about local accents and mistakes in

pronunciation. More than 69% of the participants endorsed respect and acknowledgement towards local accents and considered some pronunciation mistakes not a problem. This finding was in line with the findings of several previous studies (Norman, 2017; Waloyo & Jarum, 2019). Eighty Swedish students in a study by Norman (2017) also considered that having a native-like accent in speaking English was not highly crucial. In a similar vein, in the Indonesian university context, for example, Waloyo and Jarum (2019) reported that their 46 student participants were not ashamed of their L1-accented English. In comparison, this finding contrasted with the findings in the Middle Eastern context, where students did not have a positive perception towards their local accents in speaking in English (Almegren, 2018; Rezaei et al., 2019). According to Schmitz (2014), outer's or expanding circle students' insufficient respect towards local accents in speaking in English has become a concern.

Hence, the finding of the present study on the participants' respect to various English accents could be an oasis indicating openness that people all over the world speak English differently influenced by their local accents. Some exposures of various accents on the internet could be the factor of the participants having positive attitudes towards accents even though they still considered that American, British, and Australian English the standard ones, as seen in items numbers 3 and 10 explained earlier. Another factor that may play a part was the participants' background as Indonesians speaking various regional languages as L1 and thus having various accents that could be different from one to another. As accent is a part of identity (Yule, 2014), the participants expressed confidence in and respect towards their local accents and 'accented' Englishes. The finding may inform English teachers from Indonesia that their students have positive beliefs about their local accents and this could be facilitated in their English class instruction. Rather than trying to mirror native speakers' pronunciation and accents, they could be facilitated to realise a more reasonable goal of achieving intelligible pronunciation with their respective local accents.

4.3 Views on the Ownership of English

Six questionnaire items, numbers 2, 4, 12, 13, 16, 18, and 21 were about the participants' views on the ownership of English. The results are presented in Table 3.

As seen from Table 3, only item number 2 indicated the student participants' endorsement towards the inner circle varieties, in this case, the US and Great Britain. This finding suggests that the participants saw these two countries as the countries where English 'was born'. This finding was in line with the findings in the Korean context (Choi, 2007; Jung, 2005) where the Korean participants also considered the US and Great Britain as the 'origin' of English. Interestingly, the same finding of these two different contexts could stem from different reasons. In Korea, where English native speakers widely held English teaching positions at universities or private courses, students could easily see the countries where these teachers were from as the 'origin' of English. In comparison, in the present study, the high regard for the American and British English varieties could be from the very limited use of English in real communications in Indonesia. As argued by Yule (2014), most schools merely focus on delivering the knowledge about the language than facilitating students to use the language for social communication (Yule, 2014). This could lead expanding circle

students, such as those of the present study, to see that English was not 'one of their languages.'

Table 3. Views on the ownership of English.

Item No.	Statement	Mean Scores	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.	Basically, English is from America or Britain.	1.86	24.8%	66.9%	5%	3.3%
4.	It is only America or Britain who reserve the right to decide how the English language grows.	2.62	8.3%	31.4%	49.6%	10.7%
12.	The local variation (Indonesian) of English should be legitimate and equal with American or British English.	2.97	18.2%	62.8%	17.4%	1.7%
13.	There should be more teachers who know the other varieties of English (Excluding American/ British English).	3.31	38%	55.4%	6.6%	0%
16.	English can be used differently from the English-natives (British/American)' uses.	2.97	19.8%	58.7%	19.8%	1.7%
18	English belongs to anyone who uses it.	3.22	33.9%	56.2%	8.3%	1.7%

The responses on item numbers 4, 12, 13, 16, and 18 uniformly suggested the participants' sense of belonging towards English. More than 75% of the participants viewed that local varieties should be treated as equal to the inner circle ones, that more teachers should know these varieties, that English could be used differently depending on the speakers, and that English belonged to anyone using it. Interestingly, this finding seemed to contradict the finding on item number 2 previously discussed on the 'origin' of English. In this case, the participants might realise that English was the native language of the American and British people. However, they also believed that English belonged to anyone speaking it, and English native speakers had nothing to do with how this language was used (Galloway, 2013). Al-Dosari (2011) mentioned that some non-native exposures on the internet may affect this perception (Al-Dosari, 2011). For instance, on the internet, the participants in the present study might have seen people from all over the world, including from Indonesia, speaking English, and this could affect their view towards to whom English belonged. The finding of the present study was also similar to that in Korea by Choi (2007) where the Korean participants disagreed with the idea of English belonging to American or British people. They also believed that the language belonged to people who used it for communication (Choi, 2007). The similarity could give some kind of indication that generally the expanding circle students, for example, Indonesians and Koreans, seemed to have a sense of belonging to the language they spoke, regardless of their proficiency. This, furthermore, could be attributed to the possible efforts they made in learning the language, which stimulated a certain degree of sense of belonging to the language.

In general, the participants in the present study reported ambivalent attitudes towards varieties of English. For instance, on one hand, the participants generally believed that they should aim to speak the way native speakers do. On the other hand,

they also reported their respect towards various accents when people spoke English, the pride of their local accents, as well as their beliefs that English belonged to everyone speaking it. These participants' ambivalent attitudes could reflect the complex position of English in the expanding circle countries. The participants' high regard for the inner circle varieties, albeit seemingly unpopular considering that the participants were students from an expanding circle country, should not be discouraged provided that it motivated them to learn English instead of making them stop learning out of the feeling of incompetence. Furthermore, the participants' positive attitudes towards various accents could be capitalised in English instruction to raise their awareness that local accents were distinctive features of which they did not need to be ashamed. This awareness could potentially help students to be more confident in speaking in English. Even more, realising this, rather than trying to speak English as native speakers do, Indonesian students could speak English regardless of accents in the framework of international posture, relating oneself to the international community rather than to a specific group of people (Yashima, 2009), for example, those from the inner-circle countries.

5. CONCLUSION

In summary, the study found that the 121 high school participants generally had a moderate level of acceptance towards varieties of English. Though they believed that they should learn and be taught the English varieties of the inner-circle countries, they respected various accents around the world. They were proud of and had a strong belief towards their local accents and perceived English to belong to whoever speaks it.

Furthermore, the present study's limitations should be addressed. First, the quantitative study was bound to produce superficial findings on the students' attitudes obtained from the self-report close-ended questionnaire. Secondly, the students' ambivalent responses on several questionnaire items could also be attributed to the formulation of the statements in the Indonesian language, despite the questionnaire being back-translated and piloted. Last but not least, the present study drew upon the concentric circle model of World Englishes by Kachru (1990) that may be viewed by several scholars to be oversimplifying the spread of English worldwide.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, the present study offered several possible contributions. First, considering the quite large number of participants from various places in Indonesia, the present study possibly provided generalisable data in the under-researched Indonesian senior high school context about the students' views on their preferred English varieties, their views on accepted pronunciation and accents, and the ownership of English. The finding on the students' pride in their local accents and respect for various accents of English speakers all over the world could also inform class instructions. For Indonesian students, as there are more non-native speakers than native speakers in the world, there is a higher possibility of encountering fellow non-native speakers in the international community in the future. Hence, rather than aiming for a native speaker's ability, meaning speaking with native speakers' accents, English instruction could instead focus on the intelligibility of communication regardless of the students' various accents. English class instruction could be directed towards English as Lingua Franca (ELF) where English is seen as a way of communicating among people from various backgrounds and cultures, including accents. This could

boost the students' sense of ownership to English, increase their confidence, and stimulate them to learn English more.

Last but not least, there are several recommendations for future studies. First, conducting qualitative studies where both students' and teachers' views on the varieties of English were compared could be worthwhile. Future studies could also investigate teachers' views on the possible uses of English materials from the outer and expanding circle varieties of English. Furthermore, the same questionnaire used in the present study, with necessary adaptations, could also be distributed to Indonesian teachers of English or pre-service teachers of English to see their attitudes towards varieties of English, considering their strategic position in English instruction in Indonesia.

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Exploring Reader Responses to Young Adult Literature in the Malaysian English Language Classroom

Mallika Vasugi V. Govindarajoo¹
Shakina Rajendram^{*2}
N. Sundari Subasini¹

¹Department of Language and Communications, Faculty of Education and Humanities, UNITAR International University, Petaling Jaya 47301, MALAYSIA
²Department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto, Toronto ON M5S 1V6, CANADA

Abstract

This article presents the results of a study exploring the reader-responses of Malaysian young adults (YAs) to the literature texts used in Malaysian secondary schools, Dear Mr. Kilmer by Anne Schraff, Captain Nobody by Dean Pitchford, and Sing to the Dawn by Minfong Ho. The study aimed to determine the extent to which the YAs found these texts engaging and relevant, and how they identified aspects of their own young adulthood in the novels. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods through questionnaires completed by 30 Malaysian YAs, semi-structured qualitative interviews with a sub-group of six participants, and their journal reflections. Using reader-response literary theory as the guiding framework, the data were analysed quantitatively through descriptive statistical analyses, and qualitatively through inductive thematic analysis, in order to examine the extent to which Malaysian YAs could identify with the main characters, themes, issues, or events in the novels and determine the relevance of the novels to their lives. The findings showed that the participants identified with the characters' conflict between being true to one's self and conforming to societal and gender expectations. The themes of standing up for one's beliefs and right to education, combating social inequities, and family relationships were also relevant aspects that surfaced in responses towards the novels. This

* Corresponding author, email: shakina.rajendram@utoronto.ca

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study provides recommendations for the selection of literary texts for the English language classroom that connect to the developmental phase of young adults and allow learners to see themselves reflected in what they read.

Keywords: ESL, Malaysia, reader response, secondary schools, young adult literature.

1. INTRODUCTION

With the introduction of the literature component in the English language curriculum for National Secondary schools in Malaysia in 2000, literary texts became a compulsory part of the English language teaching syllabus. While there had been attempts in the past by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MOE) to encourage independent reading through the inclusion of class readers and abridged texts of canonical works, the history of literature appreciation in Malaysian schools had thus far been of a sporadic and irregular nature (Subramaniam & Vethamani, 2004). Apart from the literature in English subject which Fifth Form students (or eleventh graders) could take as an elective subject in the high stakes Malaysian Certificate of Education examination, the place of literary texts, either canonical or not, was either missing or insignificant in the Malaysian secondary school. The MOE's move to include literary texts pointed towards an attempt to revive or develop the love for reading and literature among secondary school students. Among the Malaysian MOE's objectives for the inclusion of these texts were to enhance students' proficiency in English, as well as to contribute towards personal development and character building. Time was allotted in the weekly English teaching schedule for the literature component. The responses of Malaysian secondary students towards the poems, short stories, and novels that had been prescribed were, however, not encouraging. Studies revealed that Malaysian secondary school students showed little interest in these prescribed texts. The texts used were found to lack relevance, were considered either too difficult or too easy, boring, and culturally alien to them (Sidhu, 2003; Subramaniam & Vethamani, 2004; Too, 2006).

Thus, a second cycle to the literature component began in 2010 when a new set of texts were introduced to replace the first. In presenting the new texts, the Curriculum Development Division (CDD) stated that teenage issues of relevance and interest to the Malaysian young adult (YA) readers had been taken into account. In studying the response of Malaysian secondary school students towards the novels used in this second cycle of the literature component, Govindarajoo and Mukundan (2013) found that students identified with issues that were familiar to their young adulthood phase and developed a sense of bonding with the YA characters in the novels. In 2013, the MOE revised the cycle again with another new set of texts. Studies on the selected texts so far have been concerned with whether ethnic diversity has been prioritized and their role as a unifying tool in facilitating inter-ethnic engagement and understanding (Kaur & Mahmor, 2014; Pillai et al., 2016; Thoo et al., 2017). One major aspect that has still not been sufficiently dealt with is the reading experience itself of the Malaysian YAs with the prescribed texts in the current (2013) cycle. Thus, the objective of the present study is to explore the reading experience of the Malaysian

YAs with the texts prescribed by MOE in the 3rd cycle of the literature component in order to determine the level of engagement of students with these texts, and whether these texts have the potential to keep them wanting to read independently. A study directed with this focus would require a deeper comprehension of how YA students engage with texts and their personal experiences of the reading, i.e., their thoughts, feelings, and perceptions of how they relate to, interpret, and engage with these texts. In line with the objectives above, the study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do Malaysian YAs find novels of the literature component (3rd cycle) prescribed for students in the Malaysian secondary school English language classroom relevant to their lives as YAs?
2. To what extent do they identify with the main characters, themes, issues, or events in the novels?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Young Adult Literature

Broadly defined as literature that is written for, published, and marketed to YAs (Cart, 2008), young adult literature (YAL) also goes by different names such as literature for adolescence, adolescent fiction, and teen novels. A defining characteristic of the YAL genre is that it features the issues that mark the young adulthood phase (Cole, 2008; Reed, 1994). This includes the depiction of a YA protagonist at the centre of the plot who is perceptive, sensitive, and intelligent. The conflict between dependence and independence and the journey towards maturity is also featured in YAL. YA novels are usually written from the teenage protagonist's point of view and with themes and issues that are relevant to the period of young adulthood (Brozo & Simpson, 2007; Wolf, 2007). The identifying characteristics of YAL which correspond to the issues faced by YAs, are in line with the developmental tasks of this stage of their lives (Havighurst, 1972; Kohlberg, 1981).

The premise that YAs lean towards YAL as a preferred reading choice is affirmed by studies in this direction. In studying the reading experiences of YAs, Groenke et al. (2015) found that their YA participants looked for their own identities in the texts they read. This in turn motivated them towards further reading. Moeller and Becnel (2014) similarly found their YA respondents admitted to seeing themselves in the characters and situations that they read about in YAL. YAs have also found the issues and themes in YAL to resonate and mirror situations in their own lives and have even formed para-social relationships with YA protagonists (Ivey & Johnston 2013; Kokesh & Sternadori 2015). Through these relationships and by identifying with the YA characters in the novels, there is a strong indication that young people may actually acquire a confidante or friend who understands and empathizes with their times of doubt and uncertainty (Kaplan, 2005; Kaywell, 2000; Proukou, 2005). As the chief characteristics of young adulthood include the search of self and for role models they can identify with, the need to belong, and the development of personal philosophies of being, YAL provides them with this frame of reference (Cart, 2016; Koss & Teale, 2009; Thein & Sulzer, 2015; Wells, 2010).

2.2 Literary Theory: Reader Response

Reader-response theory, which focuses on the reader and their experience of the literary work, proposes that it is the reader who creates the meaning in the text. Reader response theory posits that a text:

...has no real existence until it is read. By completing the meaning, thus actualising or reading it, the reader does not take a passive role, as was traditionally thought, but is an active agent in the creation of meaning. (Gilroy & Parkinson, 1997, p. 215)

By bringing their own physical and psychological conditions into the reading experience, the readers' personal histories become inevitably intertwined into the creation and interpretation of the text (Fish, 1980; Holland, 1968; Rosenblatt, 1976). Reader-response theorists also believe in certain temporary detachment from the real world in order to enter the secondary world mapped out by the literary text (Benton, 1992; Bredella & Delanoy, 1996). This approach is particularly relevant to the exploration of YAs reading experience as it combines elements of their own development stage with their reading experience and helps to reveal the extent of relevance to them.

3. METHODS

3.1 Synopses of the Literature Texts

3.1.1 'Dear Mr. Kilmer' by Anne Schraff

Fifteen-year-old Richard Knight's preference for poetry instead of sports and hunting makes him seem a little strange to his family. When his teacher introduces the class to the poetry of Joyce Kilmer, a well-known poet with *The New York Times*, Richard becomes very interested when he finds out that the poet is a lot like him. World War 1 breaks out and although Kilmer does not believe in war, he volunteers for service in the army to fight for his country. This kind of courage intrigues Richard even more and he begins a correspondence with Kilmer which in time develops into a strong bond of friendship. Through their letters, they exchange thoughts on poetry and what is going on in their lives. As the correspondence carries on, Richard learns about true courage and the evils of discrimination and racism.

3.1.2 'Captain Nobody' by Dean Pitchford

Ten-year-old Newton Newman (or Newt) has never thought of himself as a hero, unlike his much-admired older brother Chris who is a football star. When Chris is knocked into a coma during a football game, Newt's friends decide that taking him out for Halloween would help to get his mind off his brother's condition. They help Newt create a unique costume from Chris's old clothes. The costume gives Newt a new identity – Captain Nobody. Dressed like this, Newt feels strong and confident and soon begins to perform real heroic deeds like helping a confused old man to find his way

home, foiling a jewelry store robbery and clearing a landing path for a plane in distress, climbing a water tower to save another boy, and helping his brother regain consciousness.

3.1.3 *'Sing to the Dawn' by Minfong Ho*

When Dawan, a young Thai village girl, finds out that she has been placed first on a government exam and has won a scholarship, it seems as if her dream of studying in a city school is coming true. However, some obstacles stand in the way of her dream. Her brother, Kwai, is resentful of his sister's success. Dawan's father also disapproves as he does not believe in girls furthering their studies. Dawan is, however, determined to further her studies and seeks support from different people including her mother, a Buddhist monk, Bao the flower girl, a cousin who has lived in the city, and her grandmother. Despite the obstacles in her way, Dawan remains strong and eventually manages to break down her father's resistance and receive her brother's blessing.

3.2 Participants and Data Collection Procedures

The sampling for the study was purposeful with 30 Malaysian young adult students between the ages of 15-18 as participants. All participants were located in the Klang Valley. Participants were briefed about the study and consent was obtained, after which they were supplied with the three novels and a set of guidelines on what was expected from them. The researchers collected both quantitative and qualitative data for the study through a questionnaire, interviews, and reflective journal entries.

3.2.1 *Questionnaires*

A questionnaire comprising closed-ended and open-ended questions based on the research questions was constructed and reviewed by peers to ensure they covered the scope of the study and that the items were not ambiguous. The 30 participants were given three duplicate versions of the questionnaire, one for each novel, with a briefing on the guidelines and nature of responses. The questionnaire contained six closed-ended questions and twelve open-ended questions. They were encouraged to write free responses to the open-ended questions (see the Appendix for the questionnaire).

3.2.2 *Semi-structured interviews*

As the information needed in the study required deep insight into the participating YAs' thoughts, feelings, and perceptions, qualitative interviews were used as a method in this study. A sub-group of six participants (three female and three male) were selected for these interviews based on their willingness to participate in this part of the project: Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 3, Participant 4, Participant 5, and Participant 6. A semi-structured interview protocol including open-ended questions was constructed to cover the required scope of the research questions, and qualitative interviews were then conducted with each participant in the sub-group. Dialogue between the researchers and the sub-group of participants through qualitative interviewing allowed data and knowledge to be co-constructed (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Mason, 2002; Richards, 2010).

During the interview, the participants were prompted to talk about their perceptions towards the characters in the novel, whether and how they felt the novel was relevant to their own lives, whether anything in the novel was similar to what they or someone else they know had experienced, which parts of the story brought out an emotional reaction, the values in the novel, and so on. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim.

3.2.3 Reflective journals

As tools of introspection, reflective journals are particularly well-matched for research that is descriptive and interpretive and for investigating behaviour in its context (Nunan, 1992). Reflective journals also facilitate self-observation and retrospection and personal accounts of feelings, thoughts, values, and reactions are studied systematically over a period of time (Etherington, 2004; Ortlipp, 2008).

To validate the study further and taking into consideration that some participants may prefer to write down particular responses rather than talk about them, the present study also used data gathered from the six focus participants' written reflections during their experience of reading the three novels. Participants were told that they could reflect further on the interview questions in their journals or write any other personal responses they had to the novels.

3.3 Data Analysis

The responses to the close-ended items in the questionnaire were analysed quantitatively, by conducting basic statistical analyses to calculate frequencies and percentages of responses to each item. The purpose of this analysis was to identify general patterns in the data. Inductive thematic analysis (Nowell et al., 2017) was used to identify the key themes from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, interviews, and journals. This process began with the lead researcher adding analytic notes and reflections throughout the process of conducting and transcribing the interviews as well as reading the reflective journals. The analytic notes were collated to generate a list of preliminary themes and ideas corresponding with each of the research questions. Specific excerpts from the data were identified to serve as illustrative examples of each theme. The researchers then read through the data again several times to identify more examples that corresponded with each theme, and through this process, the list of themes was refined. Based on the themes that emerged, a thick description was then written.

The quantitative and qualitative data from the study were compared to confirm and triangulate the findings before the research questions were answered. Member checks were also conducted with participants, and their feedback was taken into account to ensure the credibility of the findings and to avoid any discrepancies between the findings and the data.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

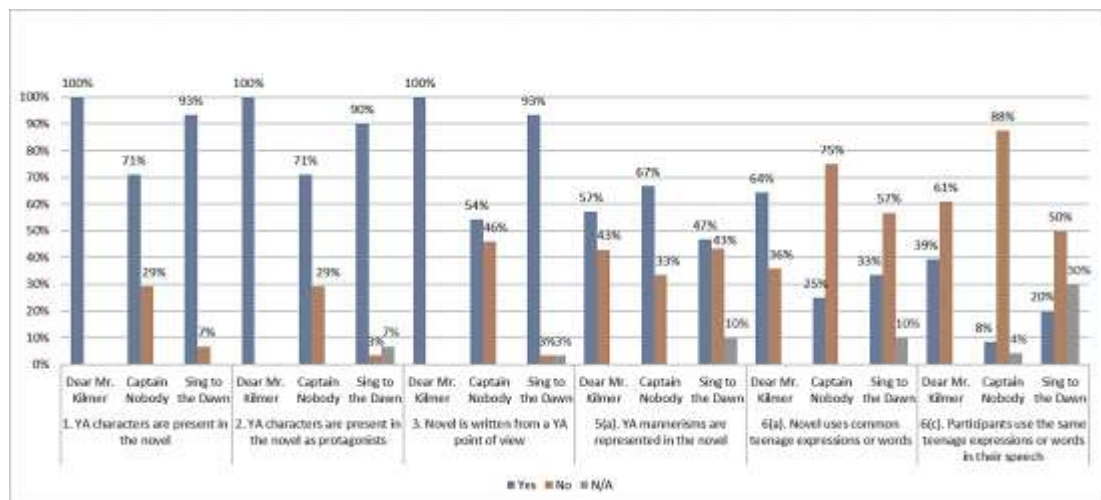
4.1 Presence of YA Protagonists, Mannerisms, and Expressions in the Novels

Table 1 and Figure 1 present the results from the quantitative analysis of the close-ended items in Section A of the questionnaire.

Table 1. Quantitative analysis of items in Section A of the questionnaire.

Questionnaire Item	'Dear Mr. Kilmer' (N=30)	'Captain Nobody' (N=30)	'Sing to the Dawn' (N=30)
1. YA characters are present in the novel	Yes – 100% No – 0%	Yes – 71% No – 29%	Yes – 93% No – 7%
2. YA characters are present in the novel as protagonists	Yes – 100% No – 0%	Yes – 71% No – 29%	Yes – 90% No – 3% N/A – 7%
3. Novel is written from a YA point of view	Yes – 100% No – 0%	Yes – 54% No – 46%	Yes – 93% No – 3% N/A – 3%
5(a). YA mannerisms are represented in the novel	Yes – 57% No – 43%	Yes – 67% No – 33%	Yes – 47% No – 43% N/A – 10%
6(a). The novel uses common teenage expressions or words	Yes – 64% No – 36%	Yes – 25% No – 75%	Yes – 33% No – 57% N/A – 10%
6(c). Participants use the same teenage expressions or words in their speech	Yes – 39% No – 61%	Yes – 8% No – 88% N/A – 4%	Yes – 20% No – 50% N/A – 30%

Note. N/A refers to the percentage of participants who did not respond to the item.



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Figure 1. Quantitative analysis of items in Section A of the questionnaire.

As the results in Table 1 and Figure 1 demonstrate, 'Dear Mr. Kilmer' and 'Sing to the Dawn' were considered by most participants to have YA characters and YA protagonists, while fewer participants considered the characters in 'Captain Nobody' to be YAs. Similarly, the majority of participants agreed that 'Dear Mr. Kilmer' and

'Sing to the Dawn' were written from a YA point of view, while the responses to the item on point of view were split almost equally between 'Yes' and 'No' for 'Captain Nobody'. In terms of the use of YA mannerisms in the novels, there were surprisingly more affirmative responses to 'Captain Nobody' than to the other two novels. Examples that participants provided as 'YA mannerisms' in 'Captain Nobody', however, were limited to descriptions of the clothes used by the characters, for example, "silver track shoes" and "Halloween costumes". Finally, in response to the items about the use of common teenage expressions or words in the novels, participants felt that 'Dear Mr. Kilmer' used the most teenage expressions, followed by 'Sing to the Dawn', and then 'Captain Nobody'. Examples of expressions and words from 'Dear Mr. Kilmer' and 'Sing to the Dawn' that participants reported using in their own speech were "What do you mean?", "But what for?", "C'mon, oh yes" and "It's not fair". The following sections discuss the results from the thematic analysis of the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, interviews, and journal entries.

