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Editors:
Vahid Nimehchisalem
Jayakaran Mukundan
# LIST OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality Traits and Level of Motivation of TESL Undergraduates towards ICT Integration in L2 Teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Loo Kien Men</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perspectives of Home and International Master Students on Professional and Nonprofessional Proofreading in UK Universities</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Nada Ibrahim Alkhatib</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Perception of and Difficulties in Teaching Culture Components in <em>American English File 1</em> from Two Cultural Perspectives</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Hoang, K., Nguyen, T., and La, Q.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginner EFL Students Learning Academic English: Experiences, Challenges and Success</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Abdulaziz Alfehaid</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Use of Culturally Relevant Texts for 2nd Year Students’ Reading Motivation: An Action Research Project at School of Foreign Languages, Thai Nguyen University</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Hoang Thi Huyen Trang and Nguyen Thi Ngoc Anh</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL Students’ Perception about their Self-Esteem</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Nasreen Bhatti</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Influence on Airline Companies’ Identity with the Branding Strategies</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Loh Chun Han</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gary Snyder’s Perspective about Nature as Seen in <em>Mother Earth: Her Whales</em></td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Study of Ecocriticism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Epata Puji Astuti</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Interaction Strategies Employed by an Elementary School EFL Teacher in Indonesia</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Diani Nurhayati</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Literacy Learning for Remedial Students via Sound Encoding and Syllable Blending Game</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ng Pei Fern, Lew Joe Waey, and Lim Hsin Yee</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Impact of Cultural Factors on Translating Chinese-English Historical Texts</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Geng Hui</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International students’ attitude towards use of Malay language in communicative discourse</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Mohammed Sani Ya’u</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The effectiveness of Abstract Writing Checklist on writing a highly successful abstract by postgraduate students</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Negar Kiavar and Vahid Nimehchisalem</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An Investigation of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Among Chinese Postgraduate Students in Malaysia</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Zhong Kai</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Entrepreneurial Skills among Arabic Students as Means of Economic Development in Nigeria</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Aliyu Ahmad</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Influence of L1 Orthography and Word Study Approach on the L2 Orthography among Arab Learners

Sheima Ali Babiker Salih

Homonymy Related English Vocabulary Learning: Investigating the Difficulties of the third year Students

Zina Ali Hussein

Primary School Teachers’ Readiness towards Heutagogy and Peeragogy

Choo Gui Chan, Mohamed Amin Bin Embi, and Harwati Hashim

Acoustic similarity between Libyan Arabic vowels and English vowels

Kalthoum Ramadan and Yap Ngee Thai

Gratitude expressions of EFL learners in mobile learning process: a case study of Indonesian higher education context

Rianita, Dian, Mardiana, Rizdika, and Zaitun

Apology Strategies Utilized among International University Students in Malaysia

Mohamad Fakhirul Aiman bin Zulkiflee

Iraqi EFL high school students’ spelling errors

Abdullah Majeed Buraa

Reading Strategies of Iraqi Postgraduate Students Studying in Malaysian Universities

Ayah Ali Salim

Teachers’ Perspective on the Discontinuation of the Literacy and Nummeracy Programme (Linus 2.0)

Adila Fazleen and Hamidah Yaminat

Textual Discourse of the ‘Social Values Story Model’

Normaliza Abd Rahim

The Influence of Malaysia Television Advertisements among Consumers

Nur Widad Binti Roslan, Hazlina Abdul Halim, Mohd Azidan Abdul Jabar, and Hamisah Hassan

Improving Reading Comprehension through Explicit Teaching of Skimming and Scanning Strategies

Norarifah binti Mazlan and Parilah binti Mohd Shah

Enhancing the Vocabulary for Reading Comprehension through Video Dictionary Project

Nur Aliaa Zulkifli and Maslawati Mohamad

English Language Needs of Military Students

Nabilah Syahmie binti Fadzle

Oral Communication Strategies Use in Question and Answer Sessions between Students and a Lecturer in ESL Classroom

Tayeh Asma

Students’ Perception towards Literature Component in English Subject

Ahmad Firdaos Sysauqi bin Ahmad Sidiki, Khalid Mat Pardi, Nurus Syahidah Tahreb, and Norzie Diana Baharum

Self-Efficacy of English Education Students in a Private University in Makassar: A Comparison across Batches

Awaluddin Syamsu, Muhammad Yunus, and Rizkariani Sulaiman
Developing Speaking Skills through Meta-Rings
Rosnizat Husain, Noorsyazura Abdul Rahman, Norain Norain Zulkifli Anthony, Rozalina Maharam, and Salawati Hamzah

Understanding Literacy and Content Learning in English: The Experience of EFL Students in Higher Education
Normazidah Che Musa, Hazita Azman, and Koo Yew Lie

Students’ Perceptions toward Gamification in ESL Classroom: KAHOOT!
Caryn Lim Jia Ying, Mohamed Amin Embi, and Harwati Hashim

Learning Style Preferences on Foreign Language Performance among Iraqi postgraduate EFL Students
Bashar Basheer Abdullah

Reading Strategies Used by Secondary School Students When Reading Expository Texts
Krishnasamy, H.N., Kanagaratnam, S.K., and Chinnian, S.CS.