4.2 Identification with the Pursuit of Personal Dreams

All the participants felt a definite sense of kinship with 14-year-old Dawan, the main character in 'Sing to the Dawn'. They could identify with her determination and single-minded perseverance in her struggle to claim the education scholarship that was rightfully hers. Word and phrases that participants used to describe Dawan in response to question 2 of Section B in the questionnaire (Would you consider the young adult characters strong? Why?) included "determined," "believe in herself," "does not give up," "unafraid to be different," "brave," "hold strong to her ideas," "confidence to do what's right," and "overcame discrimination". There was a feeling of admiration for Dawan's single-minded pursuit of her goal despite the obstacles that stood in her way. This admiration was also tinged with some expression of wistfulness among some participants who wished they were more like Dawan and less like the disillusioned older cousin in the book:

- (1) Like Dawan, I had set so many expectations and believed that I had so much potential in me. Sadly, the repercussions of my mistake turned me into Cousin Noi. I became bitter and disappointed by what life (or God) has given me. Despair changes people, kills hope, and shatters dreams. (Participant 1/Journal)

Participant 2, Participant 4, and Participant 6 could also identify with the struggle that Dawan had to go through to pursue her dream and could relate to being in families where it is not considered as important for girls to pursue their education as it is for boys. They talked about having to "fight for their rights" for equal educational opportunities in Malaysian tertiary education, where they felt higher education was sometimes not considered as important for girls as it was for boys. The identification became very personal to Participant 2 who felt a "deep sense of connection" with Dawan having experienced first-hand the perceptions of her own father who could not understand her own study and career goals. In her journal she writes:

- (2) It ends sadly for me because my family is unsupportive and averse to my ideas and worldview. They do not understand my need and drive to study and pursue my career goals. They shun what they don't understand and I feel like an outsider in my own family. (Participant 2/Journal)

The sense of struggle for identity and pursuing one's dreams was also immediately identifiable and relevant to participants in the YA protagonist of 'Dear Mr. Kilmer', 15-year-old, Richard. Almost all the participants felt they could relate to Richard's feeling of being like an outsider in their own families as they had felt the same 'disconnection' with their family at some time or other. In response to question 1 in Section B of the questionnaire (Is the young adult character(s) (the main character) believable and realistic? Elaborate with examples), one participant noted that "him [Richard] being a teenager, I can relate to him," while another remarked that he could connect with Richard "because Richard faces all the same challenges we face in our real-life". During the interviews, Participant 3, Participant 4, and Participant 6 went on to say that the feeling of not really belonging that Richard experienced was a common feeling among YAs like them. The search for identity has been identified as one of the characteristics of young adulthood, and the YA participants not only recognized this in the protagonists, Dawan and Richard, but went on to connect this to themselves, such as said by Participant 2 in (3):

- (3) I relate to a lot of the characters, but mostly Richard. I feel out of place often, even with my own family. (Participant 2/Interview)

Participant 3 and Participant 4 also recognised similar connections as Participant 2, and this is revealed in their journals:

- (4) Richard on the other hand was quite easy to relate to. Feeling isolated and alienated for his own beliefs and stance, I think, is something a lot of YAs relate to. (Participant 3/Journal)
- (5) I feel like I can relate to Richard in certain areas. Sometimes I do feel like I don't really connect with my other family members...Constantly feeling out of place, unsure of what the world has to offer, the bullying, being an outsider, and many more. People feel more connected when they feel like they know someone, somewhere, in the world who understands what they are going through. (Participant 4/Journal)

4.3 Identification with Societal Expectations and Gender Roles

One of the main issues that were discussed more than others was the gender roles especially in 'Sing to the Dawn'. In response to question 5 in Section C of the questionnaire (What do you think of the values in the novel? Are the values in the novel consistent with Malaysian society?), several participants were skeptical that gender discrimination could still be true in present-day Malaysia. These participants remarked that "we are all taught not to discriminate against women," "Malaysia society not gender bias," and "Malaysian government gives a lot of opportunities to study". However, a few other participants believed that the same privileged priorities for boys to pursue higher education compared to girls in 'Sing to the Dawn' still existed in modern 21st-century families in urban Malaysia. In the questionnaires, the participants remarked that Malaysian teenage girls still had to "fight for their rights" and face "gender inequality in Malaysia". The right to education and living in a patriarchal society were often repeated themes throughout the journal responses and during the interviews. In her journal, Participant 2 felt the necessity to speak out against social injustices including those which were gender-based.

- (6) I grew up in a very patriarchal and capitalistic society, and it was harder being a woman, who believes in socialism and is a feminist. I was very timid as a child, and I learned very quickly that

silence is often better. Somehow, as I grew up, I start to realise that the consequences of speaking up for myself and for what's right are more important than pleasing others. Be it moderate or radical, I quickly learned that it's a must to fight injustice, no matter how badly things end for me if I were to do so. (Participant 2/Journal)

When speaking about the rights to education, all the female participants expressed their feelings with added conviction. In her journal, Participant 1 writes about:

- (7) ...[the] constant need to remind themselves that as girls they deserve education and they deserve to be as successful, if not more successful than men. It's not just to create an equal society but in order to create a better society in Malaysia. (Participant 1/Journal)

4.4 Fear of Being Judged and the Need to Present a Façade

The fear of being judged for who you really are was another theme that surfaced in the journals, especially as they related to Richard in 'Dear Mr. Kilmer'. The participants while championing and empathising with Richard's "secret" passion for poetry understood at a personal level the need to "keep things private":

- (8) I think a lot of people are going through this. There are a lot of things that they keep to themselves because they're afraid of criticism and people are so easily judgmental nowadays. Therefore, I could relate to that. I am afraid to share a lot of my work because I'm scared that they wouldn't accept it. It's not the norm, perhaps. (Participant 3/Interview)

While most participants indicated in the questionnaire that they could not relate to Newt in 'Captain Nobody' with comments like "corny, awkward and not to mention very lame" used to describe him, one participant responded to item 1 in Section C (Is there anything in the novel that is similar to what you or have experienced or similar to what someone else is going through?) by writing that "Peer pressure can affect one's life drastically. Sometimes some changes must be made for us to fit in the society". Upon further probing during interviews, a few participants revealed that they could identify with the sense of "irrelevance" felt by Newt and the longing to be more well-liked than his brother. Participant 5, in particular, could relate to the idea of presenting a false front or façade to the public to avoid being judged. He drew parallels between Newt's dressing up in a superhero costume and the presentation of online personas:

- (9) It's very much like how some people are comfortable interacting with other people online. The other party does not know who you are; they cannot see your flaws and insecurities, and so you are able to express yourself without the fear of being judged. On the other hand, this can go wrong as some people tend to be so brazen and rude to the point of taking other people down online when in reality they're just cowards who can only hide behind a virtual façade. (Participant 5/Interview)

However, most participants recognized that taking on another identity or persona would not solve any problems they had. In response to item 2 in Section C of the questionnaire, "Can you relate to any of the young adult characters in any way?", one participant wrote that they learned not to be "always afraid to face our own problems", while another participant remarked that "No one will ever simply undergo any changes in personality just by wearing a simply made-up superhero suit".

4.5 Relationships and Communication with Siblings and Parents

The lack of communication between parents and their children was highlighted by the participants in their responses to all three novels. In 'Sing to the Dawn', they talked about the relationship or lack of it between Dawan and her father, and how it was not until the end that the father realized what was in his daughter's heart. The same theme surfaced in 'Dear Mr. Kilmer' where it took a lot to happen before Richard's father began to understand his son's love for writing poetry. On a different scale, the participants talked about how 10-year-old Newt in 'Captain Nobody' was almost always left to fend for himself due to the busyness of both his parents. Speaking about this and relating it to her own life, Participant 2 says:

- (10) I find that it's very relatable in the sense that a lot of fathers, Western or Eastern, they don't know how to talk to their children, especially daughters. It's like they don't know what to say. They don't know what to talk about, how to talk to their children. But I think they should. I think they forget that they should just talk. Period. They should just talk. But they don't. So, they prefer to just ignore, say 'hi', 'bye', and then 'okay, how are your studies?' that's it. (Participant 2/Interview)

The bond between siblings was also mentioned by the majority of participants in responding to all three novels. All participants stated that they could relate to the bond of love struggling with rivalry in the relationship between Dawan and her brother, Kwai, in 'Sing to the Dawn', and they could identify with the feeling of being overshadowed like Newt in 'Captain Nobody' and Richard in 'Dear Mr. Kilmer'. This was more evident in participants who felt that their sibling was in some way more exceptional than them. The responses, however, came out more as statements of fact rather than complaints with little or no traces of resentment. In her journal, one of the participants, Participant 1 writes:

- (11) Dawan and Kwai's relationship reminds me of me and my own brother. However, in my case, I'm the less smart one and he is obviously the brilliant one. (Participant 1/Journal)

Another participant, Participant 3, talked without any expression of rancour about how her sister seemed to get preferential treatment from parents when it came to education:

- (12) They weren't even happy at the thought of me pursuing my studies in a private university, much more wanting to go abroad. Somehow like Dawan, I believe that my younger sibling got special treatment because of the mistakes my parents had made with me and learned from their decisions with me and they had encouraged my sister to further her studies overseas. So, I guess, in some ways, I could really relate to how Dawan feels; to be overshadowed by the younger sibling. I feel like I was more Dawan than Kwai in the book. (Participant 3/Interview)

4.6 Identification with Emotions

4.6.1 Identification with emotions in 'Sing to the Dawn'

The reaction that stood out most significantly in all three parts of the study was a feeling of anger and indignation of gender discrimination and the double standards when it came to education opportunities for girls compared to boys. In response to item number 3 in Section C of the questionnaire (Do any parts of the story bring out a strong

emotional reaction in you?), the words and phrases that were most frequently used were “angry,” “sympathy,” and “gender discrimination”. Most participants felt empathy for Dawan and were “touched at [her] grandmother’s support” for her. Journal reflections revealed a deep sense of empathy towards the YA protagonist and evocation of strong emotional reactions towards the struggles she had to endure in pursuing her dreams. Participant 3 writes about the mixture of emotions she felt reading the novel:

- (13) The sadness, desperation, and excitement, all can be heard from Dawan’s point of view, and though it may not be relatable, it was understandable to me. Participant 1 mentions the ambiguity, stark difference between hope and despair’ which she goes on to say is interwoven in all parts of life including her own. (Participant 3/Journal)

In their interviews, Participant 2 and Participant 4 similarly expressed a strong sense of emotional connection to Dawan:

- (14) It was actually very touching. I’ve never cried reading a book before, but I did reading this one. Because the ending was like, after all her hard work, suddenly she doubts herself, again, which is very realistic because you’re going to embark on a huge journey to somewhere that you’ve never been to. You’ve never even been outside the village and suddenly you go on a bus to the city and with no one there. So, she doubted herself...I think her voice really reached out to me among all the other novels. That’s why the strong emotional reaction was there. (Participant 2/Interview)

Although most responses indicated that they found large parts of the novel “sad”, they were happy with the positive resolution at the end and the hopeful note that the novel ends on.

- (15) I felt sad that she had to fight so very hard for something that I think everyone deserves. So, throughout the whole novel, I think sadness was a huge part of it. And in the end, I was glad that she got a happy ending. (Participant 4/Interview)

4.6.2 *Identification with emotions in ‘Captain Nobody’*

Despite responses that indicated the participants’ lack of identification with the protagonist, a significant number of responses stated that they could feel the emotions in the story. For example, there was evident sympathy for Newt living in the shadow of his brother and having to take on adult responsibilities at his age. In response to item number 3 in Section C of the questionnaire, one participant wrote “It makes me feel sympathy to Newt as he was being ignored by everyone in school. People see through him, and even the newspaper stated that his brother is the only child of the family,” while another participant felt sorry that “He lives in the shadows of his brother who was a famous football star. Both of his parents were too busy with their job until they ignored the efforts made by Newt, cooking breakfast for them”.

There was also an expression of annoyance and sadness at the way the character of Reggie Ratner was treated and the seemingly flippant way his attempted suicide was portrayed.

- (16) I do feel annoyed by how the book ended. Newt is more famous than his brother for doing helpful but reckless things. Is it a good message to send to impressionable teenagers who already think popularity equals survival? Extreme sadness for Reggie, who was wrongfully accused by people who did not witness the event. (Participant 5/Interview)

4.6.3 Identification with emotions in 'Dear Mr. Kilmer'

Most of the responses indicated there was a definite evocation of emotions and bonding with the events and issues in the novel. The words "sadness," "grief," "sympathy," and "empathy" featured prominently in responses to item number 3 in Section C of the questionnaire (Do any parts of the story bring out a strong emotional reaction in you?). The participants felt Richard's pain as he struggled between the need to be himself and conform to expectations of family and society. They admired his courage in standing up for what he believed was right despite the possibility of being mocked or ridiculed. It also became a point of self-reflection for some of the participants as reflected in their journals.

(17) Let this be a reminder for me to stop being a people pleaser. One of the reasons why I tend to do this is because of the fear of being hated by anyone, even if I'm not close to them at all. I wish I was better at handling people. Instead, I always say and do the wrong things which end up in many fights, misunderstandings, and tears. (Participant 1/Journal)

Although the participants described the book as being somewhat of a tear-jerker, they felt that similarly to 'Sing to the Dawn', this novel also ended on an optimistic note.

5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The objective of the study was to explore the responses of Malaysian YAs towards the novels used as texts in Malaysian secondary schools. Specifically, the study sought to explore whether Malaysian YAs found the novels relevant to their lives and the extent to which they identified with the main characters, themes, issues, and events in the novels. The findings of the study indicated that YAs could identify with the characters and issues in the novels but varying degrees. The participants could identify with the determination and perseverance of the YA protagonists in pursuing their personal dreams in 'Sing to the Dawn' and 'Dear Mr. Kilmer'. To different extents, they could feel the struggles that these characters went through in trying to achieve their personal goals, and they related it to some of their own situations.

The YAs also demonstrated critical literacy in recognizing inequities in terms of societal expectations and the portrayal of gender roles (Wu, 2014). There was a definite sense of admiration for the strength of character shown by the protagonists in these two novels, a longing to be more like these characters, and a wish for role models they could emulate. In both these novels, the participants could also relate to the situation where some things needed to be kept secret or private for fear of being judged or not getting the desired responses from others who mattered in their lives. In 'Captain Nobody', they could relate to the need to hide "behind a mask" for the same reason. The conflict between having to live up to societal and parental expectations and being true to one's dreams was another issue that the YA participants could identify with. Family relationships were also highlighted in their responses, especially the lack of communication between parents and children in all three novels. This was seen as a reflection of what went on in some of their own families. Sibling rivalry, however, was treated in a very matter-of-fact way with no feelings of resentment expressed about the preferential treatment received by some of their siblings.

There were significant instances of strong emotional reactions towards ‘Sing to the Dawn’ and ‘Dear Mr. Kilmer’ compared to ‘Captain Nobody’. The participants felt anger, empathy, and indignation during the different parts of their reading. They could identify with the sadness, desperation, and frustration of the YA protagonists, Dawan and Richard in these two novels and felt the same note of hopefulness at the ending of the stories. Compared to the other two novels, the participants could not identify on the same level with ‘Captain Nobody’ stating the reason as the age of the ten-year-old protagonist and a storyline that they found unbelievable. Nevertheless, the fact that all three novels ended on a hopeful note received a positive response from all the participants.

The responses of the YA participants point towards a strong identification with the issues that are relevant to them in this stage of young adulthood and these correspond closely to the developmental tasks previously identified by YA developmental theorists (Erikson, 1968; Havighurst, 1972; Kohlberg, 1981) These include the YA’s search for self-identity, the seeking for emotional independence from parents and other adults and the beginning of an acquisition of a personal ideology. The responses from the study also correspond with previous studies on YAL which point towards the YA reader seeking to find themselves in the pages they read (Groenke et al., 2015; Spring, 2016; Stephens, 2007).

It is also interesting to note that the YA participants did not highlight some of the other themes depicted in the novels like the exploitation of farmers in ‘Sing to the Dawn’, racial prejudice in ‘Dear Mr. Kilmer’ and coping with the tragedy of a loved one in a coma. While these were significant themes in the novels as well, they may not have had the same relevance to the YA participants as other parts of the novels did. This brings the question of how much relevance is needed to the YA when texts are being selected. Is it enough to provide texts which relate to them completely in the present, or should they include other issues which although not immediately relatable to them would be something that prepares them for the future? These would be things they need to know and to be aware of and to possibly give attention to when they journey on towards adulthood. But for the present time as Participant 2 writes in her journal:

To read books that one can relate to is what makes people fall in love with books in the first place. It’s hard to ignore something when you see yourself on those pages. (Participant 2)

6. CONCLUSION

In summary, the findings from the study suggest that YA readers prefer books they can connect with in terms of the relevance of the characters and issues and that they identify with characters who model traits such as perseverance, the strength of character, and loyalty. This is consistent with the results of other studies (e.g. Corrigan & Chiad, 2014; Fogal, 2010) which have shown that students prefer a reader-response approach that allows them to move beyond a focus on developing language skills, to developing a personal relationship with a text that allows them to learn about the world, to discover their own beliefs, values, and world views, and to empathize and connect with the characters in the text. An implication of this is that in order to keep YA readers engaged with literary texts and have the desire to continue reading, the texts that are used in language classrooms should allow learners to see themselves in what they read,

and speak to their own developmental phase. The texts that are selected for the English language classroom should also be more representative of the linguistic and cultural diversity of students in multicultural societies.

A limitation of this study was that it was conducted among YAs from a similar age group, socioeconomic background, and geographical location. Another limitation is that the study only reported on students' perspectives. Future research could be conducted with groups of respondents coming from different ends of the young adulthood boundaries and different linguistic and socio-cultural settings, to look at how learners' background and lived experiences can impact their interpretation of and responses to YAL. In addition, it would be beneficial to conduct classroom observations on how these texts are taught and to obtain the perspectives of teachers and other stakeholders involved in the selection and implementation of the English literature component in schools. The findings from additional research can provide an additional source of direction to curriculum developers when the selection of future texts for YAs needs to be made in other educational contexts.

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APPENDIX

Thank you for agreeing to respond to this questionnaire which is part of a research project undertaken by UNITAR International University, Petaling Jaya. We want to reassure you that your responses to the questions here will be completely confidential. The general purpose of this questionnaire is to find out your response to the novel that you have read and the extent to which it is relevant to you.

This questionnaire consists of 3 sections; Section A, Section B, and Section C. Please answer the questions in the spaces provided.

If you require more space to answer the questions, you may write on another sheet of paper and attach it with this questionnaire.

SECTION A

1. Are there young adult (age 11-20) character(s) in the novel? (Yes/No)
If your answer to (1) is 'Yes,' then is/are the young adult character(s) the main protagonist(s)? (Yes/No)
2. Is the novel written from a young adult's point of view? (Yes/No)
3. Whose 'voice' do you hear most in the novel?
 - a) Does the novel match the descriptions of young adults' (11-20) mannerisms? (Yes/No)
 - b) If your answer to (a) is 'Yes,' please provide two examples.
(Sentence/Page/Chapter)
- a) Are there expressions or words that teenagers commonly use? (Yes/No)
4. If your answer to (a) is 'Yes,' please provide two examples.
(Sentence/Page/Chapter)
5. Do you also use the same expressions when you speak? (Yes/No)
If your answer to Question 1 in SECTION A is 'Yes' then please continue to answer questions in SECTION B followed by SECTION C
If your answer to Question 1 is 'No' then go straight to SECTION C

SECTION B

1. Is the young adult character(s) (the main character) believable and realistic?
Elaborate with examples.
2. Would you consider the young adult characters strong? Why?
3. Do they undergo any kind of changes in the course of the story? Elaborate with examples.
4. Are there instances where the young adult characters have a kind of conflict within themselves? Elaborate with examples.

SECTION C

1. Is there anything in the novel that is similar to what you have experienced or similar to what someone else is going through?
2. Can you relate to any of the young adult characters in any way?
3. Do any parts of the story bring out a strong emotional reaction in you (anger, sadness, sympathy, empathy, etc.)? Please provide examples.
4. How does the novel end? Is there a happy ending and/or some form of resolution or closure?
5. What do you think of the values in the novel? Are the values in the novel consistent with Malaysian society?
6. Do you think the novel is suitable for you as a Malaysian secondary school student? Why?

End of questionnaire.



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Lecturers' Perception on the Implementation of Approaches to Teaching Literature in EFL Classrooms

R. Bunga Febriani*
Dwi Rukmini
Januarius Mujiyanto
Issy Yuliasri

Postgraduate Program of English Language Education, Universitas Negeri
Semarang, Semarang 50237, INDONESIA

Abstract

The selection of appropriate approach(es) to teaching literature in EFL classrooms becomes a necessity that they can result in good performance of the students, both in their critical thinking aspect and their language proficiency. The problem appears when the lecturer does not implement a suitable approach to literary analysis when teaching literature to the EFL students. These problems led to the student's inability to perform as expected. The present study examines how lecturers perceive the implementation of approaches to teaching literature in EFL classrooms and their relations to improving the students' reflective writing skills as the manifestation of the student's responses to the literary works. Among the approaches studied were the Language-based approach, the Reader-Response approach, and the Philosophical approach. The study was carried out on six lecturers teaching the Literary Criticism course in the EFL classrooms at the university level. A questionnaire was distributed to the lecturers teaching this course at a university in Semarang, Indonesia, containing eight-question items regarding how they perceive the literary approaches and how effective they used them in improving the students' reflective writing skills, in encouraging the students to think critically about the events in literary works and in relating the readings to some aspects of their own lives. The study revealed that each literary analysis approach in teaching literature has its benefits and characteristics. The

* Corresponding author, email: bunga.febriani@gmail.com

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study results also showed that each approach has its strengths and weaknesses that differ from one another.

Keywords: Approaches to teaching literature, language-based approach, literary works, reader-response approach, philosophical approach.

1. INTRODUCTION

Among the controversies concerning the importance of using literature in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms is that some experts believed literature in language classrooms plays an essential role in teaching and learning the English language to EFL students. [Aghagolzadeh and Tajabadi \(2012\)](#) synthesized some benefits of using literature in language classrooms. They summed up that literature could provide the medium for language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) to improve.

According to the authors, the importance of teaching literature in the language classrooms covered literature as language enrichment, literature as valuable, authentic materials, literature as personal involvement, and literature as cultural enrichment. Scholars under the same concern echoed these reasons. A previous study emphasized the authentic materials provided by literature as a valuable source for learning the language since they present the reality of language ([Daskalovska & Dimova, 2012](#)). As an authentic text, literature employed language activities that were important for advanced language learners to be exposed to a wide variety of literary texts, which eventually exposed them to cultural enrichment and personal involvement.

[Lazar \(1993\)](#) suggested other advantages of using literature in language classrooms by pointing out that literature is motivating, exposing students to complex themes and unexpected use of language. He also provided students access to other cultures by stimulating their language acquisition and language awareness, developing the students' interpretative abilities, and aiding them to stimulate their imagination. [Widyahening and Wardhani \(2016\)](#) believed that literary appreciation could grow the critical mind's understanding, appreciation, and sensitivity to the literary work.

Currently, teaching literature at the English Department in one private university in West Java has not been satisfying. The cause of this problem has been the poor performance of the students in understanding literary works and their inability to make benefits of it in terms of language skill proficiency. Literature provides many ways for language learners to enhance their critical thinking skills and linguistic proficiency. However, the student's poor performance may be triggered by the lecturers' inability to find the proper approach to literary analysis in teaching literature.

Lecturers of literary courses can implement certain approaches to literary analysis when teaching literature for EFL students. [Van \(2009\)](#) suggested six approaches to literary analysis that can be used with the EFL students. The approaches were New Criticism, Structuralism, Stylistic, Reader-Response, Language-based, and Critical Literacy approaches. Following Van's elaboration, [Fauziah \(2016\)](#) explained some approaches to teaching literature, such as the Language-based approach, Reader-Response approach, and Information-based approach. Other approaches were the Language model, the Language Growth, and the Personal Growth model developed by [Carter and Long \(1991, as cited in Mustakim et al., 2014\)](#).

Consequently, the present research dealt with how lecturers perceived the approaches to literary analysis in teaching literature. It also sought each approach's strengths and weaknesses according to the lecturers' experiences of teaching literature in the language classrooms. Previous research results showed that lecturers implemented different approaches when teaching literature to EFL students (Fauziah, 2016; Kinasih, 2020; Varita, 2017). Fauziah (2016) presented the implementation of integration of the models of literary approaches to teaching literature, namely the Language-based approach, the Reader-Response approach, and the Information-based Approach. Then, Kinasih (2020) explained the Reader-Response approach. Meanwhile, Varita (2017) researched the implementation of the Literature Circle approach to teaching literature. Therefore, the current study aimed to describe the lecturers' perception towards implementing the approaches to teaching literature in EFL classrooms and the strengths and weaknesses of each approach in teaching literature to EFL students. The approaches discussed in the present study focused on the Language-based approach, the Reader-Response approach, and the Philosophical approach to teaching literature. The former two approaches are based on the review that was carried out by Van (2009). Meanwhile, the latter is another approach to teaching literature used when teaching literature to EFL students (Fauziah, 2016). Previous related studies referred to in this article showed that most were concerned with only a single approach to teaching literature, meanwhile this study focused on more than one approach used by the lecturers who taught literature in the English language classrooms at the university level.

The present study was carried out to find answers to the following problems:

1. What are the lecturers' perceptions of implementing the literary approaches in teaching literature in the EFL classrooms?
2. What are the strengths and weaknesses of each approach to teaching literature in the EFL classrooms?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Approaches to Literary Analysis

Many approaches can be used in analyzing literary works, depending on what one wants to emphasize his/her analysis on. Various approaches can be utilized to study a literary work. A specific approach is used to read, analyze, evaluate, interpret, and judge a certain literary work. Some of the approaches to literary analysis are Feminist criticism, Marxist Criticism, Psychological Criticism, Formalist Criticism, and Reader-Response Criticism (Guerin, 2005). In the context of the approaches to literary analysis to be used in the language classrooms, Van (2009) reviewed six frequently discussed approaches to literary analysis. He elaborated the six approaches as 1) New Criticism, 2) Structuralism, 3) Stylistic, 4) Reader-Response, 5) Language-based, and 6) Critical Literacy.

Hence, this research only focused on three approaches, in which two were taken from Van (2009) and Fauziah (2016). They are the Language-based Approach (LBA), Reader-Response Approach (RRA), and Philosophical Approach (PA). They are further elaborated in the next sub-sections.

2.1.1 Language-based Approach (LBA)

Van (2009) pointed out that the Language-based Approach (LBA) emphasized the awareness of the language of literature since this is a fundamental stage for EFL students. The LBA provided various language instruction activities, such as brainstorming, rewriting, and vocabulary and comprehension building. Experts in the LBA believe that teaching literature to EFL students is emphasized in integrating literature and language in classroom teaching. This view is based on the consideration that the LBA can provide both literature and language in the teaching of literature.

Another research indicating the integration of literature and language was carried out by Carter and Long (1991). They proposed that the language-based teaching pedagogy by integrating literature and language can develop the students' literary understanding and appreciation capacities. Accordingly, literature can improve the students' proficiency in both language aspects and the appreciation aspect. Language learning and literary study are interdependent. This means that using literature to EFL students can improve both the language proficiency and the interpretative ability of a literary text.

According to Lazar (1993), one of the Language-based literature teaching pedagogy assumptions was that studying the language of literary works can help integrate language and understanding more closely. Yimwilai (2015) also suggests that the Language-based model for teaching literature can help EFL students enhance their knowledge of English as the target language for EFL learners.

2.1.2 Reader-Response Approach (RRA)

Rosenblatt (1978, in Iskhak et al., 2020) developed the transactional theory, which became the root for the Reader-Response approach (RRA). She explained that reading and writing share a necessary involvement with the text. The transaction referred to the relationship in which reading and writing conditions intertwined in a mutually constituted situation.

The roles of the readers, the text, and the social/cultural context had an impact on the transaction between the text and the readers (Iskhak, 2015). From that view, he organized five main theoretical perspectives of Reader-response as follows: the textual, experiential, psychological, social, and cultural perspectives. Beach's (1993) view on the roles of the readers, the text, and the social/cultural context supported Rosenblatt's (1993) Transactional Theory as elaborated by Adeani et al. (2020, p. 139), stating that "the interrelationship between reading and writing the literary works are by Rosenblatt's Transactional theory, which said that reading and writing is involved with the text, as Beach suggested". Febriani (2019) gave a similar thought of Reader-Response as an approach to literary analysis where she believed that the RRA encouraged the students to think critically about the literary works.

It can be concluded that the RRA is a literary teaching approach in which the readers can give responses to literary works. The approach is emphasized on the importance of the readers' role in interpreting the text. Through Reader-response, the students can give various interpretations to a literary text.

2.1.3 Philosophical Approach (PA)

The Philosophical Approach (PA) emphasized finding moral values that are contained in literary works. [Rachmawati et al. \(2020\)](#) wrote that the PA was related to the philosophical belief that would affect the moral value and how someone would act. Teaching literature to EFL students by implementing the moral/philosophical approach means encouraging them to believe that the larger part of literature is to teach morality. Also, encouraging the students to use this approach is beneficial in that it probes philosophical issues contained in a literary work. Consequently, teaching literature to EFL students by implementing the moral-philosophical approach could mean teaching them to see literary works of literature as authentic materials to learn about values and philosophical issues.

This approach also has several significances similar to LBA and RRA. Previous research mentioned some benefits of the moral-philosophical approach in teaching literature to EFL students. Firstly, it enhances students' thinking skills, and secondly, it improves the students' foreign language proficiency, especially the productive skills through asking and answering some philosophical questions ([Dabbagh & Noshadi, 2016](#)). They highlighted that philosophy-based language teaching encouraged students to think critically and creatively about the world around them.

3. METHODS

The study aims to describe six lecturers' perceptions towards the implementation of the approaches to teaching literature in the EFL classrooms and describe the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching approaches used by the lecturers to teach Literary Criticism courses in the EFL classrooms. Each of them had taught the courses by using three approaches of LBA, RRA, and PA. This was among the reasons why the researchers found it interesting to investigate their perceptions of the use of these literary approaches based on their own experiences. Besides, the researchers also intended to find out the strengths and weaknesses of each approach to literary analysis.

In conducting this study, the researchers employed a qualitative research design. [Fraenkel et al. \(2012\)](#) explained that a qualitative method emphasizes describing a particular activity, situation, field, behavior of people in-depth and in a particular way. Therefore, an open-ended questionnaire was distributed to six lecturers teaching the Literary Criticism course to EFL students at a university in Semarang, Indonesia. They have earlier given their consent to be the participants of this study. Furthermore, due to the pandemic, the questionnaire was administered through Google Form. The questions asked to them were:

1. What approaches are you currently using in teaching literature to the EFL students?
2. Do you encourage the EFL students to manifest their interpretation and interaction with the literary works in written form such as reflective writing/reflection?
3. Do you think the approaches that you are currently using give any significance in improving the students' reflective writing skills?
4. How are the approaches effective in improving the students' reflective writing skills?
5. Have you used other approaches besides these three approaches to teaching literature to the EFL students?

6. How do you perceive the currently used approaches to teaching literature to EFL students?
7. What are the strengths of each approach that you use for teaching literature?
8. What are the weaknesses of each approach that you use for teaching literature?

The participants were given the freedom to answer the questions in the open-ended questionnaire in their own words (Popping, 2015). Their answers were then sought for patterns, further coded, and linked to conceptual categories. Themes were identified and each of them presented the results of this study. The lecturer participants in this study were coded as L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, and L6, respectively.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the questionnaire distributed to the lecturers revealed some findings. The findings are elaborated in the next subsections that are divided to answer each research question of this study.

4.1 The Lecturers' Perceptions of Implementing Literary Analysis Approaches to in Teaching Literature

4.1.1 Kinds of approaches used to teach literature in the EFL classroom

The lecturers' responses concerning the implementation of the approach to teaching literature to the EFL students have revealed some points. Firstly, some lecturers were implementing one single approach when teaching literature to EFL students. Some others combined more than one approach. L1 implemented the RRA to teaching literature, L2 and L3 lecturers implemented the LBA, L4, and L5 combined more than one approach to teaching literature, and finally, L6 only implemented the PA to teaching literature.

The RRA was explained by the teachers to offer both teachers and students to be actively engaged in the literary works. It facilitated the students' critical thinking activities since it encouraged them to draw on their personal experiences, opinions, and feelings in their interpretation of literature. Febriani et al. (2020) believed that by using the Reader-Response approach, the students of literature class were capable of expressing more than only their personal feelings, but they also began to give critical thinking upon the given literary texts. She added that discussion questions in the RRA gave the students the idea of how to express their ideas and thought on a piece of paper. Related to this view, Iskhak et al. (2017) agreed that the Reader-Response theory offered reading-writing activities.

Concerning the implementation of the RRA to reflection writing, reflection facilitates the writer-readers to record their interaction and interpretation of literary works. Adeani et al. (2020) explain that the reader's reflective thinking towards a literary text could be manifested in reflection. The purpose of this activity included considering the process of learning, reviewing something, building theory from observations, engaging in personal self-development, and empowering oneself as an individual (Adeani et al., 2020).

The second approach to teaching literature is the LBA. This approach in teaching EFL students highlighted the use of literary texts to improve the students' English

proficiency, such as improving vocabulary, pronunciation, speaking, and reading. Supporting this view, Choudhary (2016) explained that it emphasized the awareness of the language of literature and that it was the basic stage for language learners and facilitated the students' responses and experiences with literary works. The activities in the LBA included brainstorming, rewriting, and incorporating reading. By using the LBA, the students were encouraged to develop language skills through interaction, collaboration, discussion, and collective learning (Choudhary, 2016).

Another approach used by the lecturer participants in this current study is the PA to teaching literature. Critics of the PA believed that the purpose of teaching literature is to teach morality and to examine philosophical issues contained in literary works. According to Rachmawati et al. (2020), the philosophical belief became the fundamental that one had chosen to decide what was right and was not right that would impact someone's moral value.

4.1.2 The lecturers' encouragement and significance for students to manifest interpretation and interaction to literary works in reflective writing essays or reflections

Based on the responses of the lecturer participants, the finding of the second questionnaire item revealed that a majority of the lecturers encouraged their students to manifest their responses to literary works in reflective writing essays or reflections. The different answers of the lecturers indicated that the proper approach to teaching literature depended on the vision of the teaching of literature in the EFL classrooms. The RRA to teaching literature was used when the lecturers intended to encourage the EFL students to provide critical thinking in writing reflections of responses to literature. In the meantime, the LBA was used when the lecturers intended to improve the writing quality of reflections to literary analysis. Meanwhile, the PA was used when the lecturers encouraged students to dig deeper into the moral value of literary works. The use of more than one approach to teaching literature, in this case, the combination of the RAA and the LBA, is an attempt of the lecturers to benefit more, both in critical thinking skills and in language mastery, in the written reflection of responses to literary works. This is also suggested by Yimwilai (2015) who suggested that literature instructors and educators should consider implementing the integrated approach.

Reflective writing or reflection is one of the ways that the readers can manifest their interpretation of literary works. It is a kind of personal academic writing in which a reader can give his/her thought of a literary work. Using reflection in responding to a literary work gives a big advantage for a reader to convey what he/she is thinking after reading a literary work. Since a reader of a literary work is demanded to think critically upon the work, reflection helps him or her to make a connection between theory and practice, also between his or her knowledge in the past and in the present time (Febriani, 2019). It is also believed that by writing a reflection, a reader gains self-development and deeper learning by looking back at the events reflected in literary works (Febriani, 2019). In the same vein, Gorlewski and Greene (2011) also found that reflections made by the students had demonstrated that they engaged in reflection as they engaged in creative and critical uses of their knowledge and skills. Furthermore, the students' engagement in their writings increased since they were encouraged by the process of reflection during the writing process (Gorlewski &

Greene, 2011). The result of the present study reflected that the lecturers had chosen a proper way to manifest the interpretation of literary works in reflective writing.

4.1.3 The effectiveness of the approaches used to teach literature

The lecturers' responses to the question regarding their perception of the effectiveness of the approach in improving the students' reflective writing skills revealed that each approach to teaching literature had its positive results in improving the students' reflective writing skills. The following are excerpts of the lecturers' answers to this question.

- (1) After applying the Language-based approach in teaching literature, I can see that this approach is effective in improving the students' reflective writing skills. This approach facilitates the students with many activities that can trigger their skills in writing. By using this approach, the students can do brainstorm, use their background knowledge, and predict a story. (L2)
- (2) Reader-Response approach, to some extent, is effective in improving reflective writing skills. Students are simultaneously demanded to self-manage their reading-writing integration. (L1)
- (3) The approach (Philosophical approach) stimulated students to dig implicit meaning and also endeavor to get moral philosophical in literary works. (L6)
- (4) Yes, besides the Reader-response approach, I also use or mix it with the Language-based approach in teaching literature to EFL students. (L4)

As exemplified in (1), (2), and (3), the lecturer participants believed that the approach to teaching literature they currently used had positive values that could improve the students' reflective writing skills. L1 who taught literature using the RRA believed that the approach effectively improved their students' reflective writing skills since they were encouraged to simultaneously self-manage their reading and writing integration. Then, L2 and L3, who preferred LBA thought that this approach effectively improved the students' reflective writing skills since it facilitated the students with activities that triggered their skills in writing. Meanwhile, L6 who chose PA believed that the approach stimulated the students to explore the meanings beyond and to grasp moral values contained in literary works.

L1 further found the RRA allowed him to encourage students to strengthen their critical thinking. Accordingly, Woodruff and Griffin (2017) noted that the RRA met the needs of the students since it did not require the students to prove their interpretation by only writing summaries or answering questions, rather, they were encouraged to explain their experience by recording their thoughts about a text including their explanation of their feelings, their analysis and evaluation, and their recommendation to a friend, etc. The effectiveness of implementing the RRA in teaching literature was also suggested by Chou (2015), who considered the Reader-Response theory to be effective in engaging the students with their reading and responding to literature, thus enabling higher-level comprehension.

L2 and L3 suggested that the LBA is more appropriate and effective to be used when teaching literature to EFL students. This consideration was based on their purpose of literature teaching, which was to improve the students' English proficiency through reading literary works. This view is supported by Choudhary (2016) who concurred that the LBA facilitated the students' responses and experiences with

literature. It also improved a variety of language activities such as brainstorming to activate background knowledge, rewriting the text, vocabulary building, and comprehension, forming an opinion, and engaging in debates (Choudhary, 2016).

L6 suggested that the use of PA to teach literature to EFL students emphasized teaching moral and philosophical issues through literature. He believed that teaching literature through literary works helped teach the students moral values and philosophical issues. This view is supported by Rashid et al. (2010) who corresponded that this moral philosophical approach to teaching literature focused on discovering moral values while reading a particular literary text.

Finally, in (4), L4, similar to L5, preferred to use both RRA and LBA in their literature classes. This was because using and mixing both appropriately, it could make the students more active in their reading and writing activities. Here, the students were not only taught to increase their literary skills, but also their critical thinking at the same time. This was done, for example, through group work, where they could learn from each other when sharing their reader response towards a literary work.

4.1.4 The use of other approaches to teaching literature

Based on the responses of the lecturer participants, the finding of the fifth questionnaire item revealed that other than the currently implemented approach to teaching literature, the majority of the lecturers have used other approaches to teaching literature in EFL classrooms as well. This was purposed to determine the proper approach to teaching literature so that the students can improve their reflective writing and critical thinking skills.

The following are excerpts of the lecturers' answers to this question.

- (5) I have tried to use literature circles to support response-based to encourage group discussion. In literature circles, students have to interpret the text collaboratively. Each individual has a different job to interpret the text and then together share what they have got. (L4)
- (6) Yes, I have used an information-based approach. (L5)

As exemplified in (5) and (6), the lecturer participants had managed to implement other approaches to teaching literature when teaching in EFL classrooms. These approaches were the literature circle approach and the information-based approach to teaching literature. Their reasons to use other approaches at times were to avoid students' boredom. Furthermore, the literature circle approach (Hsu, 2004) could also help students' socialization and cooperation in class (i.e., from group work or discussion) and peer learning. Meanwhile, the information-based approach was more teacher-centered and demanded a lot of the teacher's input in providing students with various contents of literary texts, such as historical, political, cultural, and social backgrounds (Sii & Chen, 2016).

4.1.5 The lecturers' perceptions on the currently used approaches to teaching literature

The lecturers' responses to the question regarding their perception of the currently used approaches to teaching literature to the EFL students revealed that they

shared a similar opinion about the three approaches to teaching literature that they implemented in the literature classroom.

The following are excerpts of the lecturers' answers to this question.

- (7) The chosen current approach to teaching literature or literary criticism is inevitably fruitful and influential to my students' courage and engagements as well as motivation in reading literary works. Consequently, they also tend to be convenient to respond to the literary works they have read.
- (8) These approaches that I have seen work well recently in my teaching activities e.g., reader response and language-based. Students can involve their personal opinions, feelings, and background knowledge to create meanings of the text. It helps students' reading comprehension by giving a response to what they read.
- (9) This approach may be pretty good because it does not only focus on learning literature but creates awareness of language use in the classroom as well. Literature is a medium for students to express their personal opinions, feelings, and emotions. So, through this, students will understand the context thoroughly and understand the use of language better. In addition, students can be encouraged to connect their vocabulary with other aspects of the language.

As exemplified in (7), (8), and (9), it can be seen that the lecturers have positive perceptions of the currently used approach to teaching literature in EFL classrooms. The reasons varied depending on the goal of each approach that they chose to use. L1 who implemented the RRA believed that this approach to teaching literature is beneficial and influential to encourage the students' engagement and motivation in reading literary works. This view reflected previous research which stated that this approach provided an opportunity for the students' active involvement and full engagement in reading a text and class discussion on it (Khatib, 2011).

L2 and L3 who implemented the LBA believed that the approach to teaching literature worked as expected in the classroom. According to them, based on their responses in the open-ended questionnaire, they saw that the students could involve their personal opinions, feelings, and background knowledge to create meanings of the text in their essays. This belief is supported by previous research that stated that LBA instruction provides meaningful interpretation and evaluation of the text; and its implementation can guide students on the specific piece of literature based on their levels of proficiency, lexical, and discourse knowledge (Dhillon et al., 2014).

As for the PA, L6 believed that this moral approach is appropriate in teaching literature because it did not only focus on learning literature, but also created the awareness of the language used in the classroom. Through this approach, the lecturer could teach morality and values in life through literary works. Supporting this view, Al Sabiri and Kaymakamoğlu (2019) explained that this approach is aimed at finding moral qualities in a literary work and requiring advanced critical thinking skills. This means that teaching literature using this approach is quite challenging compared to other approaches.

4.2 The Lecturers' Strengths and Weaknesses of the Teaching Approaches to Teaching Literature

4.2.1 *The lecturers' perceptions of the strengths of the used approaches*

The lecturers' responses to this question revealed that there were significant strengths of each approach to teaching literature to the EFL students.

The following are excerpts of the lecturers' answers to this question.

- (10) RRA is not only able to improve our ability in literary works but also be able to improve language skills. Because this approach integrates literature study with the mastery of language by facilitating the students' responses and experience through literature. (L1)
- (11) The current approach (i.e., LBA) offers us (literature/reading teacher/educators) many pedagogical merits to empower students' active involvement in the classroom teaching-learning process. They are demanded to self-direct their learning and be responsible for the achievement. (L2)
- (12) The combination of both approaches (i.e., RRA and LBA) enables me to provide full force to get my students to think critically and at the same time, improve their language awareness and use in the classroom. (L4)
- (13) This approach (i.e., PA) is effective to stimulate students to dive into intended meaning and get philosophical morals in literary works. (L6)

The lecturers' responses to the question regarding their perception showed the benefits of each approach to teaching literature to the EFL students. According to L2, the strength of the LBA was that it allowed students to improve their ability in understanding literary works and language skills since it integrated literature study with the mastery of language. The strength of the RRA, as proposed by L1, lies in its pedagogical merits in empowering the students' active involvement in the classroom teaching-learning process. L6 added that the strength of the PA lies in its ability to encourage the students to get the intended meaning and the moral lesson contained in the literary works.

The RRA is an approach that is emphasized on the improvement of the students' critical thinking through reading literary works. The readers are encouraged to be able to interpret a story through multiple interpretations of a text using textual evidence and support (but must justify their multiple interpretations of a text using textual evidence and support (Woodruff & Griffin, 2017), as well as express their thoughts, feelings, and their relation of the text to their own life (Leung, 2002; Woodruff & Griffin, 2017). In fact, there are several advantages of using this approach to teach literature to EFL students. Among the advantages, it allows the readers to interpret a literary text in various ways, it also gives the readers to bring personality traits, the past and the present experiences to the text, it can also encourage the students to look beyond the stated meanings and dig a deeper meaning of the text, it allows the readers to see different perspectives of others, and it also focuses on the readers' response to the text (Febriani, 2019; Leung, 2002; Woodruff & Griffin, 2017). It can be concluded that the strengths of the RRA lie in the students' active involvement and critical thinking that is highly required to interpret the meaning contained in a literary work. Moreover, the RRA is also found to foster the students' involvement with the literary text, raising the

students' awareness of the importance of critical reading, and increasing the students' participation when encountering literary texts (Spirovska, 2019).

The LBA, on the other hand, is emphasized on encouraging the students' improvement of English proficiency through literary works (Van, 2009). L2, L3, L4, and L5 who implemented the LBA when teaching literature to the EFL students stated that the approach offered many educational advantages to empower the students' active participation in the classroom in the teaching and learning process, and they were further demanded to self-direct their learning. Learning literature offers various advantages to the learners including improving reflective and purposeful learning as well as exposing them to cultural awareness and critical thinking (Hamid et al., 2020).

In the meantime, the PA to teaching literature is emphasized on teaching morality and probing philosophical questions. As explained by Rachmawati, et al. (2020), this approach is an approach that relates mainly to philosophical belief in seeing the truth or false, or right or wrong. Based on the result of this study, L6 believed that this approach is effective to stimulate students to gain philosophical moral values in literary works. Therefore, it is believed that one of the advantages of this approach is that it affects moral values and how readers act upon a literary work (Guerin, 2005).

4.2.2 The lecturers' perceptions of the weaknesses of the used approaches

The following excerpts reflected the lecturers' responses on the weaknesses of their used approaches in teaching English literature in the class.

- (14) The weaknesses of LBA are that it takes a long time for students who are weak in English when asked to understand a literary text. In the process of understanding the reading, the weaker students must translate it first. So, the reading material must be adjusted to the ability of students in class. Another weakness is their ability to analyze a text that is also an obstacle because it requires good English to explain it. (L3)
- (15) The RRA practically or operationally takes time and needs very much energy to manage. The teacher sometimes (hardly) has a tough 'time allotment' to assess each students' participation. (L5)
- (16) In PA, the students with low reading skills had difficulty in following this approach. (L6)

The lecturers' responses to the question regarding their perceptions on the weaknesses of the approaches revealed several drawbacks from each approach. First of all, the LBA demands a good proficiency in the English language. Therefore, when used to teach students who lacked English proficiency, there would be bigger obstacles. Concerning reflection writing, this was time-consuming since the students would start by translating the literary work first before being able to make a critical reflection of the text. Next, the RRA was time-consuming. Meanwhile, the PA was problematic to students who lacked reading skills; this made them challenging to follow the procedures of this approach.

Following the lecturer's response, Woodruff and Griffin (2017) also projected several disadvantages to the RAA. First, there is no emphasis on analyzing the text closely, and second, there are broad possible interpretations of a literary text. Other limitations in the RAA include: 1) the overlooked of the author's intended meaning, 2) readers' narrow responses, 3) the subjectivity of the readers' interpretation which

leads to the teachers' difficulties in determining the acceptable and unacceptable answers of the students (Woodruff & Griffin, 2017).

In the LBA, which is considered a student-oriented approach, the teacher encourages the students to improve their linguistic proficiency through literature. This approach divided the students' activities into some stages of activities. Therefore, one of the lecturer's perceptions of the implementation of the LBA showed that the approach was time-consuming, especially when taught to the students who were weak in English mastery. This happened because the students needed to translate the assigned literary work first before they were finally able to interpret the meaning of the literary works. Furthermore, finding an appropriate text to teach is also a concern, especially when there are groups of students who are not at the same reading level in the class (Renner, 2018).

The lecturer implementing the moral-philosophical approach emphasized its purpose in teaching morality and probing philosophical issues. It is revealed that one of the disadvantages of using the philosophical approach in teaching literature to EFL students was that the students with low reading skills found it difficult to interpret literary works by using this approach. This view is strengthened by Rashid et al. (2010) that in terms of teachers' perspectives on the teaching of literature to less proficient students, there were only a few respondents that responded positively to it. They asserted that this happened because the students found literature lessons less interesting and dull (Rashid et al., 2010).

5. CONCLUSION

The present study has elaborated on six lecturers' perceptions towards the implementation of the approaches to literary analysis in teaching literature in the EFL classrooms and the strengths and the weaknesses of the teaching approaches used by the lecturers to teach Literary Criticism course in the EFL classrooms. Based on the findings and the discussion of the study, some points are concluded. One of the points was that the lecturers had different perceptions on the proper approach to teaching this course to the EFL students. L1 implemented the Reader-response approach to teaching literature, L2 and L3 lecturers implemented the Language-based approach, L4 and L5 combined more than one approach to teaching literature, and finally, L6 only implemented the philosophical approach to teaching literature. Their chosen approaches were based on their perceptions of the significance, effectiveness, needs, and also weaknesses of each approach that it offers to the lecturers and students themselves. They took these perceptions based on how the students echoed their critical thinking skills in their essays or reflective writing.

The empirical results reported herein should be considered in light of some limitations. Further research is recommended to explore other literary analysis approaches, such as the New Criticism approach, Stylistic approach, or Critical Literacy approach, as they may have different impacts when implemented in the language classrooms, especially to EFL students. It is also suggested to expand the participants to other levels of education (i.e., high school students) who are also taught literature in their English class. By doing so, more comprehensive results can be obtained.

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Willingness to Communicate in Relation to Language Use among Pakistani Undergraduates: A Sociocultural Perspective

Ubaid Ullah Ubaid*
Joseph Ramanair
Souba Rethinasamy

Faculty of Language and Communication, University Malaysia, Sarawak, Kota Samarahan, 94300, MALAYSIA

Abstract

This study aimed to investigate English as a second language (ESL) undergraduates' sociocultural perspective of willingness to communicate (WTC) in English inside the classroom in relation to language use outside the classroom. The participants were 440 ESL undergraduates selected through the cluster sampling method from eight universities in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province in Pakistan. The data were collected through questionnaires on WTC in English inside the classroom and language use outside the classroom. The findings revealed that the participants' level of WTC in English was high for most social interactions within the classroom, such as in groups, during activities, with the same gender, and when given preparation time in groups. The findings for language use showed that a mixture of languages, such as Pashto and Urdu, was predominantly used in the family, neighbourhood and friendship, religion, education, and transaction domains. In contrast, English was primarily used in the mass media and social media domains. Moreover, the findings revealed that WTC in English inside the classroom was positively correlated with social media, mass media, transaction and education domains but negatively correlated with the family domain.

Keywords: Domains of language use, second language, sociocultural, willingness to communicate.

* Corresponding author, email: ubaidwahid@gmail.com

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1. INTRODUCTION

The teaching and learning of a second language (L2) have undergone numerous revisions and changes over the past five decades. In the past, the emphasis of English language teaching was on the mastery of structures. Nevertheless, using English for communication purposes has been stressed recently (Cetinkaya, 2005). Thus, the willingness to communicate (WTC) has emerged as the most vibrant topic in L2 pedagogy. The WTC concept was coined by McCroskey and Baer (1985) concerning first language (L1) communication. Subsequently, the concept was transferred into the L2 context. The WTC is defined as “a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547).

The WTC has resulted in a plethora of L2 communication research globally, such as the socio-cognitive aspect (Cao, 2014), dynamism (Cao, 2013; Syed & Kuzborska, 2019), the role of context (Cameron, 2015), learner agency (Mercer, 2011), non-English students (Ghonsooly et al., 2012), teacher’s influence (Zarrinabadi, 2014), learners’ participation (Bernales, 2016), and personality traits (MacIntyre et al., 2011). Nonetheless, learners’ reluctance, reticence, and shyness to engage in the L2 communication activities have been significant concerns in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) settings (Peng, 2012; Syed, 2016). The findings from previous studies provided significant evidence that learners demonstrate an unwillingness to communicate in L2 in the classroom due to cultural differences (Wen & Clement, 2003), lack of proficiency (Liu, 2005), and anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). These ESL-related issues have been a constant concern in Asian nations, such as Pakistan (Ali, 2017; Kalyar et al., 2019; Syed, 2016).

Pakistan is a multicultural and multilingual country where more than 70 different languages are spoken. Approximately 85% of the people speak the main regional languages such as Balochi, Pashto, Punjabi, Sindhi, and Saraiki (Ali, 2017; Islam et al., 2013). English is the official language of Pakistan after Urdu, the national language. English is also taught as a compulsory subject from primary to undergraduate study and, in some instances, also to the graduate level in Pakistan (Ali, 2017; Khan et al., 2017). English also enjoys the status of ‘the passport language’ for highly-paid jobs in Pakistan (Shamim, 2011). English is closely linked to the language of dominance, elites, power, corporate sector, military, education, and media in Pakistan (Pathan et al., 2010; Shamim, 2011; Syed, 2016). Thus, students’ WTC in English is given paramount importance in Pakistan (Ali, 2017; Kalyar et al., 2019).

Although WTC in L2 has been extensively investigated, research regarding the classroom context is still at an early stage. Pedagogically, extensive research must be undertaken to identify how to assist students to enhance their WTC (Yashima, 2012). Concurrently, Cao (2013) asserted that although efforts were undertaken to examine the impacts of context and time on WTC in an L2 classroom, the existing gap concerning situational WTC in the L2 classroom requires further exploration. Hence, engendering learners’ communication is the main objective of modern L2 pedagogy. Therefore, the present study is significant for investigating WTC from a sociocultural perspective, whereas previous studies examined WTC from trait, state, and dynamic perspectives (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; McCroskey & Baer, 1985). Moreover, this study investigated language use outside the classroom in different domains. The study also examined language use outside the classroom concerning WTC inside the classroom, which was overlooked in previous studies. The study objectives were:

1. To investigate Pakistani undergraduates' WTC level in different social interactions among students inside the classroom.
2. To investigate Pakistani ESL undergraduates' language use in different domains outside the classroom.
3. To determine the relationship between Pakistani undergraduates' WTC inside the classroom and language use in different domains outside the classroom.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 WTC in L2 inside the Classroom

When learners are given an opportunity to speak up inside an L2 classroom, why do they exhibit different behaviours when expressing their ideas? Some learners with high linguistic ability are unwilling to speak, whereas other learners with minimal linguistic competence seem to have more WTC in L2. Various psychological, linguistic, individual, situational, and social factors of WTC have been examined (MacIntyre, 2020) to investigate this complex phenomenon. Different types of variables have been discovered to influence learners' WTC in L2 learning in the classroom. These factors included international posture (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), gender and age (MacIntyre et al., 2003), motivation (Hashimoto, 2002; Peng & Woodrow, 2010), and self-confidence (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003; MacIntyre, 1994). The WTC construct covers both trait and state propensities (Cao, 2014). Previously, WTC was examined as a trait variable that remains the same in all situations (MacIntyre et al., 1999).