Attitudes and Motivation of Secondary Students in Learning English
Siti Munirah Salehuddin and Parilah Md Shah

Assessing Students’ Translation Result
Nunung Nurjati, Nurmida Catherine Sitompul, and Sri Budi Astuti

Rethinking Learning Space: Impact of Learning Spaces in English Classrooms on Pupils from Urban School and Rural School
Grace Gayathri A/P Ramakarsinin and Paravathy A/P R.Ramadu

The Use of Youtube in Developing Speaking Skill among ESL Learners in Malaysia
Mohd Helmi Syazwan Mohd Zaki and Azlina Abdul Aziz

Shifts in Translation of Political Discourse/Text: A Case Study on Conceptual Manipulations in Persian Translation of Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action (JCPOA) in English
Negin Yazdani

Types and Mechanisms of Humor in Jason Leong’s Stand-Up Comedies
Siti Hajar Najiyah Mohd Pauzi

Discovery Learning Model in the Course of Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development to Enhance Students’ Critical Thinking and Creativity
Endang Mastuti Rahayu, Wahju Bandjarjani, and Siyasswati
PREFACE

The papers you are about to read are the proceedings of the International Conference on Creative Teaching, Assessment and Research in the English Language which with the theme of Innovations for the Future, Wisdom of the Past was held in Hotel Equatorial, Melaka - UNESCO World Heritage City, Malaysia 26-28 June, 2019. From the 71 papers submitted to the conference, 44 were selected for publication. These papers are in the areas of English language teaching, assessment, linguistics and literature. We hope you find these papers useful.

We express our thanks to Yasir Bdaiwi Jasim, Wan Hazrena Fakeeza Binti Wan Zakaria, and Chai Shir Nee for their remarkable assistance in compiling and quality control of the manuscripts.

Editors

24 June, 2019
Personality Traits and Level of Motivation of TESL Undergraduates towards ICT Integration in L2 Teaching

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ABSTRACT
The younger generations of students called Digital Natives learn via technology. The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 has taken the initiatives to implement ICT in learning in bid to cater to their learning styles. However, the implementation has not been smooth-sailing as most teachers have not been integrating ICT in their lessons seamlessly. Goldberg’s (1981) Big Five Model of Personality can explain various usage of ICT based on their respective trait but TESL undergraduates in the Malaysian context had not been studied before. The researcher purposively selected 72 TESL undergraduates from the Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia for the study using a questionnaire and semi-structured interview. The findings reported high levels of ICT integration and motivation in integrating it. Next, they scored the highest in Openness to experience towards ICT integration in L2 teaching while low in Neuroticism. There was also a statistically significant, moderate, positive relationship between their level of motivation, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Openness traits and their ICT integration in L2 teaching. These findings present vital implications for TESL program and course coordinators to facilitate their pre-service teachers to leverage ICT in their teaching practice.

KEYWORDS: ICT Integration, Motivation, Personality Traits, TESL Undergraduates

INTRODUCTION
Despite all the hype about catering to the learning needs of Digital Natives by integrating ICT into the lessons, the level of ICT integration among teachers is still insufficient and not fully optimised (Yunus, 2007; Kim, 2008; Rosnaini & Mohd Arif, 2010; Li & Walsh, 2010; Uluyol & Sahin, 2016). In the Malaysian context, the Preliminary Report of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 pointed out that, in 2010, about 80% of teachers were found to utilise ICT in their teaching for only less than an hour on a weekly basis, despite having pumped in a colossal amount of RM6 billion for ICT in education. Following this, the government’s efforts in granting Internet access and virtual learning environment (VLE) to all 10,000 schools in Malaysia may go to waste if Malaysian teachers do not actively put them into good use (Lee, 2013). There are teachers who are reluctant to adapt and grow with the latest, relevant teaching methods which involve the use of ICT (Nurul Atikah et al., 2006) and the main challenge cited is the intensive curriculum which is holding them back from using ICT to stimulate student-centric learning (Uluyol & Sahin, 2016). To better understand how ICT is integrated in the L2 classroom, teachers’ personality traits and levels of motivation should be investigated from the psychological perspective (Butt & Phillips, 2008; Perkmen, 2014). Personality is a crucial factor which is influencing human behaviours and choices in ICT use (Perkmen, 2014), especially on the Internet (Amichai-Hamburger, 2002). This can be inferred that different teacher personalities motivate different extent of ICT integration in their lessons.