Conversely, recent research claimed that WTC inside the classroom is a situational and dynamic variable that changes according to situations (MacIntyre, 2020; Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2018; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018). In an L2 classroom, the situational WTC is affected by contextual factors, such as class participation, interlocutor, the topic of conversation, and task type (Cao, 2009, 2014; Cao & Philp, 2006). Furthermore, Peng (2007) stated that the situational and dynamic nature of learners' WTC varies from time to time. The dynamic and situational WTC in large and small groups was mainly identified through stimulated recall interviews, diaries writing, and classroom observations (Cao, 2009; Cao & Philp, 2006; de Saint Leger & Storch, 2009). For example, Cao and Philp (2006) discovered that the participants' WTC fluctuated in the whole class, group work, and pair work interactions during the class observations.

De Saint Leger and Storch (2009) also found differences in learners' WTC in the classroom. The learners' speaking activities influenced the participants' WTC. In another study that examined the moment-to-moment changes in L2 WTC, Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2014) found that the respondents reported several reasons for the fluctuation in their WTC in the classroom, such as proficiency level, engagement level, interlocutor, type of task, grouping mode, and topic of discussion. Khajavy et al. (2017) investigated the classroom environment and students' emotions. Their study revealed that communicative language teaching functioned well compared to traditional teaching methods. Besides, the positive classroom environment was enjoyed by the learners, which lessened their anxiety.

Zhang et al. (2019) examined the changes in WTC through a high-density repeated test on a group of Chinese students. They discovered systematic WTC changes among the students throughout the semester. This variation was found in different learning settings, such as peer support, task-interest, and task importance. Nevertheless, quantitative research lacks involving undergraduates' WTC in the classroom, particularly in multiple situations (individually, in pairs, small groups, and whole class), different activities in social interaction types (role play, presentation, discussion) with the same and opposite gender, the physical classroom conditions (seating positions: in front, in the middle, and at the back of the class), and students' preparedness in the classroom, which are all the main foci of the current study.

Furthermore, Dewaele (2015) maintained that the sociocultural perspective of language use must be investigated. Similarly, social support regarding WTC is rarely examined (Cao, 2009; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2001), whereas the learners' domain-wise language use outside the classroom in relation to WTC in the classroom is yet to be explored. The current study investigated the undergraduates' WTC inside the classroom in relation to their domain-wise language use outside the classroom to fill the existing gap.

2.2 Domains of Language Use outside the Classroom

Fishman (1972) developed the domain concept, emphasising that every language is used in its respective setting. Fishman (1972, p. 20) defined domain as “a sociocultural construct abstracted from topics of communication, the relationship between communicators, and locales of communication, in accord with the institution, of a society and the area of activity of speech community in such a way that individual behaviours and social patterns can be distinguished from each other and yet related to each other”. Furthermore, Fishman elaborated that domain is a combination of settings of topics, communication, and role relation among interlocutors. The domain could be either private or public, formal or informal, concrete or social settings (recreational place, transactional settings, social networks, worship places, workplace, school, and university) (Fishman, 1972).

Every domain has its own association with its interlocutors (Leo & Abdullah, 2013). In addition, Holmes (2001) maintained that language use in a specific speech community should be investigated through domains because domain, as the primary agent, determines the types of contexts and specific language used in that situation (Lim, 2008). Moreover, Schrauf (2002) pointed out that one language may be covered by one domain while others may cover other languages. Spolsky (2005) argued that the notion of who speaks what language, to whom, when, how, and why it needs further exploration.

2.3 Sociocultural Theory (SCT)

The relationship of sociocultural theory (SCT) with WTC could lie in the role played by SCT in providing opportunities for students to use L2. In addition, SCT demonstrates the association of cultural, biological, and social factors and caters to the basic need to explore the cognitive and social aspects of ESL (Block, 2003). Jamalvandi et al. (2020) stated that SCT provides special attention to negotiation, interaction, and collaboration among learners to enhance L2. The SCT believes that

human mental functioning is primarily a mediated process operated by utilising cultural artefacts, activities, and concepts (Ratner, 2002). Regarding the connection between tasks and SCT, Lantolf (2000) asserted that mediation appears in three situations during L2 learning. The three situations are mediation with others in social activities, self-mediation through private speech, and mediation by artefacts.

The current study drew on the third type of mediation as mediation with classmates in social activities by applying tasks in the artefact category. Thus, this study is significant for investigating WTC inside the classroom from a sociocultural perspective individually, in peers, and small groups during different tasks (presentations, discussion, and role-play) and in different classroom situations, such as gender, task preparation time, sitting position, and the relationship with language use in different domains outside the classroom. Previous research in WTC L2 indicated that peer work increases performance in WTC (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). Similarly, Cao (2011) found that learners preferred to talk with talkative and competent interlocutors. Besides, numerous studies also discovered that group dynamics form learners' WTC with others inside the L2 classroom (Cao & Philp, 2006; Cao, 2009; de Saint Leger & Storch, 2009; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018).

3. METHODS

By using SCT, the study focused on the concept that learning L2 is a mediating process. Mediation is one of the most vital concepts in Vygotsky's (1978) SCT. This study is guided by mediation with others in social activities (Lantolf, 2000). Lantolf (2000) asserted that L2 occurs when learners interact with each other in different social interactions. Therefore, the current study examined the learners' WTC L2 level in different social interactions inside the classroom. To reflect upon the undergraduates' WTC L2, the researcher utilised a quantitative approach using the survey design. Quantitative data assist a researcher to obtain factual information (Kalsoom et al., 2020). Kalsoom et al. (2020) further asserted that results achieved from numerical data, such as questionnaires, offer accurate, complete, and deeper insight into the researched phenomenon.

3.1 Participants

The study participants were Pakistani undergraduates pursuing their studies at universities in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province of Pakistan. The cluster sampling method was used for data collection. Out of 31 universities in the province, eight universities (the University of Peshawar, National University of Modern Languages, Islamia University, Agriculture University, Gomal University, Hazarah University, Abdul Wali Khan University, and the University of Swabi) were randomly chosen. Fifty-five undergraduates were selected from each university. The sample size of this study was 440 undergraduates. The participants were 67.3% male (296) and 32.7% female (144), while their ages range from 18 to 27 years old.

3.2 Instruments

The WTC questionnaire consisted of 80 items with an overall alpha value of 0.97 ($\alpha = 0.97$) on a five-point Likert scale. The questionnaire was adapted from Ali (2017), Cao and Philp (2006), de Saint Léger and Storch (2009), MacIntyre et al. (2001), Menzel and Carrell (1999), Pattapong (2010), Peng and Woodrow (2010), Riasati and Rahimi (2018) and Yashima et al. (2018). The questionnaire items in the studies were employed to measure the ESL undergraduates' WTC in 16 situations inside the classroom. The Cronbach's alpha for the overall reliability of the questionnaire for WTC in English was $\alpha = 0.97$.

The questionnaire on the students' language use in various domains outside the classroom consisted of 50 items ($\alpha = 0.91$) on a five-point frequency scale adapted from Anderson et al. (2018), Ahmed (2016), Leo and Abdullah (2013), Nofal and Dweik (2011), Qawar (2014), and Widad (2017) were employed to measure ESL undergraduates' language use outside the classroom in different domains. The Cronbach's alpha for the overall reliability of the language use questionnaire was $\alpha = 0.91$.

3.3 Data Collection

The permission to collect the data was obtained from the head of departments (HoDs) of the selected universities. Subsequently, a consent form was signed by the participants to indicate their voluntary participation in this study. Next, the participants were given clear instructions on how to fill in the questionnaire. The participants took approximately 30 to 35 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

3.4 Data Analysis

Based on the research objectives, a quantitative data analysis method was employed using questionnaires on WTC in English inside the classroom and language use in different domains outside the classroom. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation) and Pearson correlation were used to determine the relationship between undergraduates' WTC in English inside the classroom and language use outside the classroom. Previous researchers divided the mean score into three categories to determine high, medium, and low means of WTC. A mean score between 1.00 and 2.33 is low WTC, while 2.34 to 3.67 is moderate WTC and 3.68 to 5.00 is high WTC (Başöz & Erten, 2018; Kalra, 2017; Lian & Budin, 2014).

4. RESULTS

4.1 Undergraduates' WTC inside the Classroom

Table 1 shows that the self-reported levels of WTC in the 16 situations inside the classroom vary according to the situations. The undergraduates demonstrated high WTC in situations, such as grouping, grouping and activities, grouping with the same gender, grouping when prepared, grouping with preparation time, and grouping in front of the class, where the mean score was above 3.67. Nevertheless, the participants'

WTC was moderate. The mean score was 2.34 to 3.67 for WTC with the opposite gender and sitting positions in the classroom (middle, back, and in front).

Table 1. The undergraduates' self-reported WTC levels in sixteen situations inside the classroom.

WTC in different social interactions inside the classroom	Mean	Std. Deviation
WTC in groups	4.05	.44
WTC during activities	4.01	.40
WTC in groups WTC the same gender	4.18	.56
WTC in groups with the opposite gender	3.01	.90
WTC during activities with the same gender	3.97	.45
WTC during activities with the opposite gender	2.76	.73
WTC when prepared in groups	4.10	.32
WTC when prepared during activities	4.02	.39
WTC while sitting in groups in front of the class	3.38	.62
WTC while sitting during activities in front of the class	4.05	.33
WTC while sitting in groups in the middle of the class	3.51	1.06
WTC while sitting during activities in the middle of the class	3.54	.47
WTC while sitting in groups at the back of the class	3.28	.70
WTC while sitting during activities at the back of the class	3.43	.49
WTC in groups in front of the whole class	3.39	.78
WTC during activities in front of the whole class	3.56	.49
Overall	3.7675	.29882

4.2 Undergraduates' Language Use outside the Classroom

Table 2 demonstrates the results of undergraduates' language use outside the classroom. The results show that Pashto (the provincial language of Khyber Pukhtunkhwa) and Urdu (the national language) are the most used languages in the family, friendship and neighbourhood, religion, education, and transaction domains. However, the participants mostly used English in mass media and social media domains ($M = 4.09$ and $M = 4.30$). In addition, other languages (minor languages) were rarely used by the participants in all domains of daily life interactions.

Table 2. The domains of language use outside the classroom.

No.	Domain	Language Use	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Family	English	2.51	.72
		Urdu	2.94	.67
		Pashto	3.56	1.32
		Others	1.42	1.16
2.	Friendship and neighbourhood	English	2.66	.74
		Urdu	3.09	.82
		Pashto	3.50	1.33
		Others	1.37	1.04
3.	Education	English	3.73	.60
		Urdu	3.85	.63
		Pashto	3.41	1.21
		Others	1.32	.91
4.	Religion	English	2.06	.42
		Urdu	2.64	.57
		Pashto	3.07	1.05

Table 2 continued...

		Others	1.30	.84
5.	Transaction	English	3.07	.76
		Urdu	3.98	.58
		Pashto	3.42	1.19
		Others	1.31	.89
6.	Mass Media	English	4.09	.69
		Urdu	3.81	.69
		Pashto	2.58	.99
		Others	1.18	.54
7.	Social Media	English	4.30	.69
		Urdu	3.73	.77
		Pashto	3.01	1.15
		Others	1.27	.78

4.3 The Relationship between WTC in English and Domains of Language Use

Table 3 shows the correlation between WTC in English inside the classroom and domains of language use outside the classroom. The results demonstrate a weak negative correlation between WTC and family domain ($r = -.61$). Nevertheless, neighbourhood and friendship ($r = .046$), education ($r = .021$), religion ($r = .029$), transaction ($r = .048$), mass media ($r = .083$) and social media domains had a weak positive correlation with WTC inside the classroom ($r = .090$), respectively.

Table 3. The relationship between WTC in English inside the classroom and language use in different domains outside the classroom.

No.	Domains		WTCs
1.	Family	Pearson Correlation	-.061**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.205
		N	440
2.	Neighbourhood and friendship	Pearson Correlation	.046**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.333
		N	440
3.	Education	Pearson Correlation	.021
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.653
		N	440
4.	Religion	Pearson Correlation	.029**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.542
		N	440
5.	Transaction	Pearson Correlation	.048**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.314
		N	440
6.	Mass Media	Pearson Correlation	.083**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.084
		N	440
7.	Social Media	Pearson Correlation	.090**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.060
		N	440
8.	WTC inside the classroom	Pearson Correlation	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	
		N	440

5. DISCUSSION

The study primarily examined how SCT (mediation) influenced learners' WTC by applying tasks in different social interactions in the ESL classroom. The study also examined the relationship between WTC inside the classroom and language use outside the classroom. First, the study findings revealed that learners demonstrated an increase in WTC inside the classroom in most tasks and social interactions. Previous research showed that tasks, such as role-play, could boost students' propensity to communicate in English (Cao, 2013; Cao & Philp, 2006; Eddy-U, 2015; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018). Moreover, the studies found that group dynamics shape learners' WTC with others inside the L2 classroom (Bernales, 2014; Cao, 2009, 2011, 2014; Cao & Philp, 2006; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018).

The participants' WTC was very high in situations, such as grouping (individually, pairs, and small groups), activities (role play, discussion, and presentations), and WTC with the same gender. The findings showed that mediation (speaking with others in social activities) enhanced learners' WTC. Riasati and Rahimi (2018) revealed similar findings where the respondents had more WTC in pairs and small groups. Moreover, Cao and Philp (2006) found that the participants' communicative behaviours fluctuated in pairs, small groups, and whole-class interactions. The respondents in this study had more WTC with the same gender than the opposite gender. Besides, Riasati and Rahimi (2018) revealed that the informants had more WTC with the same sex compared to the opposite sex. Conversely, Ali (2017) found no difference in participants' WTC with the same and opposite gender in the EFL context. The differences may occur due to the context. Ali's (2017) study context was EFL, while the current study context focused on ESL.

Learners' preparedness is another factor where the learners were highly WTC in groups and during activities. Arguably, the learners were highly prepared for a task when they had more WTC. Riasati and Rahimi (2018) obtained similar findings in their study as the participants were mainly willing to speak when they were prepared to talk. Moreover, mediation is argued to assist students to enhance their speaking skills when they are prepared to talk. Furthermore, topic familiarity increased learners' WTC inside the classroom (Cao & Philp, 2006; de Saint Leger & Storch, 2009).

Regarding the seating positions, learners were highly WTC in groups (individually, in pairs, and small groups) while sitting in front of the class. In addition, the participants' WTC was high in groups during activities (discussion, role play, and presentation). Conversely, their WTC was moderate when seated in the middle and at the back of the class. Riasati and Rahimi (2018) also found that their participants' WTC was high while sitting in front of the class for different reasons. First, sitting in front is more beneficial than sitting at the back. Second, one speaks more in front of the class because everyone in the class observes them.

Jamalvandi et al. (2020) claimed that SCT gives special attention to negotiation, interaction, and collaboration among learners to enhance L2. In addition, while sitting in the middle and at the back of the classroom, in groups and during activities, the participants were less WTC. Riasati and Rahimi (2018) also observed that participants who sat at the back of the class were less WTC. Syed (2016) obtained similar findings by proving that the participants' WTC was high when sitting at the front rows because they felt privileged to sit in the front benches. Conversely, the WTC was low among the backbenchers as the participants felt that they could not gain the teacher's attention.

For the whole class interaction, learners were less WTC in groups and during tasks in front of the whole class. [De Saint Leger and Storch \(2009\)](#) found that whole class interaction was the most challenging task, decreasing learners' confidence. Furthermore, the participants were afraid to be negatively evaluated by other classmates. In line with the current findings, [Cao \(2011\)](#) also discovered that whole class interactions resulted in anxiety and embarrassment due to peer pressure.

The domain of language use is the sociocultural construct ([Fishman, 1972](#)). Seven language use domains were investigated in this study, such as family, neighbourhood and friendship, education, religion, transaction, mass media, and social media. The participants were found to use Pashto (provincial language) in most of the domains. For example, in a multilingual society, such as Pakistan, the mixed-use of Pashto, Urdu, English, and other languages (minor languages) were found in the family domain. Pashto is the most used language, followed by Urdu (the national language) as the second most used language, while the undergraduates rarely use other languages.

[Dweik and Qawar \(2015\)](#) found that 99.9% of participants used the Arabic language in the home and family domains among Arabs of Quebec-Canada. Home and family domains play a significant role in daily social interactions ([Dweik & Qawar, 2015](#)). The results aligned with [Granhemat and Abdullah \(2017\)](#), who found that most Malaysian multilingual youths in Malaysia used Malay in the family domain. Similarly, in this study, Pashto is the dominant language used by participants in the neighbourhood and friendship domain compared to Urdu and English.

The findings of [Leo and Abdullah \(2013\)](#) found that the majority of the informants used the Malay language in the friendship domain in Malaysia. Conversely, the participants in this study used Urdu and English in the education domain, whereas Pashto and other languages were the least used languages. The findings agree with [Mei et al. \(2016\)](#); they asserted that the English and Malay languages were used by the Chinese, Indian and Malay respondents in Malaysia in the education domain. Simultaneously, some Chinese informants reported that they would like to use Chinese in the education domain.

In the religion domain, the respondents also mostly used Pashto, followed by Urdu as the second most used language, whereas English and minor languages were rarely used. Conversely, [Leo and Abdullah \(2013\)](#) found that their respondents used English predominantly in the religious domain, which may vary due to the religion and context differences. The participants in their study were mainly Christians, and the study was conducted in Malaysia. In contrast, the current study context is in Pakistan, and the participants were all Muslims.

Moreover, in the transactional domain, Urdu and Pashto were used by most participants, whereas English was the second most used language. Similar findings were obtained by [Granhemat et al. \(2015\)](#), who discovered that the Malay language was used by the majority (49.6%) of the participants in the transactional domain.

Conversely, most participants used English in the mass media domain while Urdu is the second most used language. English and Urdu are both the official languages of Pakistan, and most newspapers, news channels, and sports channels are either in English or Urdu. Similarly, the participants used English besides Urdu when commenting, posting, and chatting in the social media domain. The wide use of English on social media globally is due to its diversity and multilingualism. Pashto and other languages were the least used languages in both mass media and social media.

As for WTC concerning other influential variables, WTC was positively correlated with motivation (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Hashimoto, 2002; Ma et al., 2019; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009). Perceived communication competence has a strong connection in enhancing WTC (Kim, 2004; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 1999; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Sparks & Ganschow, 2001). Meanwhile, language anxiety was negatively correlated with WTC in an L2 (Cetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; Kim, 2004; Knell & Chi, 2012; Wu & Lin, 2014).

Nonetheless, the relationship of WTC inside the classroom and language use in different domains outside the classroom was investigated for the first time in this study. The results of the family domain were negatively correlated with WTC, which seemed to negatively influence the participants' WTC in English inside the classroom. Family plays a vital role in the Pakistani students' daily life conversations. The findings may explain the cultural values and family system of Pakistan, where learners are encouraged to talk in their mother tongue in daily life conversation since childhood. The study data proved that the current study's participants belonged to different family backgrounds with different mother tongues. Therefore, they were fluent in their own languages by the time they entered university. The findings are in line with previous research. For instance, Kalsoom et al. (2020) found that the participants in her study received more social support from their friends, whereas the support from mothers and siblings was negligible for communicating in English in class. The informants were not encouraged by mothers and siblings on WTC in English. In another study, MacIntyre et al. (2001) found that social support from French immersion students' best friends was higher than from their teachers and mothers when talking in L2 in the class.

The relationship between neighbourhood and friendship domain with WTC in English was weak and positive. The participants used less English language with their neighbours and friends. Nevertheless, previous research showed that friends play an essential role in engendering learners' WTC (Ali, 2017; Jung, 2011; Kalsoom et al., 2020; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Mari et al., 2011). Ali (2017) found that Pakistani learners had more WTC with their friends than with acquaintances and strangers. Similarly, in a study in the Korean EFL context, Jung (2011) found that students showed more WTC with close friends than with strangers in small groups. Mari et al. (2011) obtained similar results in another study where the informants had more WTC with friends than with strangers.

The education domain was positively correlated with WTC, possibly because English is the medium of instruction in Pakistani universities. The results proved that the use of Urdu and English is much higher in the education domain than in Pashto and other languages. Widad (2017) also found that the Malaysian participants used English and Bahasa Melayu at universities. The participants were found to use English with friends and lecturers from different races and states. In contrast, Nofal and Dweik (2011) found that Yemeni informants predominantly used Arabic in universities. Some participants responded that they use the Indian language besides Arabic when talking to friends.

The religion domain had a weak positive correlation with WTC, which can be observed in the results that the Pashto language is predominantly used in the religious domain. The results align with that of Nofal and Dweik (2011). They proved that their respondents from Yemen used Arabic (the national language of Yemen) in the religious domain. The respondents mainly used Arabic with an *imam* (celebrant), friends, and meetings outside the place of worship. Qawar (2014) also found that the

Quebec Arabic informants in Canada used Arabic when talking to the *imam* and asking for religious information. Conversely, [Leo and Abdullah \(2013\)](#) revealed that the Tamil Christian youths mostly used English, while Tamil and Bahasa Malayu were the least used languages in the religious domain in Malaysia.

The transactional domain was found to have a moderate positive correlation with WTC because the participants used less English than Urdu and Pashto. Firstly, the participants would use English mostly in restaurants, banks, and markets because English is considered the language of dominance, elites, corporate sector, modernisation, and empowerment in Pakistan ([Ali, 2017](#); [Pathan et al., 2010](#); [Shamim, 2008, 2011](#); [Syed, 2016](#)). The findings align with [Granhemat et al. \(2015\)](#), who found that Malaysian respondents mostly used Bahasa Melayu in the transactional domain.

The mass media domain was found to have a strong positive correlation with WTC. The reason could be because students like to read English newspapers and watch English news and movies. Besides, English is considered as the gateway to highly-paid jobs ([Shamim, 2011](#)). Thus, learners strive hard to learn English by using media. Second, most of the sports are presented in English in Pakistan due to the dominance of English. Third, almost all people use English for browsing the internet in Pakistan. Similarly, the social media domain was correlated with WTC in English. In the modern era, social media is widely used. The results proved that participants used English predominantly when chatting, commenting, and posting on social media.

6. CONCLUSION

The study aimed to investigate WTC in English inside the classroom in relation to language use outside the classroom from students of eight universities in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province in Pakistan. The learners were highly WTC to communicate in most situations inside the classroom. In contrast, the learners used Pashto frequently in several domains outside the classroom, such as family, neighbourhood and friendship, and religion. Conversely, in other domains, such as transactional, mass media, and social media domains, they used English and Urdu most of the time. The study confirmed that L2 learning is a sociocultural phenomenon because learners were found WTC highly in English in most social interactions inside the classroom.

Moreover, WTC in English was positively correlated with the language use domains, where the participants used a considerable amount of English outside the classroom. The WTC was negatively correlated with domains where the learners predominantly used Pashto outside the classroom. Additionally, similar to other research studies, this study also has several limitations. First, the current study focused on oral communication; thus, future studies should focus on other communicative skills, such as reading, writing, and listening. Second, the current study's participants were all undergraduates. Similar studies should also be conducted on students at the school and college levels. Third, the present study focused on the undergraduates' WTC in English; hence, future researchers should also examine the teachers' views about the undergraduates' WTC in English inside the classroom. Finally, to determine the relationship between WTC in English inside the classroom and language outside the classroom, the number of items for both questionnaires was different. Future studies thus may use the same number of items to determine the correlation between these two variables.

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The Different Uses of the Pronoun ‘We’ by EFL Teachers in Classroom Interaction

Muthi’ah*¹

Syamsul Arif Galib²

Annisa Shofa Tsuraya¹

Multazam Abubakar¹

Nur Aliyah Nur¹

Muhammad Syahrudin Nawir¹

¹Department of English Education, Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teacher Training,
Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Gowa 92118, INDONESIA

²Religious Studies, Faculty of Ushuluddin and Philosophy, Universitas Islam Negeri
Alauddin Makassar, Gowa 92118, INDONESIA

Abstract

The pronoun ‘we’ is understood only to refer to the first-person plural. In fact, the pronoun ‘we’ can also refer to other references. The primary purpose of this study is to examine the different uses of the pronoun ‘we’ by EFL teachers in classroom interaction. This study employed a qualitative approach by using three instruments: observation, audio-recorder, and interview in collecting the data. The subjects of this research are two English teachers and the second-grade students at a vocational high school in Makassar. The data were analyzed by formulating Miles et al.’s method of analysis. The result of this study shows that, in classroom interaction, the pronoun ‘we’ can refer to six distinct references: (1) ‘we’ that refers to speaker and more than one addressee, (2) ‘we’ that refers to speaker and more than one-third party, (3) ‘we’ that refers to speaker and indefinite group, (4) ‘we’ that indicates ‘you’, (5) ‘we’ that indicates ‘I’, and (6) ‘we’ that indicates “they”. From the interviews, the researchers found that both teachers have different reasons for using the pronoun ‘we’ in classroom interaction. The first teacher intends to use the pronoun to help him create an enjoyable learning environment and establish better

* Corresponding author, email: muthiah.rahim@uin-alauddin.ac.id

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relationships with the students. In contrast, the other teacher uses the pronoun 'we' to show politeness to the students. Despite the differences, they both seem to have the same intention of creating a positive learning environment.

Keywords: Classroom interaction, EFL teachers, pronoun 'we', learning environment.

1. INTRODUCTION

Using personal pronouns in interaction to refer to the speaker, listener, or both can reflect a particular relationship and understanding between all parties involved. Even though the pronouns are simple words phonetically, their reference and meaning are much more involved (Quirk et al., 1985). Personal reference, using personal pronouns, is essential in face-to-face interaction because they imply the interpersonal relationships between the people in the interaction (Kuo, 1999). When choosing which pronoun to use in a conversation, a speaker somehow makes a crucial decision about how he/she will express his/her place in the relationship.