The present study is interested to answer the following research questions:
1. What are the TESL undergraduates’ level of ICT integration in their L2 teaching?
2. What are the TESL undergraduates’ level of motivation in integrating ICT in their L2 teaching?
3. What are the personality traits of TESL undergraduates towards ICT integration in L2 teaching?
4. What is the relationship between their personality traits and ICT integration in L2 teaching?
5. What is the relationship between their level of motivation and ICT integration in L2 teaching?

As a unified theory to explain personality, Goldberg’s (1981) Big Five Model of Personality served as the theoretical framework for the present study. Known as the Big Five theory, it has received many empirical supports and been recognized as the standard personality trait measure (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Guadagno, Okdie & Eno, 2008; Wehrli, 2008; Ryan & Xenos, 2011; Moore & McElroy, 2012; Ozguven & Mucan, 2013; Norsiah, Mohd Sobhi & Siti, 2015). Its nickname comes from the acronym OCEAN which consists of Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism that make up the model.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

The present study employed a quantitative study comprising descriptive and correlational designs. The participants of this study were 87 TESL undergraduates doing their degree program in UPM. Two instruments were employed in the study. Firstly, the Personality and Motivation to Integrate ICT Questionnaire was adapted from Isleem (2003), Li (2008) and Vahideh (2012), followed by semi-structured interview which served to triangulate the findings from the questionnaire.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants were mostly in their early 20s, and the majority was female (75%). Among the sample, those from Malay ethnic group made up 83.33% of the sample, followed by Chinese (8.33%) and Indians (5.56%).

1. Level of ICT integration among TESL undergraduates

According to Pallant’s (2011) interpretation of mean scores, data analysis for RQ1 shows that the TESL undergraduates have high level of ICT integration in their L2 teaching as six items scored above average mean values: Internet (M = 4.99, SD = .12), word processing such as Microsoft Word (M = 4.90, SD = .38), multimedia application such as YouTube (M = 4.82, SD = .45), e-mail (M = 4.80, SD = .47), presentation software such as Microsoft PowerPoint (M = 4.78, SD = .48), and subject-related programs such as Edmodo and Quia (M = 4.63, SD = .62), while the remaining items scored within the range of moderate mean values which is below 4. The three interviewees taken from the sample were well aware of the advantages of integrating ICT in their teaching, namely to engage students better, acquire information and teaching materials easier, manage work more efficiently and reduce time taken to present input in class. Meanwhile, they were also concerned with its setbacks such as glitches, distractions and its unavailability in different schools.

2. Level of motivation among TESL undergraduates

They have high level of motivation in integrating ICT in their L2 teaching as all of the 13 items regarding ICT motivation scored above average mean values such as to get useful information (M = 4.68, SD = .58), to communicate (M = 4.63, SD = .57) and to make lessons more interesting (M = 4.61, SD = .60). The three interviewees commented being motivated to integrate ICT to capture their students’ interest, cater to their various learning styles and prepare teaching materials more efficiently.

3. Personality traits of TESL undergraduates

The TESL undergraduates in this study are dominantly open individuals towards ICT as they scored the highest for the Openness trait with the above average mean value of 4.0525. The values among the Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Extraversion traits are very close by the decimal points and they belong to the higher end of average means. Besides, the differences in value among these four traits are considerably small, so it can be observed that these pre-service teachers were high in Openness, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness and Extraversion. On the other hand, they scored the lowest for the Neuroticism trait with the below average mean value of 2.2875. Its value is a stark contrast to the values of other traits and it shows that the TESL undergraduates were relatively low in Neuroticism.

4. Relationship between personality traits and ICT integration in L2 teaching

The four constructs of the Big Five have a significant, moderate, positive relationship with ICT integration, namely Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Openness to experience based on Cohen’s (1988) interpretation of r value. The interviewees in the present study possessed three of these four traits.

In regards to the strength of the relationship, Agreeableness had the strongest with ICT integration. This could mean the pre-service teachers were displaying their level of cooperativeness in understanding, complying and implementing the Ministry’s ICT policy for education. Their Agreeableness trait had one of the highest average mean in the top three which was 3.8700. One of the interviewees was an agreeable individual who had previously mentioned that, given the opportunity, she would fully utilise all the ICT facilities in order to cater to her students’ learning styles more effectively. It can be seen that she was showing her cooperation and compassion in utilizing ICT for her lesson.

5. Relationship between TESL undergraduates’ level of motivation and ICT integration

The TESL undergraduates’ level of motivation is significantly related to their integration of ICT in their L2 teaching.

The responses from all three of them had been encouragingly positive with capturing students’ interest, catering to various learning styles and efficiency in preparing teaching materials being their motivating factors. Especially for this sample of TESL undergraduates in the present study, they were born in the robust digital era, so they should possess certain characteristics of Digital Natives such as mastering the basics of computer skills and being literate around the Internet, thus understanding how knowledge should be best delivered to their junior counterparts.
CONCLUSION

Today’s generations of pre-service ESL teachers are receptive in embracing and to seamlessly integrate technology in their classrooms which is crucial in meeting the needs of the 21st century learning. There was a time where books and pens were considered useful tools in learning but in today’s digital age, computers and its technologies are now changing our educational landscape (Bax, 2003). Therefore, it is imperative that teachers are guided to utilise ICT tools and integrate them in their lessons meaningfully. Nevertheless, this does not mean L2 teachers should give up their teaching role and leave their job to the technology. Face-to-face teaching still has its important place in the classroom but being able to integrate ICT in a lesson is a crucial plus point (Copriady, 2015). As one of the interviewees said, “as we progress, we have to change our style of teaching.”

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT
Recent research studies on proofreading of postgraduate students’ written works suggest that students often resort to proofreading before submitting their written works. However, these studies focused mainly on proofreaders’ practices and roles. Obviously, questions such as: why students would tend to seek a third-party assistance and to what extent they would proceed with the process of ‘purchasing professional or nonprofessional help’, and why and when academic staff would ask their students to have their work proofread are still un-scrutinized areas of study. Drawing on interviews with 18 postgraduate students and 147 survey student respondents, this study attempts to provide some answers for these questions. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data indicates that nearly two-thirds of students (67%) agree that it is expensive to get a professional proofreader, and therefore, some resort to their friends or family members to help them proofread their works. Interestingly, students, to a great extent, usually turn to professional proofreaders for assistance because they want their written works to be free from grammatical errors. Students also seek assistance from professional proofreaders to get a high grade in their postgraduate programmes. The study concludes with providing some implications for reconsidering when and how professional proofreading should be encouraged.

KEYWORDS: Higher education, Proofreading, Postgraduate students

INTRODUCTION
Students in UK are sometimes encouraged by their lecturers to proofread their text especially when they experienced difficulties with their writing (Harwood, 2018). This tendency is becoming more apparent due to the growing number of non-native students in UK universities which has led to an increasing number of students with different language support needs (e.g. Lillis, 2001). This fact has triggered the question as to how much help those students need in their language in order to achieve the minimum academic requirements for assessment. Previous research on proofreading has focused on the nature of proofreading (e.g. Burrough-Boenisch, 2003), the beliefs/perceptions and practices of proofreaders (Mason, 2002; Turner, 2011; Harwood et al., 2012), and how proofreaders help nonnative academics in publishing journals in English-language (Lillis and Curry, 2006, Bisaillon, 2007). However, to the best of my knowledge, no studies have focused on students and lecturers views of proofreading.

This study attempted to provide some answers for these questions. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data indicates that nearly two-thirds of students (67%) agree that it is expensive to get a professional proofreader, and therefore, some resort to their friends or family members to help them proofread their works. Interestingly, students, to a great extent, usually turn to professional proofreaders for assistance because they want their written works to be free from grammatical errors. Students also seek assistance from professional proofreaders to get a high grade in their postgraduate programmes. The study concludes with providing some implications for reconsidering when and how professional proofreading should be encouraged.

KEYWORDS: Higher education, Proofreading, Postgraduate students

MATERIALS AND METHODS
This study adopted a mixed methods research design. It utilized qualitative-quantitative methods including semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaire in order to improve the reliability and validity of its findings. The questionnaire was administered to 147 students. The questionnaire is divided into two main sections. The first part consists of some demographic information about the gender, the department, the university, the nationality, and students’ level of English. The second part asks students if they refer to a professional proofreader to proofread their written works including assignments and or dissertations, and to give some justifications for their answers. Out of the 147 participants who took part in the questionnaire, 18 students had follow-up interviews. The interview questions aimed at eliciting more information regarding the purpose of consulting or not consulting a professional proofreader.

MA students (n = 147) from 11 different UK universities participated in this study. Students and ranged from different gender (male and female) and different disciplines (marketing, computer science, Engineering, English language and Education).