One type of pronoun that is interesting to be discussed is the first-person plural pronoun. In English, the main function of the first-person plural pronoun, known as 'we', is as subject of a verb. The reference of first-person plural pronouns in writing is commonly easier to identify than in conversation. Pavlidou (2014) suggests that in conversation or an interview, the collective referent of 'we' can only be retrieved based on the speaker's and listener's shared knowledge, as well as the utterance and discourse context. In other words, when a speaker uses the pronoun 'we' in conversation, he/she has to consider that the listener(s) understand the context of his/her utterance to identify the exact referent of the pronoun.

The studies on the analysis of the pronoun 'we' have been conducted in different domains. For instance, Packard et al. (2018) researched the pronoun choices used by marketing agents. The finding shows that marketing agents tend to use the pronoun 'I' rather than 'we' because it can increase customers' positive perception of satisfaction and purchase intention. In addition, another research was carried out on the use of the pronoun 'we' in the 2016 US presidential debates. The result confirmed that the presidential candidates preferred using the pronoun 'we' more often than the pronoun 'I' when referring to himself. The main reason is that it implies that the candidates shared similar roles, problems, and responsibilities as the audience (Kaewrungruang & Yaoharee, 2018).

Even though there have been various studies on the use of the pronoun 'we', very few published studies can be found about the use of the pronoun 'we' in classroom interaction. Roepcke (1998) researched the use of the pronoun 'we' by Teaching Assistants (TAs) to identify the pattern of participant structure, social groups, and social identities constructed in the classroom talk of four Chinese International TAs and four American TAs. The result showed that the first-person plural pronoun 'we' was used inclusively to refer to the teacher and students. In this case, the learning activities of the teacher and students serve in a sequence with varying roles and responsibility levels for teachers and students. Other inclusive 'we' includes the teacher and students, but they are larger entities. The only common exclusive 'we' is

the group of experts in the field, whose membership is in flux; students are considered members as they are associated with the institution. However, the participants used more 'you' (second-person pronoun) during the talk than other pronouns. The single difference between the groups is the significantly higher frequency of second-person plural pronouns used by the Chinese TAs. This may reflect the cultural distance between the Chinese TAs and American TAs.

Another study was conducted by Reynolds-Case (2012) on the various ways in which Spanish teachers use the pronoun 'we' in the classroom. Data were taken from two intermediate-level classes in a university with two different teachers from different backgrounds through observation, audio-recording, and transcription. The results revealed that the teacher used the pronoun 'we' to refer to three distinct references: (1) 'we' that indicated 'you' in the purpose of softening the directives and achieving positive politeness, (2) an inclusive 'we' referring to the instructor and the students, and (3) an exclusive 'we' referring to the instructor and an outside group of people. The more familiar or connected the instructor was with the students, the more likely the inclusive 'we' was used.

Helmbrecht (2002) states that there are several reasons why speakers use the pronoun 'we' in interaction. The first is to fulfill the communicative intentions when they are talking to others. In this case, the speakers might want to avoid referring to themselves directly and explicitly because it is considered impolite to set oneself too apparent as the talk's focus. The second is to minimize the risk of face loss from the hearer. The use of the pronoun 'we' can minimize the social distance between the speaker and the listener by including both in the activity. The third is to express care and solidarity. It can be found in the interaction between doctor and patient. The doctor uses the pronoun 'we' to encourage patients to participate in the medical treatment procedure.

In a classroom setting, the pronoun 'we' frequently exists in the teacher-student interaction. Teachers frequently employ pronouns 'we' and 'you' to their students, and the referents of these pronouns might reflect symbolic values and political representations (Uzum et al., 2018). When teaching a subject, teachers find themselves addressing students repeatedly. Whether calling on a student to respond to a question, discussing with a student about a question/answer, or simply checking for comprehension, teachers usually use the pronoun of singular and plural 'you' and also the pronoun 'we'. This pronoun use has often created ambiguity in the classroom. Usually, when a teacher uses the pronoun 'we' in conversation, he/she refers to more than one person, including him/herself.

Since there is limited published research about using the pronoun 'we' in classroom interaction, this study intends to provide current insights by exploring and analyzing the different uses of the pronoun 'we' by teachers in the EFL classroom interaction. In EFL classes, a teacher becomes a center of instruction. Therefore, the teacher mostly dominates the classroom interaction by giving explanations and lectures, encouraging language practice, asking questions, and correcting students' answers (Julana, 2018). In particular, the research questions for this study are:

1. What are the different uses of the pronoun 'we' used by EFL teachers in classroom interaction?
2. Why do the EFL teachers use the pronoun 'we' when interacting with students in the classroom?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Clusivity of Pronoun 'We'

In the field of discourse, the pronoun 'we' can be distinguished into inclusive and exclusive use. The terms 'inclusive' and 'exclusive' are commonly used to indicate whether an addressee (or addressees) is included in or excluded from the set of referents that also involves the speaker (Filiminova, 2005). In addition, Cysouw (2005) states that an inclusive pronoun necessarily includes reference to the addressee, for example: 'we' that refers to 'I' and 'you', while an exclusive pronoun, and excludes the addressee from the reference, resulting in meaning like 'I and some others, but not you'.

The category of inclusive and exclusive pronoun is differentiated into 'dual' and 'plural': the inclusive dual refers to the speaker and one addressee (I + you-singular), the inclusive plural includes the speaker and more than one addressee (I + you-plural), and the exclusive forms refer to the speaker and others who are not directly included in—one other person in the case of the dual I + she/he/it) and more than one for the plural (I + they) (Helmbrecht, 2002; Scheibman, 2004).

More specifically, Pavlidou (2014) lists the referential range of pronoun 'we' as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Referential range of pronoun 'we'.

Group indexical (including the speaker)			
No.	Referential values	Plurality	Clusivity
1.	Speaker and other speakers	dual/plural	exclusive
2.	Speaker and addressee	dual	inclusive
3.	Speaker and a third party	dual	exclusive
4.	Speaker and more than one addressee	plural	inclusive
5.	Speaker and more than one third party	plural	exclusive
6.	Speaker and addressee and a third party	plural	inclusive
7.	Speaker and more addressees and a third party	plural	inclusive
8.	Speaker and more addressees and more third parties	plural	inclusive
9.	Speaker and indefinite group (humankind)	plural	inclusive
We for non- 'we'			
No.	Referential values	Common designations	
10.	The speaker alone: 'we' for 'I'	Royal 'we', <i>pluralis majestatis</i>	
11.	The addressee alone: 'we' for 'you'	Directive 'we', nursery 'we', recipes 'we'	
12.	Third-party: 'we' for 'they'	Integrative 'we'	

Based on Table 1, the referential range of the pronoun 'we' is quite extensive. The different references of the pronoun 'we' may create ambiguity in interpreting the meaning of the pronoun. It is essential to understand the referential values one by one to avoid ambiguity. The details of each referential value are described as follows:

1. Speaker and other speakers (multiple speakers)

Speaker is the party talking (the first person). This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the exclusive group of multiple speakers in an interaction. Generally, only one person can speak. However, if two or more persons are speaking the same utterance simultaneously, it is a collection of single individuals, each of which is one speaker.

2. **Speaker and addressee**
Addressee is the party being addressed or spoken to (the second person). This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the inclusive group of one speaker and one addressee (I and you-singular).
3. **Speaker and a third party**
A third party is a party being considered or mentioned (third person). This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the exclusive group of one speaker and one-third person (I and he/she). The third-party can be either present or absent in the interaction. If the third party is present in the interaction, the role of 'listener' is shared between the addressee and the third party.
4. **Speaker and more than one addressee**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the inclusive group of one speaker and multiple addressees in an interaction (I and you-plural).
5. **Speaker and more than one third party**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the exclusive group of one speaker and multiple third persons in an interaction (I and they).
6. **Speaker and addressee and a third party**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the inclusive group of one speaker, one addressee, and one-third person. Therefore, the reference is a collective group of three persons (I, you, and he/she).
7. **Speaker and more addressees and a third party**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the inclusive group of one speaker, multiple addressees, and one-third person in an interaction (I, you-plural, and he/she).
8. **Speaker and more addressees and more third parties**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the inclusive group of one speaker, multiple addressees, and multiple third persons in an interaction (I, you-plural, and they).
9. **Speaker and indefinite group (humankind)**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to the inclusive group of one speaker and all humankind, including male and female (I and everyone).
10. **The speaker alone: 'we' for 'I'**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' refers to oneself (the speaker only). The common designation of this value is usually called royal 'we' or *pluralis majestatis*. It means that the speaker has power or influence and a higher position than the addressee.
11. **The addressee only: 'we' for 'you'**
This referential value occurs when the pronoun 'we' only refers to the second person(s). The common designation of this value includes directive 'we', nursery 'we', and recipe 'we'. The directive 'we' is used when the speaker wants the hearer to act in the speaker's interest. The nursery 'we' refers to a single addressee implying a caring relationship between speaker and hearer. While the recipe 'we' is used when the speaker wants to tell the addressee(s) about a specific instruction for producing something.
12. **'we' indicating "they"**
This referential value occurs when the speaker integrates herself and the addressee into the same group, even though, in fact, they are not members of the group.

2.2 Interaction in the EFL Classroom

Through all the teaching and learning activities, the classroom interaction between teacher and students is essential to achieve specific goals (Julana, 2018). For EFL teachers, interaction is significant. In the era of communicative language teaching, interaction is the essential component of communication, and everything now is about communication (Brown, 1994). Classroom interaction is one of the platforms on which any reality concerning classroom phenomena can be formed and observed simultaneously. Richards and Schmidt (2010) defined classroom interaction as the verbal and nonverbal communication patterns in classrooms and the sorts of social connections that occur there. Teacher and student talk are two aspects to consider during the interaction. Teacher talk is described as any words or sentences produced by the teacher during the teaching and learning process, such as when the teacher provides explanations, feedback, or asks questions (Nurpahmi, 2017).

More specifically, Malamah-Thomas (1987) suggests that there are seven types of classroom interaction in a productive class hour: (1) teacher speaking to the whole class, (2) teacher speaking to an individual student with the rest of the class as the listeners, (3) teacher speaking to a group of students, (4) student speaking to the teacher, (5) student speaking to the student, (6) student speaking to group members, and (7) student speaking to the whole class. Of all the types of classroom interaction, the interaction between the teacher and students is essential in a language learning environment. The teacher controls the topic of conversation, turn-taking, and the whole interaction process to facilitate learning (Walsh, 2006).

In EFL classes, a teacher becomes a center of instruction. Therefore, the teacher mostly dominates the classroom interaction by giving explanations and lectures, encouraging language practice, asking questions, and correcting students' answers (Julana, 2018). The teacher is mostly responsible for initiating classroom interaction through verbal communication. The teacher delivers directions, presents information, asks questions, presents grammatical content, and corrects students' faults using a combination of the first and target languages. This is referred to as verbal interaction practice (Yuliani, 2021).

The use of pronouns usually occurs in the interaction between the teacher and the students. When presenting the materials, teachers usually address the students continuously. Typically, teachers repeatedly use the pronoun 'you' in such activities as asking the students to answer a question, discussing a question/answer with the students, or checking the students' comprehension. However, many teachers also use the pronoun 'we' when interacting with students. The goal is to create a cooperative and solid interactional atmosphere in the teaching and learning process, in which teachers and students collaborate to achieve a common goal (Rounds, 1987). Moje (1995) suggests that teachers' language choice, including pronoun choice, makes students feel part of the learning group. Moreover, Beltrán (2000, in Sánchez et al., 2013) states that if the teacher is being communicative, it shows a good attitude and can create a secure environment. As a result, the students may feel comfortable and motivated when learning a foreign language.

3. METHOD

This study was conducted using a qualitative research design. Qualitative research is used to gain insights about a particular phenomenon by collecting, analyzing, and interpreting narrative and visual data (Gay et al., 2016). This research focused on finding out and analyzing the different references of the pronoun 'we' uttered by EFL teachers in classroom interaction. Therefore, spoken discourse, particularly the teacher's actual utterances in classroom interaction, is the focus of the analysis.

The data were collected at a vocational high school in Makassar. Since the school had only two English teachers, the researcher took both teachers as the research subject. The researcher used three instruments to collect the data, namely observation, audio recorder, and interview. While observing the class, the researcher also recorded the classroom interaction of the second grade four times, two meetings for each teacher, using a handphone audio recording tool. The audio recording was transcribed into written form. The transcript covers the patterns and sequences of the actual talks. The teacher's utterances were analyzed interactively using the three discourse analysis procedures suggested by Miles et al. (2014): data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. After the data in the transcript was sorted out, the data extraction was put in the text box to make it easier for the readers to locate the data, and then the conclusions were developed. After that, the researchers conducted a structured interview by giving eight open-ended questions to both teachers. The questions were to confirm the teachers' intentions of using the pronoun 'we' and the teachers' connection with the students.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Distinct Uses of the Pronoun 'We' by EFL Teachers

After transcribing the data recording, the researcher found that the EFL teachers used the pronoun 'we' that referred to six distinct references. The detailed analysis is explained as follows.

4.1.1 *Speaker and more than one addressee*

Among the referential range of the pronoun 'we', the pronoun that inclusively refers to himself and the students was the most frequently used by the teachers in the classroom interaction. This can be seen in Extract 1.

Extract 1 (Teacher 1)

T : If I am not mistaken, in our last meeting, I gave you an assignment that you have to introduce yourself by making a video and you need to send it to my email. Last night I check my email, but only some of you already sent your assignment to my email. Well, it's up to you.

Ss : (talking to their classmates about the assignment)

T : Okay. The first video comes from Adi, please look at here!

(playing the video)

The next video is from Nurilmi

(playing the video)

Okay, please clap your hand! And then I will show you how Western people or foreigners introduce himself or herself to others. We can see in the video that I am going to play. Please listen carefully! Because later I will ask you some questions related to the video.

In Extract 1, the pronoun 'we' refers to both the teacher and the students studying in the classroom. From the statement 'we can see in the video that I am going to play', the teacher tried to establish solidarity with his students by giving an impression to the students that he would come along with the students watching the video. On the other hand, the pronoun 'I' intended to notify the students that the teacher was the one who would play the video, not the students. Thus, the use of different pronouns in the statement represented a simultaneous demonstration of solidarity and power by the teacher.

Extract 2 (Teacher 1)

T : And also, we have to be careful in pronouncing 'ty' and 'teen' in numbers. Repeat after me! Ty.

Ss : Ty.

T : Teen.

Ss : Teen.

T : It's slightly different in pronunciation, but they have totally different meanings. For example, if you say you are 'seventy years old', you are too old. So, it's not seventy, but seventeen. Be careful in pronouncing 'ty' and 'teen'.

Extract 2 shows the inclusive pronoun 'we' that refers to both himself and the students. The statement warned the students to pay attention to the different pronunciations of 'ty' and 'teen' in numbers. In this case, the teacher used the pronoun 'we' to soften the warning and appeal to common group membership by making the students feel like he might also incorrectly pronounce these words. Therefore, it might be able to put them at ease.

Extract 3 (Teacher 2)

T : Okay. Well. Today we are going to learn about some expressions. But before that, I want to review what you have learned yesterday. What's your name?

S : Abdul Yasar

T : Abdul Yasar, I have given you an assignment. It's about a story in Indonesia. What's the title of your story?

In Extract 3, the pronoun 'we' was used by the teacher to assure the students that he was an active participant in the learning process. The teacher wanted the students to think that they were not alone in doing learning activities. In addition, the teacher confirmed that he wanted the students to think that they would learn together about the topic in the classroom and that he would help them understand the materials. Generally, this typical use of the pronoun 'we' is often used to establish solidarity between the teacher and students, motivate the students, and create a positive connection in the classroom.

Extract 4 (Teacher 2)

T : Because this is our third meeting, I want to make specific rules. The first one is 'do not put your cell phone on the chair!' Do not use your cell phone when we are learning! If you have difficulty understanding some words, please bring your own dictionary! Do not use your cell phone! Okay?

Ss : Okay Sir.

T : And then, the second one is 'if you don't do your assignment or your homework, you are not allowed to come to my class'. Are we clear?

Ss : Yes, Sir.

In Extract 4, the pronoun ‘we’ was used in two different contexts. In the first statement, ‘Do not use your cell phone when we are learning!’ the teacher used the pronoun to emphasize that he and the students were equally involved in the learning activities. On the other hand, the question ‘are we clear?’ was used to ascertain students’ agreement to follow the rules politely. This question was also used to signal the students that the teacher could assert the rules. Furthermore, because of the unequal power status between the teacher and students, rejection from the addressees (students) was inappropriate. Finally, the pronoun ‘we’ was used to reduce the possibility of face-threatening.

4.1.2 *Speaker and more than one third party*

This type of referential value is commonly used to indicate that the listeners are excluded from the group. However, in the interaction, the teacher rarely used this type of pronoun ‘we’, indeed it was used only once by Teacher 1. This particular ‘we’ is more likely to appear when the teacher does not share the students’ knowledge and experience, as seen in the following extraction:

Extract 5 (Teacher 1)

T : Did you ever listen about PO before?

Ss : (silent)

T : PO is Post Office. Sometimes people who work in a company use PO Box. It’s like this, ya. When I worked in a private company, when we opened a job vacancy, we don’t need every applicant to come to the office to bring their application letter. We provide PO Box for the applicants, so they can just send it through the post office. What about this? Do you know what is it?

S : Kode pos [Post code]

From Extract 5, in the statement ‘When I worked in a private company when we opened a job vacancy, we don’t need every applicant to come to the office to bring their application letter’, the reference and the meaning of the pronoun ‘we’ may be ambiguous for the students. In this case, the pronoun ‘we’ referred to the teacher, his former colleagues, and the company as a whole. Also, it is implied that the teacher set himself apart from the students to represent his experience about the topic discussed in the classroom. This typical pronoun ‘we’ is usually used to show the power and prestige of the speaker to the addressees (Pavlidou, 2014).

4.1.3 *Speaker and indefinite group (humankind)*

The pronoun ‘we’ can also refer to general people (humankind). The entities of this ‘we’ extend beyond the group of speakers and listeners. This type of ‘we’ was used only by Teacher 1. The data extraction involving this value can be seen in Extract 6.

Extract 6 (Teacher 1)

T : Okay the first one, if we want to introduce ourselves, the first one we have to say or we have to tell is our name. But please remember in English there are many types of names. The first one is full...?

Ss : Full name

T : Good! What does the full name mean?

Ss : *Nama lengkap* [full name]

From Extract 6, in the statement 'if we want to introduce ourselves, the first one we have to say, or we have to tell is our name', the pronoun 'we' referred to everyone who introduces himself/herself to others. The teacher wanted to let the students understand that whoever introduces himself/herself must firstly tell his/her name. Therefore, the teacher's explanation was based on what commonly happens in real life when teaching the topic.

Extract 7 (Teacher 2)

T : What is the difference between email and post office?

S : *Lama mengirimnya* [It takes a long time for letters to arrive]

T : What about email?

Ss : *Lebih cepat* [faster]

T : Okay. What about the address?

S : *Kalo kirim lewat kantor pos pake alamat kantor* [If we send it through the post office, we use the address of the office].

T : Alright, with email we can do it quickly without a courier, while with the post office, we have to come to the post office, and then we have to pay and have to wait for at least one day.

In Extract 7, the teacher explained the difference between email and post by using the inclusive pronoun 'we', which referred to the inclusive group of the teacher, the students, and people outside the classroom. The teacher clarified that he used such pronoun 'we' when explaining things that generally happen to all people so that the students could relate to their own experiences. This kind of inclusive pronoun is usually used when the interactions relate to the habit or culture of common people.

4.1.4 'We' indicating 'I'

Another referential value of 'we' is to refer to a single speaker. The pronoun 'we' that indicates 'I' occurred only once in the classroom interaction. The data extraction can be seen in Extract 8.

Extract 8 (Teacher 1)

T : If I am not mistaken, from our last meeting, last week, you have homework

Ss : Yes.

T : Okay. When I count, one two three, you have to submit your homework on my desk ya... one...two...

Ss : <XwordX>

T : Okay...Okay...finish! I have informed to you before in our English class, we have made rules, ya. The first one is ' homework is not schoolwork'. The second is 'if you don't have homework, you have to wait outside'. It means you can't join my class. So, who did not do the homework?

Ss : (raise hands)

T : Okay, please wait outside!

Based on Extract 8, the pronoun 'we' in the statement 'we have made rules' refers to a single speaker that is the teacher. The teacher confirmed that the pronoun 'we' strictly referred to himself as the one who made the rules in his class. Therefore, it can be interpreted that the rules about homework were only for the students because only students did the homework, not the teacher. The teacher was in charge of establishing rules, while the students were responsible for following the rules. In this case, the pronoun 'we' was employed as an expression of power within the classroom.

4.1.5 'We' indicating 'you'

In the interaction between the teacher and the students, this referential value only appeared once. Pavlidou (2014) proposed that this type of 'we' is commonly used for directive statements, nursery, condescending, and recipes. However, this referential value was used by the teacher only for the directive purpose. It can be seen in Extract 9.

Extract 9 (Teacher 1)

T : Okay. Seven minutes more, ya. This is your assignment. I will give you back your assignment, but you still have another task related to the paper that we have done. Deal?

Ss : Deal.

T : Because you already have a business letter. The first one you have to identify the standard format of your business letter. *Jadi* [so], I will give you back your paper and identify where is the heading, body, signature, opening, *dan lain-lain* [etc.]. Deal?

Ss : Deal.

In Extract 9, the pronoun 'we' was used to refer to the students only. It can be seen in the statement, 'I will give you back your assignment, but you still have another task related to the paper that we have done'. The teacher implied that the students were the ones who did the paper. The teacher did not participate in doing the assignment, but he was responsible for checking whether the assignment was correct or incorrect. In the interview, the teacher indicated that he used the pronoun to achieve positive politeness and maintain students' positive attitudes towards the teacher.

Extract 10 (Teacher 2)

T : Okay now, we will practice using this one. So, I have some papers here, I will divide you into some groups. How many students are in this class?

S : Thirty-six.

In Extract 10, the pronoun 'we' was used to refer strictly to the students in the classroom. From the statement 'we will practice using this one', the teacher told the students to be ready for an exercise. The teacher was excluded as a referent of the pronoun because he asked the students to get in groups to do the exercise. The students were the participants, while the teacher was the facilitator. In the interview session, the teacher confirmed that he used the pronoun 'we' to deliver requests politely.

4.1.6 'We' indicating "they"

The final referential value that also appeared in the classroom interaction was the pronoun 'we', which refers solely to a third party. It is considered an exclusive form of 'we' because the speaker and the listener(s) are not included in the reference. It can be seen as follows:

Extract 11 (Teacher 1)

T : Now, I will tell the story in English. One day, three students got a scholarship to study in Australia. One student is from America, one is from Japan, and one is from Indonesia. The student from America, his name is John. The student from Japan, his name is Yamada. And the student from Indonesia, his name is Baso, because he comes from Makassar. Before entering the university, *mereka diberi kesempatan untuk jalan-jalan keliling kota* [they are given a chance to go around the city]. *Siapa yang mau ke Australia juga* [Who also wants to go to Australia?]

Ss : Saya [me].

T : You should apply for a scholarship, so you can also go abroad. I will continue the story. So, when they go around the city, they are provided with only one motorcycle. They think, how can they ride in one motorcycle? Motorcycle *hanya untuk dua orang* [can only fit two persons]. And the problem is, who can ride the motorcycle? Yamada says to John "you must be able to ride the motorcycle because America and Australia are the same, they both speak English". But John says "I can't, I don't have an international license". Then, they discuss it again and ask Yamada "because this motorcycle is made in Japan, you must be able to ride the motorcycle". Yamada refuses, "I can't, Japan and Australia are so different. In Japan, there are so many mountains, while in Australia, the area is flatter. Also, in Japan, we use *huruf kanji* [kanji letters], while in Australia, we speak English. My English is not good". After that, they discuss it again and say, "Baso, how about you? Can you ride a motorcycle?" Baso says, "I have learned to ride a motorcycle before coming here, so let's go!" Are you still listening?

Ss : Yes.

In Extract 11, the teacher used the pronoun when he told a story about three students from Indonesia, Japan, and America who got a scholarship to study in Australia. The first 'we' refers to the people who live in Japan, while the second 'we' in the statement refers to those in Australia. The teacher used the pronoun 'we' to position himself as Yamada in the story. Therefore, although the teacher was the one using the pronoun, 'we,' 'he' and 'the students' were excluded from the reference.

4.2 Teachers' Reasons for Using the Pronoun 'We'

The researchers held interview sessions with both teachers to investigate why they used the pronoun 'we' in classroom interaction. The interview was conducted in different places and times for each teacher. Based on the gained data, both teachers have different reasons for using the pronoun 'we'.

According to the first teacher, he regularly used the pronoun 'we', especially the inclusive form, in the classroom interaction for two main reasons. Firstly, he thought that using more pronouns 'we' in the classroom can establish better relationships with the students. The teacher expected the students to feel free to interact and communicate with the teacher and not feel afraid of asking questions when they have problems understanding the lesson. Secondly, the teacher wanted the students to enjoy the English learning process. He tried to make the class fun and enjoyable for the students. Using the pronoun 'we' seemed to help him establish solidarity and connection with his students. The inclusive 'we' conveyed a sense of commonality between the speaker and their listeners. This approach establishes a positive connection by involving the listeners in what is being said and addressing them as peers rather than apprentices (di Carlo, 2018).

On the other hand, the second teacher seldom used the pronoun 'we' when interacting with the students in the classroom. In the interview session, the teacher explained that he used the pronoun to show politeness to the students. He compared the use of 'we' in Buginese culture with Western culture. He claimed that in Buginese culture, the pronoun 'we' can show politeness and respect to the addressee(s). The teacher tried to bring that value of the Buginese culture into the classroom. According to Nashruddin et al. (2020), the pronoun 'we' in Buginese culture is an honorific vocabulary of linguistic politeness that is normally used to address the second-person singular/plural.

The different reasons between the first and second teachers might be influenced by their teaching experience and the relationship they were trying to build with their

students. The first teacher has been teaching English for more than ten years. It implied that he has dealt with many different students in terms of attitude, knowledge, and culture. According to the transcription analysis, the teacher understood how, when, and why he should use the pronoun 'we' in the classroom. The intention was clear to help him establish close but appropriate relationships with the students.

On the other hand, the second teacher had only been teaching English for less than two years. He admitted that teaching English at the school was his first experience. It indicated that the teacher was relatively inexperienced in dealing with different students and classrooms. Based on the analysis of the transcription, the teacher seldom used the pronoun 'we' when interacting with his students. Instead, he tended to use the pronoun 'we' that refers to the speaker and more than one addressee, which referred strictly to the students. In addition, the relationship that he was trying to build with the students was an appropriate relationship that gave priority to show respect and politeness to each other.

However, despite the different uses of the pronoun 'we', both teachers employed it to motivate and encourage their students to create a more welcoming learning environment. In this case, when the teachers gave either warning or command to the students, they preferred using the pronoun 'we' instead of 'you'. Again, they wanted the students to feel comfortable and motivated when learning a foreign language.

5. DISCUSSION

All of the eleven extracts above demonstrated the different uses of the pronoun 'we' by EFL teachers in classroom interaction. Of the thirteen different referential range of pronoun 'we' proposed by [Pavlidou \(2014\)](#), the teachers only used the pronoun 'we' that referred to six different references: (1) 'we' that refers to speaker and more than one addressee, (2) 'we' that refers to speaker and more than one-third party, (3) 'we' that refers to speaker and indefinite group, (4) 'we' that indicates 'you', (5) 'we' that indicates 'I', and (6) 'we' that indicates "they".

Based on the findings, the teachers most frequently used the pronoun 'we' that referred to the inclusive group of himself and the students. By doing so, the teachers attempted to develop certain relationships with the students. This type of pronoun reference is used for different purposes. Firstly, the pronoun is used for establishing solidarity between the teacher and the students. According to [Brown and Gilman \(1960\)](#), solidarity is a symmetrical and reciprocal relationship that considers each person has equal power and right. In this case, the solidarity between teacher and students was built by making the students feel that they were not alone in the learning process. Secondly, this type of inclusive pronoun is also used for indicating cooperation between the teacher and students in the classroom. In this case, the teacher wanted the students to think that he would help them understand the lesson and guide them in doing tasks. Thirdly, the pronoun 'we' can be used to soften the speech act of warning. This finding is in line with [Johnson and Picciuolo's \(2021\)](#) study, which found that lecturers who taught using English as a medium of instruction tended to use more inclusive 'we' to encourage students' active engagement in class, increasing their sense of belonging to a group.

Another important finding is the use of the pronoun 'we' to imply power and prestige. Power and prestige were implied when the pronoun 'we' referred to the

teacher along with another group outside the classroom and the one that indicates himself as a single referent. Both referential values belonged to the exclusive form of 'we', which means that the students were excluded from the referent. In this case, instead of using the pronoun 'I' to imply somebody's power, the pronoun 'we' could help minimize the threat and gap between the superior and the inferior. This is in accordance with a critical discourse analysis conducted by [Dahnilsyah \(2017\)](#), who interpreted that using the pronoun 'we' is part of the strategy to use power to gain a positive image and reduce tension and pressure.

The teachers also used the pronoun 'we' to refer strictly to the students only in the interaction. This referential value usually emerged when the teachers gave specific directions to the students and assigned tasks for the students. In this case, the pronoun 'we' that signified 'you' was used to soften directive speech, indicate politeness in request, and lessen the demanding speech act of order, as also found by [Reynolds-Case \(2012\)](#) in her study. As [Brown and Levinson \(1987\)](#) suggest, using the pronoun 'we' is actually using linguistic indirectness as a strategy to achieve positive politeness from the listeners.

The findings also show that the teachers used the pronoun 'we' to represent themselves with indefinite humankind and indicated by 'they'. The teachers referred to general people, especially when talking about the activities that every person generally does. According to [Roepcke \(1998\)](#), this type of pronoun 'we' represents the broadest (most impersonal) construction of 'we', and therefore it has to include the students as the local reference. The purpose is to relate to the students' experience and understanding. On the other hand, the pronoun 'we' that indicated 'they' appeared only once in the interaction. This referential value is unique because the teacher excluded himself and the students in the reference. Although the teacher excluded himself in the reference, he tried to integrate himself with the referents. As mentioned before, that the common designation of this referential value is for integrative use. According to [Lichtenberk \(2005\)](#), integrative means the speaker integrates himself/herself and the addressees into one group even though objectively they are not members of the group. The integration is not the same as inclusion. Since there is a clear distinction between the speaker, the addressee, and the referent, the pronoun 'we' is used only to position themselves into one group they do not belong to.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings and the discussion, it was found that the pronoun 'we' was used by the teachers with six specific references: 'we' that refers to speaker and more than one addressee, 'we' that refers to the speaker, and more than one-third party, 'we' that refers to speaker and indefinite group, 'we' that indicates 'you', 'we' that indicates 'I', and 'we' that indicates they. Moreover, both teachers had different ways of using the pronoun 'we' and different reasons for using the pronoun in classroom interaction. The first teacher used the pronoun 'we' to establish a close relationship with his students and make the students enjoy the learning process, while the second teacher used the pronoun 'we' to show politeness. However, despite the differences, they both seemed to have the same intention of creating a positive learning environment.

This study provides understandings, findings, and insights of both literature and linguistics to extend knowledge about the use of the pronoun 'we' in classroom

discourse. This study also shows the connection that can be built between teachers and students in the classroom by using the pronoun ‘we’. Although it has answered the research questions, there are some limitations to this study. The respondents in this study are limited to two EFL teachers with their students. More observations of classroom interaction from various teachers can strengthen the arguments and present different phenomena. Moreover, this study can further research the correlation between the use of the pronoun ‘we’ and the teacher-student relationship.

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Question-Declaration Coupling in a University Meeting Talk: Discourse of Social Inequality and Collegiality

Leonardo O. Munalim^{*1}
Cecilia F. Genuino²
Betty E. Tuttle³

¹School of Arts and Sciences, Philippine Women's University, 1004 Metro Manila, PHILIPPINES

²College of Graduate Studies and Teacher Education Research, Philippine Normal University, 1000 Metro Manila, PHILIPPINES

³College of Liberal Arts and Communication, De La Salle University, Dasmariñas, Cavite, PHILIPPINES

Abstract

Conversation Analysis (CA) deals with the description of the microscopic and corpus-driven data in an 'unmotivating looking' analytical fashion. As long as there are new, interesting, or deviant features from the data, they are always worthy of a micro analysis. For this paper, we report the 'question-declaration coupling' in meeting talks as a new feature and explicate it through the discourse of social inequality and collegiality in the academe. The data came from a total of five recorded meetings from three departments, such as Education, Arts & Science, and Social Work, in a private university in Manila, Philippines. The meetings lasted for five hours and 50 minutes. From adjacency pairs of question-answer, the sequential pattern shows that the questions deserve conspicuous answers from the subordinates, but the Chair automatically couples them with declarative sentences and other utterances that serve as continuers. The pattern is categorised as a strategic turn-suppressing mechanism to hold back the members from possibly challenging the existing policies of the institution. It is also seen as a strategic mechanism to deprive the members of extending the litanies of possible counter-arguments. From a positive perspective, we argue that it is through the air of social inequality and

* Corresponding author, email: lomunalim@pwu.edu.ph

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collegiality that people are able to know their boundaries in an ongoing interaction. Toward the end, we state the implications of the results for teaching and learning socio-pragmalinguistics. We also recommend future cross-linguistic comparisons for these microscopic features under study, considering the small corpus of this study.

Keywords: Collegiality, conversation analysis, faculty meeting, social inequality, question-declaration coupling.

1. INTRODUCTION

Interrogativity is a resource in every language (cf. Siemund 2017; Stivers & Robinson, 2006). Specifically, a question from the point of view of Conversation Analysis (CA) is the first-pair part of the adjacency pair. It is operationalised vis-à-vis the default and expected responses or answers (Schegloff, 2007; Steensig & Drew 2008). In like manner, a question is a turn-taking yielding mechanism that obligates the hearer to take the next relevant turn to satisfy the first-pair part (DeVito, 2001; Mori, 2002), “either by providing an answer or by accounting for non-answer responses” (Stivers & Rossano, 2010, p. 7). To Boyd and Heritage (2006), questions are obligating speech acts because they place constraints and restrictions on the recipient. The obligatory second-pair part eventually shapes the succeeding relevant turns because it is normal when the hearer becomes accountable to the obligatory answers (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973).

The question-answer system is common in institutional talks with established and pre-determined turn-taking infrastructures, such as in debates, ceremonies, proceedings, testing sessions, meetings (Schegloff, 1999; Wilson & Wilson, 2005), and other rule-governed conversations. In the context of psychotherapy, for example, questions are considered constructive because they provide the client the chance to join the conversation (McGee et al., 2005). Heritage (2010) also studied questions in an institutional talk in medicine. He maintains that physicians have to construct questions that can boost a compassionate relationship with the patients. This has something to do with the linguistic constructions of the questions that can beget answers. Prescriptively, all unanswered questions should be avoided to do away with possible ambiguities, uncertainties, and misunderstandings (Luck, 2013).

Many cumulative works on CA for the past fifty years have focused on both institutional and ordinary talks. The last decade has seen an increasing number of studies active in institutional meetings (Månsson, 2015; Saft, 2001, 2004; Vöge, 2010), parent-teacher conferences (Markström, 2011), in cross-cultural researches (Sidnell, 2009), in an ESL/EFL setting or CA-based pedagogical approach (Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Filipi & Barraja-Rohan, 2015), in a bilingual setting (Gafaranga, 2012), in legal domains (Travers, 2013), in media such as television and radio interviews (Hutchby, 2006), in computer-mediated communication (Gonzalez-Lloret, 2011; Suzuki, 2013), and in medical practices (Maseide, 2011; Ruusuvuori, 2005).

However, amid this burgeoning research enterprise, it may be hard to unify some CA-related studies because CA tradition is microscopic that focuses on specific sequential features (Clifton, 2006; Gumperz, 1982; Sacks et al., 1974; cf. Schiffrin, 2000). CA tradition is corpus/data-driven which widely accepts the premise that as

long as there are new, interesting or deviant features from the data, they can be analysed and described in great detail to further enhance an understanding of the discourse of the talk (Clifton, 2006; Kress, 2001; Psathas & Anderson, 1990; Wong & Olsher, 2000). The case-by-case analysis favoured in CA (Raymond, 2003). Schegloff (1987) also assures that any corpus-driven feature is worthy of analysis.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

Motivated by the ‘unmotivated looking’ (Clifton, 2006) conversation analytic approach, this present study aimed to describe the sequential pattern of the corpus-driven feature of question-declaration coupling, and describe its discourse with regard to social inequality and collegiality. These objectives could account for this turn-taking mechanism of the Chair who holds the default authority in a meeting talk.

The study assumes that the turn-taking system of the meeting is Chair-led. Nonetheless, the adjacency pair of question-answer allows the hearer to respond to the giver. Based on the different pragmatic inferences from the questions, the faculty members can actually grab the speaking turn for some corresponding answers. It should be noted that the answering turns are not considered as deviations from the normative structure of the talk because questions deserve answers. Members can wrestle with the default structure based on the necessity to respond to the questions posed. To this end, the way the Chair and the members orient and respond to the question reflects the prototype framing of social inequality and collegiality.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Faculty Meeting as an Institutional Talk

The institutionality of the talk like a faculty meeting can be lumped up with an assertion that the social order of the talk is achieved through the relevant task-based and role-based activities performed with some institutional goals in mind (Drew & Sorjonen, 1997; Gardner, 2004; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1991). One universal notion about the institutionality of the meeting is through some turn-taking mechanisms controlled by the Chair. The logic of this institutionality is clear: The Chair is entrusted with power and authority by virtue of his or her role in an organisation (cf. Vickers, 2014) to lead the social actions of the meeting. Consequently, the Chair allocates the “turns in a way that considers the distribution of rights to speak among co-participants, and the respect of the topical agenda of the meeting as well as the time schedule” (Markaki & Mondada, 2012, p. 33).

The study of Markaki and Mondada (2012) reported that the mention of national categories during the multinational meeting grants the members for the next possible relevant turns. This manner provides the representative of the country the “special rights and obligations to confirm or to invalidate and correct information provided about the country” (Markaki & Mondada, 2012, p. 33). Mirzaee and Yaqubi (2016) shared that the teacher had to observe silence to create a space for the participants for the achievement of the goals of the conference. Silence as an interactional device was also used to prepare the meeting members for their accountability for the ongoing project as shown in the study of Månsson (2015). Lastly, a doctoral study by Rixon

(2011) found out that the workshop leader demonstrated copious use of instructions with or without separate closing. These studies exemplify that the turns may or not be relinquished depending on the current speaker's style of turn allocation.

The faculty meeting is expected to be loaded with many cases of speech acts, such as questioning, complaining, clarifying, suggesting, commanding, apologising, and directives, to mention a few. Predominantly, it was massively expected that most of these illocutionary speech acts are adjacency pairs of questions and answers. Although a meeting has minutes, questions are not primarily planned but are contingent on the prior and next relevant turns. In this case, the questions should be formulated in such a way that it gets the right answer.

2.2 On Turn-Yielding Mechanisms

In turn-yielding mechanisms, the speaker wishes to become a listener, thus using some turn-yielding cues, such as the clear use of falling intonation, paralanguage and gesticulation, sociocentric sequences, and syntax. Expressions, such as 'but oh', 'or something', or 'you know', are sociocentric sequences. Different kinds of paralanguage, such as rate, accent, pitch, laughter, volume, and other turn-taking cues accompany verbal communication. Other mechanisms include gesticulation, eye movement, and backchanneling using head-nodding; vocalisations, such as 'mm' or 'uhuh,' 'yeah,' 'okay,' and 'wow,' and by gestural and positional cues including gaze, head movements such as nodding, and orientation of the upper body (DeVito, 2001; Hall, 2005; Young & Lee, 2004) signal that the speaker relinquishes his or her turn to the other speaker.

2.2.1 On adjacency pairs

Related to turn-yielding are the adjacency pairs. They refer to the explicit coupling of successive utterances of speakers. Their concept can be extended to a 'more generic notion of 'next positioning''. Adjacency pair requires a current action to receive a reciprocal action, right immediately after the completion of the first part (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990).

Different pairs have been noted by many scholars with the idea in mind that the absence of the second pair means that the hearer takes for granted the first pair. For example, Heritage (2012) lists 'hello' and 'goodbye' as the most common paradigmatic cases of adjacency pairs. On the one hand, Schegloff (1986) enumerates four sequence types in a telephone conversation, such as (a) summons-answer, (b) identification-recognition, (c) greeting, and (d) 'how are you'. 'Hello' is regarded as the most common form of telephone summons. Its utterance may hint at the caller for initial recognition of the one who answers it (Wong, 2002).

Other pairs may take in a form compliment and compliment responses, requests, invitations, and their corresponding acceptance or rejection, greetings, and so forth (Macaulay, 1994; Placencia, 2014), including "highly ritualized actions such as greetings, farewells and summonses" (Stivers & Rossano, 2010, p. 52). Richards (1980) offers examples, such as a request for information-grant, request-grant, compliant-apology, and summons-answer. In short, adjacency pairs prototypically take the form AB-AB or AB-BA that is common to questions, commands, and

requests), not typically the form of AA, BB, or otherwise considered as a rhetorical question.

2.3 On Social Inequality and Collegiality

The meeting may be heightened by some institutional power. The “constitution of power effects” (Samra-Fredericks, 2005, p. 804) is expected to be flaunted or flouted during the meeting. The meeting talk may not be innocent with respect to the ‘use and abuse’ of power whose achieved status of the Chair is dependent on his or her educational attainment and qualifications (Hewitt, 1997). The Chair can always exercise his or her power in order to get things done. As Weber (1947, p. 152) believes, “power is the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his/her own will despite resistance regardless of the basis on which this probability rests”. As a result, the subordinates are laminated into an acceptance that the superordinate’s manner of controlling the turns is the default structure. In short, unequal rights, access, and opportunities to a speaking turn may be indisputable in a meeting. Additionally, the control of meeting would still be based on the ideologies of the Chair, whether or not he or she believes the achieved and ascribed power is absolute or not, whether or not he or she believes in egalitarianism and collegiality in the talk.

The turns at talk can also be a manifestation of collegiality in the speech community. Collegiality is foremost brought to the fore using some politeness principles. Theoretically, a speaker’s attempt to take turns during a conversation must be carried out with some politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) expound on this theory of the negative and positive face – all considered a public self-image. These strategies are social prescriptions, and an act of considering somebody’s feelings (Wardhaugh, 2009), which is meant to enhance, maintain, or protect an individual face (Scollon & Scollon, 1983), promote social order, solidarity, and stability (Schiffrin, 2009), and maximise the positive effects on the interlocutors. Rühlemann (2007) believes that a conversation contains context, co-construction, sequential organisation or real-time processing, discourse management, and relation management. Thus, the superordinate-subordinate relationship in the meeting hastens the air of collegiality and camaraderie.

The practice of collegiality sits well with the idea of Philippine cultural orientations of *pakikisama* or smooth interpersonal relationships (Andres, 1981; Munalim & Genuino, 2019b; Munalim & Genuino, 2021b). It is observed not to strain good relationships because Filipinos avoid a direct conflict with other people. Other traits include euphemisms, the use of go-between, and the sensitivity to personal affronts, such as *hiya* (Ledesma et al., 1981). With this in mind, subordinates may accept the default structure of the Chair given the asymmetrical relationship as regards social distance, relative power, and absolute ranking (Brown & Levinson 1987). Hence, the levity of collegiality is inextricably hemmed within some cultural underpinnings in a given speech community.

Saft (2004) analysed arguments in two different sets of university faculty meetings and discussed the issues of external institutional and cultural aspects. Accordingly, the Japanese orient themselves to the pre-established cultural orientations to harmony and social hierarchy, which is *pakikisama* in the Philippine context. These concepts were also investigated in the previous studies by Saft (2001),

showing that the meeting members are oriented to the cultural concepts of *wa* (harmony), *emoiyari* (empathy), and *enryo* (restraint) significantly shape social interaction in Japanese society. Saft (2001) does not fully reject the influence of core cultural values in Japanese culture that might have precipitated the social actions of the attendees in these sets of faculty meetings. Culture enhances one's understanding of social actors' behaviours in any conversation.

In spoken discourse, silence may be expected. Its deployment may convey a pre-established cultural orientation of submission to authority. The turn-denying gesture like silence is a manifestation of a 'playing safe' attitude of a participant. In the Philippine culture, as a general observation, the participants' non-participation, non-assertion, or silence during the meeting is a deliberate intention not to appear assertive and combative to the authority. The tendency to be assertive probably may mean a bold attempt to question the persons in authority. The silence may hint that they rely on the prior knowledge of what is generally expected from them, thus what is regarded as appropriate in a shared social interaction with someone in authority manoeuvring the talk. Therefore, silence is a keyframing that orients them to be a passive audience, a social reality (cf. Mumby & Clair, 1997) among the subordinates.

2.4. Issues of Conversation Analysis

CA has catapulted many studies that aim to understand the nature and discourse of a naturally occurring talk. To date, CA is a growing field of inquiry which has been enriched by multidisciplinary contributions (Clifton, 2006; Gumperz, 1982; Sacks et al., 1974; cf. Schiffrin, 2000). Although ten Have (1999) claims that the core topic of interest in CA is turn-taking, Drew (2017) dispels this impression that CA is only 'about' turn-taking. He points out that what speakers 'do' with the words (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) in those turns, and how these turns are calibrated for and understood in an ongoing social action can be a significant contribution of CA. This is where the description of the corpus-driven feature identified from this study springs from to account for the discourse of social inequality and collegiality in a meeting talk as manifested in the members' linguistic and paralinguistic resources at their disposal.

In CA studies, analysts are encouraged to respect the data and allow them to emerge and speak for themselves (cf. Wooffitt, 2005). Consequently, it is quite a challenge to establish the gap borne out from the related studies (cf. Munalim & Genuino, 2019a; Munalim & Genuino, 2021a). The present study claims that the feature of question-declaration coupling has not been identified by the previous studies yet. Hence, it is assumed that this paper will offer new perspectives and insights, especially because the context of the utterances falls under the Filipino cultural terrains. To attest to this claim, Brown (2010) maintains that there are massive differences between and among the languages in terms of the linguistic structures, cultural orientations, social pragmatic functions of some linguistic items, and features.

3. METHODS

3.1 CA Design

This present study has been coured through the Conversation Analytic approach. Schegloff (2010, p. 42) explicates that “one of the key tasks of researchers is not to sacrifice the detailed examination of single cases on the altar of broad claims...to examine the detailed analysis of single cases as episodes with their own reality, deserving of their own rigorous analysis without respect to their bearing on the larger argument for which they are being put forward”.

3.2 Data and Instruments

Five meetings from three departments in a private university in Manila, Philippines formed the corpus of the study. School A had three meetings, School B with one meeting, and School C with one meeting, respectively. School B had the longest duration of meetings which lasted for two hours. The rest of the meetings were conducted in forty-five minutes and one hour. The total duration of the meetings recorded was five hours and 50 minutes. It should be noted that the unequal number of minutes did not affect the qualitative analysis because CA does not adhere to any statistical irregularity (Raymond, 2003; Schegloff, 1987) of the talk. Meanwhile, the five sets of the meetings would suffice (cf. Itakura & Tsui, 2004; O’Sullivan, 2010; Park, 2009; Vettin & Todt, 2004) given the microscopic nature of CA.

Meanwhile, the agenda of the meetings were not uniform. Schools A and B concentrated on accreditation while School B was intended to discuss the commencement of the academic year. Differences in agenda neither affected the qualitative analysis, as CA studies are not comparative in nature, and do not look at the commonality of practices. Arminen (2000) underlines that the defining feature of CA does not study talk in general, but is directed at specifying the practices in an aggregate where the generic properties and the social action that generate the fashion of social reality are illuminated.

Participants in the study were the intact group from the three departments of a non-sectarian university in Manila, Philippines, where the first author is affiliated. They were the official full and part-time employees, composed of a mix of 34 male and female part-time and full-time faculty members (School A- 8, School B- 6, School C- 20). These departments are the School of Education, School of Arts & Sciences, and School of Social Work. The selection was purposive and was purely based on the official number of faculty members from each of the three departments. The case for other faculty members who were absent during the meeting was not consequential to the analyses. The deans/chair of the department chaired all the meetings.

The choice of a faculty meeting from the university where the researcher is connected was intentional for three reasons. First, CA investigates human behaviours from inside the system, thus avoiding the imposition of the researcher’s constructs (Berry et al., 2011; Morris et al., 1999). Second, some concerns ranging from personal to managerial which are only exclusive to the invited and employed participants may transpire during the meeting. Lastly, CA tries to mitigate the possible ‘observer’s paradox’ (Labov, 1984) when the target participants would behave unusually and would deliberately modify their linguistic behaviours during the recording.

The first author of this study only sat in the School C meeting where he is part of the faculty. He begged off from joining in the discussion and remained as an official ratified audience while writing the minutes of the meeting. The researcher's presence must have affected the usual actuation of the meeting participants, somehow, but the effects must have been mitigated because the researcher has been their colleague for five years. Sitting in a faculty meeting as an outsider is expected to affect the members' linguistic behaviours at a more serious level.

Although Labov (1984) warns that candid recordings have little value for linguistic research, an illicit recording (Bowern, 2008) was never applied in this study. After all ethical qualms were addressed to safeguard the well-being and dignity (DeCosta, 2015; Heigham & Croker, 2009) of the faculty, audios and videos were recorded with the help of two videographers who were Communication Arts students of the same university. Data were transcribed using the selected transcription conventions by Jefferson (2004), following Liddicoat's (2007) recommendations that they are robust and useful. All transcriptions with possible identifiable details such as names were anonymised to make sure no part of the transcripts could be traced to any member in the meeting. English glosses were also indicated for Tagalog utterances.

3.3 Data Analysis

A descriptive qualitative analysis, emic perspective, and corpus-driven methodological approach of 'ethnomethods' CA was used to identify and describe the microscopic feature and its sequential organisations (cf. Clifton, 2006; Gardner, 2004; Psathas & Anderson, 1990; Raymond, 2003; Wooffitt, 2005). From the starting point of CA, the analysis became eclectic, iterative, and integrative in nature, encompassing critical discourse analytical approaches, especially in the analysis of how collegiality and social inequality are manifested and resisted.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Sequential Pattern of Question-Declaration Coupling

In the study, the term 'question-declaration coupling' was coined to refer to the microscopic corpus-driven feature from the meeting under analysis. That is, the first-pair part question is immediately followed by and transformed into a declarative utterance, or followed by another utterance to deprive the hearer of taking the answering turn.

It is argued that the Chair immediately couples the questions with declarations as an attempt to deprive the members of answering even if the questions deserve conspicuous answers.

(1) Corpus 2, Extract 53, School A
TIMESTAMP <<38:06-39:05>>

English Gloss

827	Chair	Graduate School Advising and Editing <i>kasi nga ito brinought up ni Dr. Yu, ang</i>	Because the fee of 14,000 for doctoral advising was brought up by Dr. Yu.
828		Doctoral Adviser <i>ang bayad: 14,000</i>	

829			<i>mas malaki pa ang bayad natin sa XOXO University, 14,000.</i>	Our fee is bigger than that of XOXO University.
830			<i>Sa XOXO Doctoral Adviser they are paid, Advisers rather 10,000 lang</i>	
831			<i>sa atin 14,000 ang Doctoral Adviser.</i>	Ours is 14,000 for doctoral advising
832			<i>Masteral 9,000=</i>	
833	Villa		<i>Pero Ma'am=</i>	But Ma'am
834	Chair	->	<i>=ANO ANG BOTTOMLINE n'on?</i>	What is the bottom line?
835		->	<i>ANO ANG BOTTOM [line]</i>	what's the bottom line?
836	Villa		[Yes] Ma'am	
837	Chair		<i>'yon ang tanong ni Dr. [Yu]</i>	That's the question of Dr. Yu
838	Villa		[Yes] Ma'am (0.4)	
839	Chair	->	<i>Kaya, you have to do the editing (.)</i>	
840		->	<i>Uh eh busisiin niyo</i>	You have to look into it.
841			<i>kasi may nag-brought out 'Ma'am ang editing paano 'yong nang nagbabayad pa ang mga estudyante sa labas.'</i>	Because somebody brought the editing out to Dr. Yun. Students are paying outside.
842			Well, ee-it's up,	
843			it's up to them	
844			but the advisers should really attend to the editing of the paper	
845		->	<i>Ganoon lang naman 'yon ano?</i>	That's how it is, isn't it?
846		->	<i>Kasi alam mo 'yon eh 'di ba?</i>	Because you know it, don't you?
847			<i>Okay, lang.</i>	It is fine.
848			so just a matter of informing you 'no	
849			<i>Ayan.</i>	There
850			Monitoring of Advisees 'no,	

The discourse in (1) manifests how Chair suppresses the rightful turn of Villa who attempts to answer at 836 with her line, "Yes, Ma'am." However, the Chair is too emphatic with the through-put question, "ANO ANG BOTTOM LINE n'on? ANO ANG BOTTOM line?" ((What's the bottom line?)). Although the question seems to elicit a direct and sincere answer, the Chair fails to offer the answering turn to Villa and the members. The rather emphatic voice subjects Villa to backchannel as an expression of empathy and sympathy (Ruusuvuori, 2005) at lines 836 and 838 but fails to grab the answering turn.

(2) Corpus 2, Extract 66, School A

TIMESTAMP <<48:21-48:31>>

English Gloss

1064	Chair	->	Settled <i>na po tayo 'no?</i>	We are settled, right?
1065		->	Settled <i>na po tayo.</i>	We are settled.
1066			<i>'Yung mga nakaraan dahil hahanapin ko 'yong mga minutes, Ma'am</i>	The previous ones, Ma'am, because I will look for the previous minutes.
1067			<i>kasi kung ako ginagawa ko 'yon eh parang journal=</i>	Because in my case, I did it in journal type

Another proof of another intentional question-declaration coupling is at lines 1064 and 1065 in (2). The second pair is a repeat of the prior utterance whose pragmatic meaning is altered using rising and falling intonational contour. There is a clear possible assumption on this matter that may explain why Chair employs this strategic turn-denying mechanism. Firstly, Chair's attempt to yield an answering turn

to the members may challenge the present issues at hand. She then abruptly pairs with a declaration of ‘settlement’ with the end in mind that she is providing the members to question another case of the issues at hand. In return, the members cede to this structure as the Chair proceeds to the next agendum (lines 1066 and 1067). Members, at the same time, manifest some politeness strategies by avoiding challenging the declaration of settlement. They perform this through an off-record-indirect strategy that tries to avoid direct face-threatening action (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

4.2 Discourse of Social Inequality and Collegiality

At the same time, the members do not attempt to take the speaking floor even if it is their opportunity to grab the speaking turn. The turn bounces back to the Chair. Consequently, all members behave quietly to the agitated gesture of the Chair. Chair answers her own questions from lines 839 to 844.

On the contrary, the Chair perhaps has the orientation that her question is only rhetorical and is not meant to be answered by any of the members. Villa’s attempt to get in is a manifestation that she treats the question as if it intends to solicit answers from the group. The intention of Chair to the speech act is elucidated at line 845, “*Ganoon lang naman ‘yon, di ba? Kasi alam mo yun eh ‘di ba?’*” ((That’s how simple it is, right? Because you know it, don’t you?)) This means that any answer from the group is irrelevant, and the intention of Chair 1 is only to “so just a matter of informing you ‘no. Ayan’” at lines 848 and 849.

Seen from this point, the absence of part B in the sequence should not be treated as an offense to the Chair-questioner, but should be treated as a systematic mechanism that allows the Chair to keep maintaining the floor as she is rightful to. This conduct is demonstrated by the attendees that enable the Chair to keep talking and do the lecture framing.

The discourse in (3) contains the coupling of question and the succeeding declarative statement suppresses the member’s possible next sequences of utterances. In line 73, the Chair’s utterance starts with the word ‘if’ is supposed to be asking for answers from Villa. However, with respect to the Chair, Villa never attempts either to agree or disagree. In effect, the Chair takes another turn asking Villa with a post-positioned tag question (Steensig & Drew, 2008), “*ano?/what?*” Villa in the same manner displays an affiliative act by not answering the Chair because perhaps if the answer is a disagreement, it could possibly offend the Chair.

(3) Corpus 2, Extract 3: School of Education		English Gloss
TIMESTAMP <<04:12-04:46>>		
67	Villa	But the updating of the curriculum and the syllabus also need more reading.
68	Chair	Okay, okay, <i>kaya nga ‘yon ang inuna ko na ibigay sa inyo.</i> Okay, okay, that is why I prioritised that one so I can give it to you.
69	Villa	We don’t have anything to
70	Chair	Para at least <i>habang</i> we are preparing for other papers So that at least while we are preparing for other papers
71		You can already work on it, no?
72		<i>Kaya nga</i> that was what that was my priority and our priority That is...
73	->	IF you are <i>ano</i> (.) amenable to that, no? ((gazing at Villa))

74	Villa	((looking down her notes))	
75	Chair	-> <i>Walang problema ano?</i>	There is no problem, is there?
76		-> So, thank you Ma'am Ms. Villa <i>ano</i> for that (0.1)	So, thank you Ma'am Ms. Villa yeah for that
77		Okay so XOXO ((<i>accrediting body</i>)) syllabi.	
78		Okay, we are done with that.	

However, the Chair's follow-up question at line 75 could have been an opportunity for Villa to take her turn, but the Chair immediately suppresses Villa's possible turn with a succeeding utterance at lines 77 and 78. The declarative statements compel the hearer to stop asserting because the Chair couples immediately with a statement.

It is noted that the issue at hand in (3) is considered a major thing for discussion during the meeting, but the Chair thanks and proceeds to the next minutes at line 77. This may be an indication of depriving the members to react that will further extend the discussions and allow the members to rationalise and 'defend' themselves. This means that if the Chair allows silence, and calls specific members to react from lines 73 and 75, then it could somehow challenge this position of the priorities for the accreditation processes. Consequently, no one dares to bargain the deadline of the update of the curriculum. The time at line 74 could have been the chance to grab the speaking turns when the Chair looks at her minutes of the meeting.

The multi-party setup of meetings may allow the Chair to 'name-call' in order to allocate the next speaking recipient. As a multi-party talk, the Chair has several options when giving the participants the opportunity to grab the speaking floor. She can use gaze to signal the next speaker to take turns. Likewise, she may call by honorific names or by simply calling their first names. Oftentimes, the Chair addresses the audience as a general group without mentioning specific names. These mechanisms were not in utility in the Chair's linguistic resources.

The members' orientation to question-declaration coupling that suppresses the turns is a good point of the analysis of the sense of collegiality. As already discussed, (1) manifests how the Chair suppresses the rightful turn of Villa who attempts to answer at 836 with a prefatory line, "Yes, Ma'am". Villa's short and un-competitive turns at lines 833 and 836 display that she does not want to challenge the Chair's emphatic turns. Challenging and even asserting to take an answering turn may only provoke the seemingly annoyed tone of the Chair. Villa's silence and even the silence of all other faculty members provide a default structure than Reg has the authority to somehow lecture them as regards the protocols of thesis and dissertation advising. This gesture of acceptance purports a sense of collegiality with the idea in mind, at the same time, that being silent means being polite and respectful to the authority of the Chair.

5. DISCUSSION

From the patterns, it may be averred that the turns in the meeting are not devoid of the push and pull of social inequality and collegiality. Whether or not it was intentional, the Chair attempts to consolidate and monopolise her default turn-taking power. This widely held notion is based on the fact that organisation and workplace power relations reside and are suffused in a meeting (Mumby & Clair, 1997; Roscigno

et al., 2009), which suggests that the Chair is the most powerful figure in this type of institutional talk. Meanwhile, the faculty members frame their identities of powerlessness by laminating themselves in a default status (Brown, 2007).

Although the subordinates attempt to wrestle with the default structure of the Chair, their attempts have not been successful, thereby allowing them to concede to the concept of collegiality, respect, and smooth interpersonal relationship with the person in authority. Steensig and Drew (2008) maintain that the social practice of questioning also has its pragmatic functions and consequences specific in a sociolinguistic environment. This suggests that the dispute between social inequality and collegiality is about expectations and prototype of talk, of what is expected of the default status between the superordinate and subordinate, including the conditions of the local conditions of social distance, relative power, and absolute ranking (Brown & Levinson, 1987) in the academe.

Though the default structure of the subordinate sits well with the concept of politeness principles (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and is precipitated by some cultural orientations, the study is concerned about the dire need to answer the questions. It is assumed that rhetorical questions should have a pragmatic role in an institutional talk like a faculty meeting where issues and concerns deserve clarifications, expansions of arguments, and resolutions. Decisions and resolutions do not always come on the spot. They are managed collaboratively, and as an emergent process, decisions undergo a process of deliberation, arguments, harmony, and compromise. These formulations of agreement and disagreements are desired in order to move toward the intended goals or agenda. From the cultural vantage point of view, the study is also concerned about shielding the participants from being labelled as impolite in their attempts to be collegial in the academe even if the questions deserve true answers and rationalisation from the subordinate. After all, the Chair may be cognisant that a good speaker also allows the other speakers to take their own speaking turns (Johnstone, 1996).

Although the data came from a Filipino context, these findings have several implications for teaching and learning socio-pragmalinguistics at the universal sphere. The results can help the students to look at language in actual social interactions that place more emphasis on socio-pragmatic competences. Consequently, the results may be used as sample materials in the classroom to pinpoint how a meeting can be organised (Odermatt et al., 2015). For example, Barraja-Rohan (2011) aims to help teachers teach interactional competence among second language learners to raise awareness of the norms, mechanisms, and even expectations of interactions. It illuminates insights into how this talk is organised by professionals who are believed to be the model of communicative competence. Eventually, students may be more competent speakers when they are engaged in professional discourse like a meeting.

6. CONCLUSION

The sequential pattern shows that the questions deserve conspicuous answers from the subordinates, but the Chair automatically couples them with declarative sentences and other utterances that serve as continuers. The pattern is categorised as a strategic turn-suppressing mechanism to hold back the members from possibly challenging the existing policies of the institution. It is also seen as a strategic mechanism to deprive the members of extending the litanies of possible counter-

arguments. From a positive perspective, this explicit hierarchy as manifested in the question-declaration coupling is intended to sustain the backbone of an organisation where power coheres all people together to the idea of collegial and hierarchical relationships. It reminds the members about the fact of the matter that there is a figure of authority in a talk that is taking place. It is through the air of social inequality and collegiality that people are able to know their boundaries in an ongoing interaction.

The microscopic feature under study engenders a future lens of analysis. The use of this coupling should also be investigated whether or not the time constraint forebears it. Potential strategies to overcome barriers to answering questions include scheduling more time or more visits. Another triangulation should also be done to find out if the subordinate's silence is consequential to the leadership style and personal characteristics of the Chair who has been in the position for five years. Thirdly, there must have been several contextual factors that hastened the production of question-declaration coupling. Tracing them needs triangulation and case analysis with the Chair herself before we come up with a hazy generalisation that the Chair exhibits the 'use and abuse' default speaking turn in the meeting talk even at the microscopic level. To this end, we hope we have provided a base study for future cross-linguistic comparisons for these microscopic features under study.

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Deixis in English Islamic Friday Sermons: A Pragma-Discourse Analysis

Asim Ayed Alkhawaldeh*

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts and Humanities,
Al al-Bayt University, Mafraq 25113, JORDAN

Abstract

Although deixis has received increasingly academic attention in linguistic research, its use in sermons, particularly in the Islamic context, has been largely underexplored. Therefore, this paper examined deixis in Islamic Friday sermons from the perspective of pragmatics and discourse analysis. Drawing on Levinson's Framework, it aimed at analyzing three main types of deixis (personal, temporal, and spatial), focusing on their forms, features, functions, and frequency. The data were a corpus of 70 sermons compiled by the researcher from various online websites. The study employed qualitative and quantitative methods to meet the purpose of the study. The findings revealed that these three deictic types were relatively common in the language of the respective corpus with the personal type being predominant, deictically pointing to different referents whose interpretation was sensitive to the context in which they occurred. As an affectively powerful tool in the corpus, the preachers utilized deixis to serve a wide variety of functions on the discourse and pragmatic levels. In the corpus, deictic expressions worked as a discourse strategy to persuade the listeners by drawing their attention and engaging them in the message of the sermon and to signal and organize the flow of information in the ongoing discourse. They also served to enhance togetherness, intimacy, and politeness between the preachers and their audience. This study is hoped to present a good basis for further linguistic investigation of deixis in other languages and religions to illuminate how deictics work in sermonic discourse.

Keywords: Friday sermon, personal deixis, spatial deixis, temporal deixis.

* Corresponding author, email: asim-alkhawaldeh@aabu.edu.jo

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1. INTRODUCTION

As a universal linguistic phenomenon, deixis is held to be ubiquitous and a pervasive feature of daily talk and writing in all-natural languages that every human language employs to point to objects in context (Levinson, 2006). It concerns the ways in which language encodes the features of context of an utterance and the ways in which the interpretation of deictics depends on the analysis of the context in which they are used, thus, reflecting the relationship between the language and context (Levinson, 1983). It includes any linguistic form employed to accomplish the function of 'indicating' or 'pointing', for instance, linguistic forms that indicate people (e.g., you, and they) called 'person deixis', time (e.g., yesterday, and tomorrow) called 'temporal deixis', or place (e.g., there, and here) called 'spatial deixis'. The study of deixis is of paramount importance to linguistic research, particularly pragmatics and discourse studies because it reflects the aspects of inevitable intersection and interaction between the linguistic form and the context in which speech or talk takes place, particularly, how participants encode and decode this phenomenon (O'Keeffe et al., 2011).

There is a variety of expressions varying in forms and functions in different languages that carry a deictic usage, where the role of context is pivotal in figuring out their reference (Mey, 2001). Put it differently, context as a constantly changing setting enables interlocutors in the process of communication to interact and make their use of deictics intelligible, thus, giving them the intended pragmatic meaning. This calls to draw a distinction between what is deictic and non-deictic because expressions that can serve as deictic are not always so (Kreidler, 2014). There is a subtle dividing line between deictic and non-deictic expressions whereby some expressions can serve both deictic and non-deictic functions according to context.

To label an expression as deictic or non-deictic depends on whether this expression derives some of its meaning or interpretation and is sensitive to the current social setting (Hanks, 2011; Kreidler, 2014; Levinson 1983; Levinson, 2006; Mey, 2001; Rühlemann & O'Donnell, 2015). If the expression is context-sensitive, it is deictic but if it is not so, it is non-deictic. For example, 'yesterday' and 'today' are deictic in 'I couldn't help you yesterday, but today is fine', referring to a specific time according to the speaker's intention. Yet, they are non-deictics in 'yesterday's dreams are today's facts' as they do not refer to a specific time but to past and general present time, respectively. The same can be applied to the use of pronouns. For example, 'Ahmed thinks he is right', where the choice of the pronoun 'he' refers back to the noun phrase 'Ahmed' mentioned recently in the sentence. Therefore, there is no need to identify the speech event to recognize the reference of 'he' because its interpretation rests on the preceding noun phrase to which it stands in an anaphoric relation. Hence, this is a non-deictic usage of the pronoun. Consequently, the distinction between deictic and non-deictic (anaphoric) expressions is fairly plain, even if some expressions can be used to serve both functions. Generally speaking, non-deictic expressions are context-independent while deictic ones are context-dependent.

The importance of deixis in English and language, in general, can be seen from two facts. First, deixis is pervasive and ubiquitous in the sense that it is commonly frequent in all languages based on large corpora studies (Wu, 2004). Second, deixis has been largely examined in various genres and text types in different languages from different perspectives. However, little attention has been paid to deixis in religious

settings. More particularly, the study of deixis in Islamic Friday sermons has been understudied as we have not found any study that addresses the issue of deixis in such a genre, despite the meticulous survey of the existing literature. Accordingly, the overriding goal of the paper is to fill this gap by examining the use of deixis in Friday sermons from the perspective of pragmatics and discourse analysis. The findings are expected to contribute to the existing literature by turning academic attention to this area of research and offering a better understanding and more insights into the use of deixis in sermons. Thus, it lays the groundwork for future research. What makes this study distinct is that it is set in an eclectic approach that combines pragmatics and discourse analysis based on a corpus compiled by the researcher, unlike earlier studies that focus on the pragmatic or semantic use of deixis. The paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What types of deixis are commonly used in Friday sermons?
2. What are the deictic expressions used in each type?
3. What are the functions and features of these deictic types?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Taxonomy of Deixis

In the literature, a number of various deictics have been distinguished and classified. According to [Levinson \(1983\)](#), the classical triad classification of deixis is person, time, and place, which can be represented as ‘I-now-here’. In this section, an overview of those deictic types is discussed.

2.1.1 Personal deixis

Person deixis (e.g., ‘I’ and ‘we’) concerns itself with “the identity of the interlocutors in a communication situation” ([Fillmore, 1997, p. 61](#)). It serves to encode the participants’ role in the context in which an utterance is produced ([Levinson, 1983](#)). That is, it is a mirror of the speaker’s point of view on the participants’ role (speakers and hearers) as well as non-participants other than the speaker and the addressee in a speech situation ([Rühlemann & O’Donnell, 2015](#)).

Some pronouns can be distinguished in terms of clusivity: inclusive and exclusive ([Wieczorek, 2013](#)). Inclusivity is explained as to whether the pronoun ‘we’ is intended by the speaker’s utterance to include or exclude the addressee. When it is used to include both the speaker as well as the addressee is called inclusive ‘we’ whereas, it is exclusive when including the speaker and excluding the addressee.

2.1.2 Temporal deixis

Time deixis is the expressions (e.g., now, and today) used to encode and point to the interlocutors’ relation to the time at which the utterance is spoken ([Levinson, 1983](#)). In English, time deixis is, to a large extent, grammaticalized in time adverbs (e.g., now and then) and in tenses (e.g., present and past). [Levinson \(1983\)](#) contends that tense is one of the focal factors operating mainly to ensure that nearly all utterances are deictically anchored to their context.

The time of speaking (the moment of an utterance) is termed as coding time (abbreviated as CT) and the time of receiving (the moment of reception of an utterance) is termed receiving time (abbreviated RT). The former is mostly pinpointed around the speaker, meanwhile, the latter is identified around the addressee. The majority of communicative acts are naturally face-to-face, and thus, CT and RT are deemed identical in that case (O’Keeffe et al., 2011). More specifically, CT is represented in the present tense as it is the time at which the utterance is said. Whereas what occurred prior to the coding time is represented in the past tense, what succeeds the coding time is represented in the future tense. Two types of temporal deictic forms can be distinguished in terms of distality: proximal and distal. Proximal time refers to a time close to the speaker such as ‘now’ while distal time refers to a time far away from the speaker such as ‘then’. According to Kermer (2016), the past tense is the distal form and the present tense is the proximal one.

2.1.3 Spatial deixis

Spatial deixis serves to mark the interlocutors’ relationship with the referents in terms of location or space in context, including demonstratives (e.g., this and that), place adverbs (e.g., here and there), prepositions of place (e.g., below and behind) and motion verbs (e.g., go and come).

In essence, spatial deictics are often relative in distance to the deictic center, for instance, the speaker’s position. The notion of distance from the center is commonly based on proximal/distal opposition. For example, while ‘here’ refers to a location close (proximal) to the speaker, ‘there’ refers to a place more remote or distal from the speaker. Spatial deixis may be metaphorically extended to communicate and stress the speaker’s emotional or personal attitude rather than actual distance (Grenoble, 1998). Yule (2008) illustrates that the speaker may mark a perfume he has just sniffed as metaphorically distant ‘I don’t like that’ though it is physically close.

2.2 Previous Studies

The phenomenon of deixis has been dealt with by a number of scholars and linguists from various approaches and perspectives in different languages and genres. In this section, we sketch out an array of the previous studies relevant to the purpose of the present study.

Many of the existing studies on deixis have focused on its use in political discourse. The analysis of deixis in such a discourse, Zupnik (1994) points out, has manifested the power of deictics in realizing social goals. Hutagalung (2017) and Khalifa (2018) examine the use of deictic expressions in US President Donald Trump’s speeches. While the former shows that the pronoun ‘we’ is often used to involve the citizens to work together to protect America, the latter Khalifa (2018) indicates that the frequent use of ‘we’ can be attributed to the desire of showing power and dominance. In Nigerian presidential speeches, Adetunji (2006) emphasizes that ‘we’ serve different functions, for example, to indicate that a speaker speaks confidently on the behalf of his people to the international community and to persuade them to share the load of responsibility.

From a pragmatic perspective, a number of studies have examined deixis. According to Hanks (2011), the study of deictic expressions is central to pragmatics

because it defines the intersection between linguistic form and social settings. As Marmaridou (2000) puts it, deixis is the most obvious linguistic manifestation of the relationship between language and context. Therefore, it has been often described as the borderline between pragmatics and semantics. Haverkate (1992) investigates the employment of time and person deixis as mitigating strategies in social interaction. In a study on news discourse, Chovanec (2014) highlights the significant contribution of deixis towards the interpersonal dimension of discourse it defines, reinforces, and modifies the participants' personal relation in a speech event.

From a discourse analysis perspective, deixis has been investigated by a variety of studies (Eragbe & Yakubu, 2015; Garner, 2007; Grenoble, 1998; Maziad, 2018). These studies exhibit the role of deixis as a discourse device for achieving and enhancing text cohesion and coherence, particularly, signaling and organizing the flow of text. They also explore their role as a discursive strategy for representing and marking ideological positions and power relations in interaction.

Some studies have been concerned with one category of deixis such as demonstratives and pronouns. In a contrastive study of personal deixis in English and Japanese, Irgens (2017) observes that they are used to point to objects, entities, proximity/distality, honorifics, and saliency. Likewise, Wu (2004) explores spatial demonstratives in English and Chinese, focusing on their basic meanings and uses and their extended and metaphorical meanings. In Harwood's (2005) study, the inclusive pronoun 'we' serves as a positive politeness device by describing, elaborating, critiquing arguments on behalf of the community.

Deixis has been examined in various genres and text types, for example, newspaper (Ewata, 2017), academic writing (Harwood, 2005), literary works (Green, 1992), advertisements (Sušinskienė, 2013). More particularly, relatively few studies address deixis in religious settings (Abdulameer, 2019; Inčuraitė, 2012; Yadin-Israel, 2015). The language of Islamic Friday sermons has attracted the attention of some scholars from different perspectives (Alenzi, 2019; Alsaawi, 2017; Mahmood & Kasim, 2019; Rumman, 2019). However, the study of deixis in Friday sermons has been underexplored as we have not found any study that addresses the issue of deixis in Friday sermons, despite the meticulous survey of the existing literature.

2.3 Islamic Friday Sermons

Friday sermon is a religious congregational practice in Islam that includes an oral address (called in Arabic *khutba*) on a weekly basis delivered by a preacher in mosques. Sermons aim at influencing listeners to adopt, reinforce, and modify certain attitudes and beliefs, and particularly to establish a good relationship between the audience and Allah 'Islamic God'. Characterized as a discourse valuable to be worth pursuing, the Friday sermon represents an important facet of public discourse directed to Muslims and an influential and educational means (Mahmood & Kasim, 2019).

The language of religious discourse has received scholars' attention in different domains (mainly discourse analysis and pragmatics) since religion is seen as a crucial and influential factor in society and culture (Akhimien & Farotimi, 2018; Downes, 2011). More particularly, the genre of sermons is a key form of religious discourse and it is widely used over history and across communities, exhibiting certain distinct structures, content, functions, and features which are interesting to be linguistically explored (Akhimien & Farotimi, 2018).

Although many studies have been undertaken to explore language use within institutional settings (e.g., schools, universities, courtrooms, and workplace), less attention has been given to language use within mosques as Islamic institutions in which Muslims can pray, worship, receive religious lessons (especially Friday sermons) and meet their fellows (Alsaawi, 2017).

The interest in Islamic sermons can be justified that, on one hand, Islam has produced a noticeable influence on culture and society. On the other hand, they have been increasingly spreading thanks to the popularity of social media platforms and the growing number of Muslim converts worldwide, especially, in English-speaking countries. The rationale for the present investigation of deixis derives from the belief that the study of the deictic phenomenon offers valuable insights into language (Wu, 2004) and particularly enriches our understanding of its behavior in the discourse in question as it has been characterized as an integral part of discourse (Green, 1992). Therefore, the present study intends to offer an adequate corpus-based investigation of the deictic usage in English Islamic sermons. What marks the present study distinct from preceding studies on deixis is that its focus is centered on the use of deixis in sermons based on a specialized corpus, drawing on an eclectic approach to discourse and pragmatic analysis.

3. METHODS

To the end of the present study, a corpus of 70 sermons had been established, which is mainly selected from an initially larger corpus containing 120 sermons compiled from various online sources. All the sermons were delivered only in English as the focus of the present study is English Friday sermons. They were conducted by different preachers in different mosques on different Fridays. This indeed helped ensure the diversity of themes for representativeness and validity of the data under scrutiny. The duration of the compiled sermons ranged from approximately between 30 and 40 minutes. They were downloaded from several online websites, which are specialized in Islamic affairs and run by prominent Islamic centers and institutions.

To analyze the present corpus, the process started with locating all instances of the deictic expressions in the corpus according to Levinson's (1983) framework. This step was accompanied by classifying them into their types (person, time, and place) and counting the frequency of each expression and its deictic type to identify the most common. Then, the instances of each type were analyzed and interpreted separately to account for their functions and features. Moreover, the analysis of the pragmatic aspect drew mainly on Levinson (1983) in addition to the studies reviewed here, while the analysis of the discourse role of deixis drew generally on Brown and Yule (2012) as there is no already-established framework on this aspect of deixis. Following Wu (2004), as context is an essential notion in discourse analysis and pragmatics, they are necessary for analyzing deictics since they appeal to the context that embeds them to access their references, functions, and features successfully.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Personal Deixis

The first deictic category to be examined in this study is person deixis concerned with speech participants involved in the act of utterance. In the sermons, the analysis showed that the preachers assigned themselves at the center point of deixis, and thus, the interpretation of pronouns should be understood in relation to that reference point. The findings showed that three forms of personal deictics were found in the corpus: ‘we’, ‘you’, and ‘I’. This is in line with many studies (e.g., [Adegoju, 2014](#); [Ivanova, 2016](#); [Maziad, 2018](#)) that describe those pronouns as the most common in the personal deixis. Statistically speaking, personal deictics rank second in the corpus, with a frequency of 141 times out of 324 times of the deictics in the entire corpus. ‘We’ occurs 86 times more than ‘you’ (26 times) and ‘I’ (29 times).

4.1.1 ‘We’

It has been asserted that ‘we’ is referentially complex, whose meaning is not categorical, and cannot be successfully interpreted without reference to a speech context and speaker’s intentions ([Levinson, 1983](#)). As the most frequent pronoun in the corpus (86 times), the examination showed that ‘we’ was used to point to different referents: the preacher, the preacher and attendees, all Muslims, and all humankind (generic ‘we’ that includes the whole humankind). This proves that it is not always clear who is meant by ‘we’ ([Duguid, 2007](#)).

Based on the pragmatic notion of clusivity, a close reading of the entire occurrences of ‘we’ revealed its exclusive and inclusive character. This feature of ‘we’ has been asserted in the literature on deixis (e.g., [Marmaridou, 2000](#); [Mey, 2001](#); [Wieczorek, 2013](#)). While the inclusive ‘we’ included the preacher and the congregation, who are jointly anchored to the deictic center, the exclusive ‘we’ excluded the congregation from the deictic center. However, the statistical findings revealed that the deictic ‘we’ is much more frequently used to serve an inclusive function (74 times) than its counterpart (12 times), which highlighted the preachers’ preference of the inclusive ‘we’ to the exclusive one. The inclusive ‘we’ was used to convey three different referents in context: to refer variously to the preacher and the attendees, all Muslims including the preacher and attendees, and all human beings. As exclusive, it was used only to refer to the preacher himself and Muslim scholars as well as Islamic institutions. Consequently, it is evident that ‘we’ serves different deictic references in the corpus depending on whether it excludes addressee(s) and its inclusion is total or partial. Hence, it can be stated that the preachers’ usage of ‘we’ oscillated evidently between an all-inclusive ‘we’ (referring to the entire humankind) and a more restricted, partially inclusive ‘we’ referring to him and the congregation, and exclusive ‘we’ referring alone to the preacher.

- (1) We should continue in the development of our relationship with our maker.
- (2) We called for more genuine efforts to face terrorism.

Consider examples (1) and (2), where the former was used inclusively to include the speaker and the attendees and the latter (uttered by the preacher in the context of referring to the role of his institution in warning against terrorism) was used

exclusively to exclude the addressee and behave as egocentric referring only to the speaker's institution.

- (3) We should follow Allah's commandments and keep away from what He forbade.
- (4) We should condemn what extremists act in the name of Islam.
- (5) We ask Allah to make easy for us the path in this world and grant us salvation on the day of judgment.

The high frequency of the deictic 'we' as it appeared in the data reflected that the sermons relied heavily on it to serve various ends as is argued below. Sermon preachers are supposed to utilize various linguistic devices for persuasive and pragmatic purposes. Among these devices is person deixis, especially 'we', characterized in spoken discourse as an important rhetorical tool that plays a powerful role in the process of persuasion (Ivanova, 2016; Zupnik, 1994). This can be illustrated in example (3) in which the preacher utilized the inclusive-we to influence and persuade the listeners that complying with Islamic teachings is every Muslim's responsibility. That is, it downplayed the individual responsibility and enhances the collective responsibility toward the teachings of Islam and the message of the sermon. Another justification of the extensive use of the inclusive 'we' is what Brown and Levinson (1994) point out that in contrast to 'you' and 'I', 'we' can serve pragmatic functions of positive politeness where its use, as seen in example (4), mitigates the assertive force of what the preacher asks the listeners to do that he is not issuing commands. This function is pointed out by Haverkate (1992) that the inclusive use of 'we' produces certain mitigating effects to avoid an impression of imposing the speaker's point of view upon his addressees.

The inclusive 'we' was noticed in the corpus to co-occur with exhortative statements to get listeners to do something preached by the speaker, especially, with the deontic modal 'should' and 'must' as seen in examples (3) and (4). Moreover, it was also used in all instances of directive speech acts of making prayers of supplication, as seen in example (5).

- (6) We need to remind ourselves of our duties towards this city.

In example (6), the preacher used the inclusive-we to minimize the distance between him and his audience, indicating that they all belonged to the same group, and hence, the audience felt close to the preacher and motivated to heed the lessons. It also helped the preacher to appear as one of the Muslims not superior to the congregation as indicated by using 'ourselves' in example (6). The extensive use of 'we' can be characterized as a proximization strategy that draws the listeners closer to the preacher. Instead of 'I' that lends the discourse a marker of self-centeredness, the use of 'we' helps avoid self-centeredness, especially, when it co-occurs with 'together' that intensifies the meaning of plurality or inclusiveness.

- (7) We spoke in the last *khutbah* about the status of the companions of the prophet.
- (8) We mentioned what he highlighted before his death.

Another use of the inclusive-we is what I call 'preaching we', whose function is similar to what is called 'authorial we' (Wales, 2003). In examples (7) and (8), the preacher employed 'we' rather than 'I' to engage his listeners into the sermon and to involve them in joint work, blurring the speaker-addressee divide. The use of such

strategies to engage the addressee explicitly or implicitly is seen as a rhetorical tool for persuasive ends, used by speakers to recognize the presence of their audience, include them as discourse participants, draw and focus their attention, and guide them to the intended interpretation (Hyland, 2005). It is worthy to mention that this use of ‘we’ commonly co-occurs in the sermons with the verbs of ‘saying’ such as ‘spoke’ in example (7) and ‘mentioned’ in example (8).

- (9) Since the beginning of the Covid-19 crisis, we and other religious Islamic institutions that includes many *ulama* (scholars) have issued Fatwa asking all Muslims to comply with the government measures.

As an exclusive deictic, ‘we’ as seen in example (9) is used by the preacher to present himself as a representative of an institution. This institutional ‘we’ avoided the preacher taking the responsibility alone and thereby invoked a larger authority to legitimate the *fatawa* ‘verdict’ concerning safety measures to stop the virus. This use of ‘we’ can work as a persuasive device for the listeners to align themselves with the proposed course of action as “the speaker speaks on behalf of the authoritative source” (Arminen, 2005, p. 106). As a discourse strategy of legitimization, van Leeuwen (1995, 2007, 2008) argues that reference to authoritative sources (Islamic institutions in our case represented by the use of ‘we’ standing as authoritative sources entitled to issue fatwa) in the immediate context of the current speech helps legitimize and strengthen the speaker’s position, thus, winning addressees’ support or acceptance.

4.1.2 ‘You’

The deictic ‘you’ was the least frequent one among the personal deictics (26 times out of 141), unlike Abdulameer’s (2019) study that reports ‘you’ as the most frequent in its religious data. The low frequency of ‘you’ can be justified that the preachers tended to prefer ‘we’ to ‘you’ when addressing the congregation since the reliance on ‘you’ may represent the preacher as a superior addressing his subordinates, and therefore, most of the preachers in the corpus appeared to avoid it. It also created a sense of togetherness and intimacy and enhances the involvement of the congregation in the communicative event.

- (10) I will be talking to you about a group of *ayat*.
 (11) You should have an example in Khadejah who supported her husband.

However, the analysis showed that some preachers resorted to ‘you’ as a discursive way to draw the attention of the congregation and get them to feel that the message was specially directed to them. In some cases, as shown in examples (10) and (11), ‘you’ can be used to indicate intimacy, shortens the distance between the speaker and the audience when being addressed directly (Wang, 2017), and lowers relatively the formality of the speech (Reyes, 2011).

While ‘you’ semantically refers to the addressee(s), in the corpus it pragmatically refers to the congregation attending the Friday sermon. However, the question of whether ‘you’ refers to plural or singular can be answered depending on our knowledge of the context that it is unconventional to address one person in Islamic sermons. Expectedly, no instance of singular ‘you’ is detected since our contextual knowledge informs us those Islamic sermons are by nature directed to the whole

congregation rather than one individual (Alenzi, 2019). It referred deictically to the whole congregation attending the Friday sermon as seen in example (10). As an exception, one instance of the deictic 'you' was detected to point to a particular group of the audience. As seen in example (11), 'you' was used to refer to female congregants where the preacher attempts to urge them to take Khadejah, the prophet Muhammad's wife, as a role model on how to treat their husbands.

(12) What is your relationship with your fellow Muslims? Do you visit the sick and help the needy?

The use of 'you' is observed to be generally used in its positive semantic prosody to urge and entice the listeners into accepting what is being preached. According to the findings, 'you' was commonly used when giving advice to draw the listeners' attention, and reinforce their involvement in the message in question as seen in example (12).

(13) In Islam, you know, to accuse somebody of *zina* (adultery), you have to have four witnesses.

Another interesting use of 'you' in the corpus is in the pragmatic marker 'you know'. As a discourse device, 'you know', as in example (13), suggested that what is given by the preacher was a mutual understanding between him and his hearers and to involve everyone in this understanding, not just his own viewpoint (Vanda & Péter, 2011).

4.1.3 'I'

In comparison with other deictic pronouns in the corpus, the case of 'I' was the most unambiguous one since it did not indicate other than the preacher himself, speaking to the overhearing audience.

(14) I want to highlight some of the wisdom that can be learned from coronavirus.

The results showed that though its sporadic presence (16 times), 'I' served different functions in the corpus. It was used when the preacher wanted to impart the purpose of the sermon, attempting to make the audience interested in it. In the corpus, many instances of 'I' were used by the preacher to state the purpose of the sermons, all of which occur at the outset of the sermons as shown in Example (14).

(15) I was deeply saddened by his loss.

(16) I don't think it is a good idea to tell your mother about your personal problems with your wife.

'I' was also used in the corpus when the preacher wanted to signal to the congregation that he was speaking from an individual/personal perspective, expressing his own opinions or feelings as seen in examples (15) and (16). This use of 'I' is congruent with the findings of Bramley (2001) and Yadin-Israel (2015). It helped listeners distinguish what was given as Islamic truths from personal opinions or subjective remarks of the speaker. Thus, 'I' encodes what Wilson (1990) calls a 'personal voice'. Furthermore, as 'I' occurs in the context of sharing subjective information with the listeners, it rendered the preacher's message more intimate and impressive, bringing the preacher closer to his attendees. The use of verbs like 'think'

and ‘mean’ reinforces that the preacher is giving an individual opinion not religious rules, leaving an impression that he is speaking intimately.

(17) I pray to Allah to strengthen our bonds of brotherhood.

The last use of ‘I’ in the corpus was when the speaker wanted to make *duaa* ‘prayer’ at the end of the sermon as seen in example (17), which can be seen as a marker of closing the sermon.

4.2 Temporal Deixis

The notion of the deictic center is essential to the discussion of temporal deixis since it provides the focal point to which time indicators (tenses and time adverbials) are related. According to the findings, temporal deictics were the most frequent (155 occurrences), compared to the other two types. In the corpus, they were realized in two different forms: lexically (time expressions such as adverbs) and grammatically (tense such as present and past). This finding concurs with what is given in the surveyed studies by Chovanec (2014), Levinson (2006), and Rühlemann and O’Donnell (2015).

In the sermons as spoken face-to-face communication, the preachers and the addressees shared fully the same temporal and spatial context. The investigation revealed that no switch in the deictic center between interlocutors as speakers (no change in turns) was discerned as a result of the monologue nature of Friday sermon discourse in Islam, where no talking, interruption, or commotion by the attendees was permissible during the sermon. In this sense, the CT and RT coincide, and thus, they are simultaneous, technically known as ‘deictic simultaneity’.

In the corpus, ‘today’ (61 times) and ‘now’ (20 times) were observed to be frequent, constituting around 50 % of the total occurrences of lexical temporal deictics (155 times). They both belonged to the present time span, which indicates that Friday sermons tended highly to use deictics referring to present tense rather than past or future tense.

(18) Today we’ll talk about one of the amazing stories in the Quran.

In example (18), ‘today’ was used deictically in the corpus to refer to the day of the production of the sermon, which was Friday, due to the fact that it was the only day for conducting Friday sermons as an obligatory act in Islam. The findings demonstrated that ‘today’ was used in all sermons especially at the beginning of the sermon as a discourse technique to introduce the topic of the sermon as seen in Example (18). In terms of speech acts, this use of ‘today’ and ‘now’ often co-occurs with the speech act of both representative and commissive. The preacher informed the attendees of what the sermon would be about and he committed to focusing on the topic at issue.

(19) What I mean by ‘disbelief’ I’ll explain to you now.

Concerning ‘now’, it is used deictically to refer to the moment of the utterance in the sermon from the preacher’s perspective. In example (19), the speaker employed ‘now’ to indicate the temporal proximity of explaining what he intended by ‘disbelief’. This use of ‘now’ helped the speaker assure his listeners that this ‘disbelief’ would be

interpreted shortly. It also carried temporal information that maintained discourse connectivity between the text unit that hosts 'now' and the following textual unit/s that carried the expected explanation.

(20) We spoke last week about the status of the companions of the prophet. Today I want to talk about Abu Bakr As-Siddeeq.

The use of the past deictic 'last week' in the corpus had two functions. It provided the time frame of the previous sermon as a past event located temporally in the time occurring before the coding time. The other function was to maintain discourse connectivity between the sermon whose time was specified by the distal deictic 'last Friday' and the present sermon whose time was denoted by the proximal deictic 'today'. In Example (20), the preacher pointed out to the listeners that the topic of the last sermon and the present sermon were closely related, where the former talked about companions in general and the latter focused in particular on one of these companions of the prophet. Furthermore, the preacher intended to remind the congregation of the preceding topic by the use of 'last week' and linked it with the topic of the sermon at hand and introduced it to them through the use of the deictic 'today'.

The other way to encode temporal deixis in the sermons was tense (68 times), which implied the idea of reference by locating events and states in time by means of the grammar. Tense is seen as time deixis that requires a fixed time point, from which we can capture a temporal relation, particularly, in terms of simultaneity, anteriority, and posterity with respect to the deictic center (Wei & Ruizhi, 2017). The concept of tense was dealt with here from the deixis perspective to provide a more explicit temporal interpretation. For example, present tense when referring to general time frame is not considered deictic because time deixis must refer to a specified time related to the context of the situation (Chovanec, 2014).

The findings revealed that three tenses were used in the corpus: present, future, and past. Present tense represents events as temporally proximal to the time of speech meanwhile future and past tense represent events as temporally distant from the time of speech (Levinson, 2006). More elaborately, three time zones of deictic tense usage in the sermons could be identified: the past (before the time of an utterance), the present (at the time of an utterance), and the future (after the time of an utterance).

(21) In one of my lectures three years ago, I explained how the Bible led me to Islam.

As a noticeable feature, the tense was found to occur with time adverbs such as 'now' and 'ago' as seen in example (21). This helped emphasize and specify for the listeners the time frame and reference point to which the tense belonged and made them aware of the time span being referred to. For example, the use of time adverbs with past tense as in example (21) stressed for the hearers that the event in question referred to a past time frame not present.

In terms of proximity, the use of temporal deictics can be divided into proximal and distal (Chovanec, 2014). The former indicates a time frame close to the time of sermon production while the latter indicates a time frame away from the time of the sermon. The choice of tense generally affected the temporal distance between the events and the preacher as well as his listeners.

- (22) Her husband, Abu Salamah, left for Medina and her relatives had snatched her son away to force her to stay with them.

In Example (22), the use of simple past encoded a distant time and in turn past perfect indicated a more remote time reference in the past. The preacher used past perfect to refer to a time point more distal than the time of the event in the narrative to dichotomize two distinct periods.

- (23) We've mentioned that Allah wants us...

The use of present perfect though being highly infrequent in the corpus was found to indicate a time at not a big distance from the moment of speech. It also, as Chovanec (2014) pointed out, enhanced the current relevance of the event for the listener's benefit at the time of speaking. In example (23), the present perfect occurs at the end or within the time of the ongoing sermon to refer to a time point at some time past in the sermon.

- (24) Next week, we'll talk about another amazing story.

- (25) Allah will reward us with paradise.

The future deictics showed a very low presence since the sermons were mainly concerned with present-day issues rather than the future. A closer look into the occurrences of the future tense in the corpus revealed that it referred, to a large extent, to the near or immediate future being very close to the moment of utterance. As shown in example (24), future time was used at the end of the sermon to reveal and announce the topic of the next sermon. It was also found to be used to refer to the afterlife, especially to address the rewards in paradise as seen in example (25). Thus, the future was used to give a two-time frame: one is the near future to the time of the sermon as seen in example (24) and the maximally distant time frame as seen in example (25).

It appears that the present deictics frequently opted by the preacher to locate events in the present time frame of reference were pragmatically motivated. It established a shared temporal anchorage between the preacher and the congregation, where the preacher attempted to focus his sermon and the attendees' attention on what currently concerns contemporary Muslims' lives. This is in agreement with what Chovanec (2014) finds that the present tense has a strong interpersonal orientation. It established interpersonal contact with the congregation by indicating temporal co-presence. It also underscored the worthiness of sermon content as referring to issues closely related and relevant to the present-day Muslim community. More particularly, the deictic use of 'now' and 'today' enhanced the temporally proximal relation of the sermon to the reality and conditions of Muslims, stressing the immediacy of responding to the messages of the sermon. Moreover, it implied that the topics of sermons were not abstracted or hypothetical but realistic and actual and it was even applicable to the present life, thus, influencing the attitudes of the listeners. This leaves an impression that Friday sermons were more concerned with present-day events and affairs than the past ones.

4.3 Spatial Deixis

This section addresses deictic expressions used to refer to certain localities (e.g., rooms, streets, cities, etc.). It has been pointed out that they denote how a speaker perceives his position or relationship to entities in space (Marmaridou, 2000).

The quantitative analysis yielded that the spatial type was the least frequent in the corpus (28 occurrences), where only three spatial deictics occurred in the corpus: 'here' (14 times), 'this' (12 times), and 'that' (twice). While all of them were locational, no instance of directional deictics (such as 'this way' and 'next street') was used. No shift in the deictic center was detected due to the fact that the preachers and the listeners remained at the same place and did not change their location, thus, the speaker's position was static, not dynamic. The motion verbs (e.g., go and come) taken in the literature as deictics (Levinson, 1983) were not used at all in the corpus, which may be due to the static nature of the spatial center of sermons as the preacher discursively situated himself and the audience at the same deictic center (Inčuraitė, 2012).

Unlike Wu (2004), the quantitative prevalence of the proximal deictics 'here' (14 times) and 'this' (12 times) over the distal 'that' (twice) may be due, on one hand, to the shared space by the preacher and the listeners. On the other hand, the cognitive dimension of spatial deictic references rests on linguistic representation of an act performed by one person in the presence of another one, which tends to favor positive associations with action close to the speaker and happening here than with something distal to the speaker and happening there (Cramer, 2010).

4.3.1 'Here'

The analysis demonstrated that 'here' tended to refer deictically to different referents e.g., the mosque and America. Most of its instances referred to the mosques where the sermons were delivered.

(26) We're here to talk about parents' rights.

It seems that the preachers selected 'here' whose referent was identifiable in context as the addressees or listeners were led by the pragmatics of the context to interpret 'here' as referring to a particular place. In example (26), the deictic reference of 'here' was the mosque, which was pragmatically identifiable. The preacher assumed that the listeners were aware of the point of reference 'here' that deictically referred to the mosque, where they were situated. In the corpus, all instances of 'here' included deictically the location of the speaker at CT (coding time), unlike 'there', which was distal from the speaker and addressee's location at CT. That is, due to the simultaneous CT and RC (receiving time) in sermons, what was proximal to the preacher's location was so to the addressee's and vice versa

(27) We have been living here for decades.

The understanding of 'here' in example (27) crucially involved the preacher's location CT, where it referred to a specific point by the speaker's location that was equally proximal to the speaker and the attendees. The space was pragmatically specified that it included the speaker and attendees at CT. Therefore, the deictic

reference of ‘here’ was ambiguous (e.g., the mosque, the city, or the country) unless interpreted in terms of linguistic context as well as pragmatic setting (Wu, 2004). In example (27), ‘here’ could not be interpreted as referring to the mosque since we know that mosques were not a place to live in but to worship. The linguistic context of the whole sermon helped us identify that the referent of ‘here’ is the United States of America as the whole sermon from which the example was extracted is concerned with the duties of Muslims in American society.

(28) We’re here to talk about one of the great companions of the prophet.

As a proximity-signaling deictic, ‘here’ was pragmatically employed to indicate that it did not only signal a close physical distance but also signaled an emotional distance (Ariel, 2014). In example (28), by using ‘here’ the preacher indicated that this close distance encoded by the semantic content of ‘here’ was not only physical but it was also emotional as one Muslim group shared the same place of worship. In this sense, ‘here’ stressed the atmosphere of closeness and intimacy between the preacher and the attendees, expressing the preacher’s emotional attitude towards the place to which ‘here’ deictically referred to, namely the mosque. This was because the mosque has a great status in Muslims’ hearts. It is worth mentioning that ‘here’ mostly referred deictically to the mosque, which was often used by the preacher at the beginning of the sermon associated with introducing his topic and to draw the listeners’ attention to what he was going to say.

(29) This virus is attacking all humanity. Here, we need to think of the wisdom of this virus.

However, ‘here’ could be sometimes used to serve a discourse function: to indicate or mark a point in discourse. In the corpus, the discourse usage of ‘here’ is in the sense of ‘at this point’ to indicate an abstract location in discourse. In example (29), the preacher used ‘here’ not in its literal sense to denote a physical space but in its metaphorical sense to denote an abstract place in discourse, more clearly, in his train of thoughts. ‘Here’ was employed to index the wisdom encoded in the previous utterance, turning the attention of the listeners to associate what was given in the preceding utterance to what was given in the following one. This usage was apparently deictic in nature, creating an attention-catching effect on the listeners. According to Wu (2004), demonstrative expressions, including ‘here’, index textual entities and contribute to discourse coherence and cohesion by anchoring one proposition to another.

4.3.2 *‘This’ and ‘that’*

Demonstratives were infrequently used in the sermons in comparison with other deictics in the corpus. Only singular forms of demonstratives were found in the corpus, namely, ‘this’ and ‘that’, which can be delineated in terms of distal-proximal opposition. The analysis displays that the deictic usage of ‘this’ and ‘that’ was from the speaker and his attendees’ perspective as they shared the same physical space (deictic center), namely, the mosque. ‘This’ was used to indicate physical proximity to the preacher while ‘that’ indicated directionality away from the preacher’s location. It should be reiterated that the spatial perspective in the sermons was static and stationary. Most of the occurrences of the deictic demonstratives were related to the

proximal ‘this’, while the distal ‘that’ occurred rarely in the corpus. By contrast, in Wu (2004), ‘that’ is found to occur with a much more frequency than its proximal counterpart for the former occurs in a variety of structural contexts, which the latter does not share.

(30) It’s not the first time in this mosque we warn against religious extremism.

(31) The Muslim population in this country is growing.

In example (30), the proximal ‘this’ helped the listeners identify the referent, which was physically proximal to them. The preacher sought to draw the attention of the congregation to the issue of religious extremism that had been warned against many times in the same mosque referred to by the proximal ‘this’. In example (31), the preacher employed ‘this’ to help the listeners understand that the Muslim population in question was the one existing in the United States of America (rather than other countries).

(32) We should choose this path or that path.

(33) This religion is the source of mercy and justice.

In the corpus, some instances of ‘this’ and ‘that’ are used in the sense of what Lyons (1977) calls ‘emphatic deixis’ and Fillmore (1997) calls ‘acknowledging functions’. In Example (32), the preacher used ‘this’ as a proximal deictic with the path that Muslims should follow, the path of believers, while he used the distal ‘that’ with the path of disbelievers. While ‘this’ reinforced that Muslims should follow and be close to the path of believers, ‘that’ was used to exhort that Muslims should avoid and be away from the path of disbelievers. Thus, it can be stated that ‘this’ was associated with what was liked and ‘that’ with what was hated.

This selection of the proximal ‘this’ and distal ‘that’ is the preacher’s metaphorical preference to send and implant a message in the hearers’ minds, rather than indicating an actual distance. This is in line with what Levinson (1983) points out that the shift from ‘this’ to ‘that’ expresses emotional distance, whereas the shift from ‘that’ to ‘this’ shows empathy to the referent.

In example (33), the context informed that ‘this religion’ referred to Islam as the religion of the congregants. This deictic use of ‘this’ in ‘this religion’ was to encode close proximity to the speaker and listeners. It was not intended to facilitate reference to the religion, namely, Islam, but rather to express a positive attitude to it – to show the emotional proximity of Islam to the hearts and minds of Muslims.

(34) We will speak about the last days in his life... That’s for several reasons.

The findings also reported that deictic demonstratives were employed as a discourse procedure for coordinating and organizing the flow of information in the ongoing discourse. They served to direct the addressees’ attention towards a new discourse unit or a new aspect of a previously-mentioned referent. Like Wu (2004), ‘this’ and ‘that’ were used to point to text chunks, calling the audience’s attention as if saying ‘listen to what comes next’ or ‘I’m alluding to what has been just said’. This is illustrated in Example (34), where ‘that’ referred back to the entire sense of the previous utterance. This use contributed also to the cohesion of the text and served as a pointing device to direct the listeners to a certain part of the text. This discourse

function sprang from the assumption that a text can be represented as a space in the sense that every utterance in the text is spatially unique (Yang, 2011).

5. CONCLUSION

The investigation addressed how the preachers used deixis in the Islamic Friday sermons, drawing on a general perspective of pragmatics and discourse analysis. Three deictic classes were examined, based on a manageable corpus derived from different online sources. The findings displayed that the three types (personal, temporal, and spatial) were relatively common in the corpus, displaying an array of features and functions on the discourse and pragmatic level. They all were observed to point to different referents in the context in which they occurred. As an effectively powerful tool in the sermonic discourse, they were used to serve a wide variety of functions on the discourse and pragmatic levels. They worked as a discourse strategy to persuade the listeners by focusing their attention and engaging them in the message of the sermon and organizing and maintaining the cohesion and coherence of the text. Pragmatically, they were employed as a politeness marker and to indicate closeness and intimacy between the preacher and the congregation.

Only three pronouns of person deictics were used: 'we', 'I', 'you'. As the most frequent, 'we' revealed its inclusive and exclusive character though its inclusive function is by far the prevalent. It displayed versatility, serving a range of discourse and pragmatic functions such as toning down the assertive force and creating a sense of togetherness and closeness. 'I' was employed to express that the preacher was speaking from a personal perspective not religious. As the least frequent one, 'you' was used to refer generally to the attendees, serving to draw their attention and lowering the formality of the speech.

Temporal deictics were the most prevalent type in the entire corpus. They were realized in two different forms: lexically (e.g., 'today' and 'now') and grammatically (tense such as present and past). 'Today' for example, was used at the beginning of the sermon as a discourse technique to introduce the topic of the present sermon while 'now' carried temporal information that maintained discourse connectivity between the text unit that hosts 'now' and the following textual unit/s that carried the expected explanation. Three time zones of deictic tense usage in sermons were identified: the past (before the time of an utterance), the present (at the time of an utterance), and the future (after the time of an utterance).

The last type examined was spatial deixis, where only three spatial deictics occurred in the corpus: 'here', 'this', and 'that'. 'Here' was used to serve a discourse function to indicate or mark a point in discourse. As for the proximal 'this' and distal 'that', they were observed to be used in terms of metaphorical proximity to express certain emotions or attitudes. They served for coordinating and organizing the flow of information in the ongoing discourse. This discourse function sprang from the assumption that a text can be portrayed as a space in the sense that every utterance in the text is spatially unique.

The present study is limited to a small corpus, and therefore, its findings cannot be claimed to be exhaustive or definitive. A larger corpus is expected to offer immense potential for a better understanding of the deixis in Islamic sermons. This study is

hoped to present a good basis for further linguistic investigation of deixis in other languages and religions to illuminate how deictics work in sermonic discourse.

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