The questionnaire data of the students were analysed using SPSS, yielding mainly descriptive data. The
interview data transcribed, and the analysis was achieved through using NVivo software. I developed the initial codes assigning category labels under each theme. The codes were given names close to the meaning they described. For example, the reasons students gave for not proofreading their text professionally called ‘REASONS FOR NOT PROOFREADING’.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the surveys indicates that 67% of the students do not consult a professional proofreader to proofread their texts. This does not correspond with McNally and Kooyman (2017) who argued that proofreading is a mechanically-practiced pre-submission act by almost all students. Also, 46% of students (mostly NS students) believe that they have good language that they do not need a proofreader. One NS expressed the reason for never asking a professional proofreader saying:

“I’m a native speaker of English … I am confident in my own proofreading ability”

Other students commented on how the university has already prepared them for writing by giving classes and seminars in academic writing. This finding goes in line with Hennebry et al. (2012) who argued that universities in UK offer subject specific English language to their students. One student mentioned:

“I already learnt a lot about academic English, and how to produce an academic text. I have been also attending courses by the University for academic writing.”

The high cost for the proofreaders is an important obstacle for the students as well since more than 39% of students gave the reason for not proofreading their text as professional “proofreaders are expensive”. As a result, many of those students preferred the non-professional (non-paid) option for proofreading by referring to a friend or a family member, or sometime prefer to take responsibility by engaging in self-editing skills. While the high cost of the proofreaders was one of the most frequent reasons given by many students, it is surprisingly perhaps that this issue has received little discussion in the literature (Harwood et al., 2009). Kaplan and Baldauf (2005) highlighted the burdensome costs for employing a proofreader especially in less privileged contexts. Similarly, in their study of Chinese students writing for publication, Li and Flowerdew (2007) pointed out issues of the high proofreading costs for editorial services.

Taking responsibility and ownership of the text is another important reason given by students. Students believed that they should take responsibility of their own work “in order to feel the sense of accomplishment”. As one student pointed out:

“I believe that, if I use a proof reading method, it will defy my capability of carrying out independent work”

This finding disagrees with Reid (1994) who found that student writers might be happy to cede the ownership and responsibility of their text to the teacher, being concerned primarily with achieving a good grade, rather than retaining authorship. However, Reid (1994, p. 289) believes that the “students must be taught to authentically engage in choice making and problem solving, and to accept responsibility for their own writing. In addition, Chandler (2003) pointed out that students usually make fewer errors when they are obliged to reflect on and edit their writings. Many students expressed their fear that proofreaders’ involvement might cause content change. One student remarked:

“Proofreaders do not know much about the subject matter and as a result their involvement is sometimes ruining the content as they change the meaning of some important ideas”

Interestingly, students’ worries are expected as Harwood (2018, p. 474) whose recent article highlighted some worrying findings as some proofreaders were tempted to change the content in order to improve the argumentation of the essay, while other proofreaders “introduced errors into the text while leaving the writer’s errors uncorrected”.

Since many of those students believe that “university staff usually focused on content of the assignment rather than the quality of language”, as a result, they preferred to focus on the content rather than giving their text for professional proofreaders -who lack the discipline-specific knowledge- to check over the language. This finding agrees with Yeh and Yang’s (2003) study whose students expressed a desire for teachers to evaluate content rather than the language errors.

Time constraint is another reason why students do not rely on external proofreaders. This reason was cited heavily by the majority of students. They stated that they have no time to refer to a professional proofreader as they finish the text or assignment on the deadline date for submission. Other students complained about the time that those professional proofreaders take in order to edit their text. One student explained in the in the
interview how she suffered a lot as she did not find a proofreader who is ready to proofread her work. This supports the finding of Harwood and Petrić (2016) where one of the participants expressed her regrets as she finished the chapters the day before the deadline. As a result, the proofreader could not proofread the work thoroughly and missed things that should have been corrected.

CONCLUSION

The present study examined the question of whether those students consult a professional proofreader before submitting their academic works in Master programmes in UK universities. The findings were collected through triangulation of methods using students’ questionnaires and interviews. Several implications of the study have been identified. The findings of the present study have revealed that students do not professionally proofread their academic writing because it is expensive to get a professional proofreader. Instead, they resort to their (non-professional) friends or family members to help them proofread their works to get a high grade in their Master programmes. Nonetheless, recent research has revealed that students can edit their own errors and comment on their peers’ text when they are guided by their teachers and given the motivation for doing so. As a result, lecturers should consider and understand the long-term measures that would help students to be independent writers. They should give students proofreading instruction to avoid making the same errors in the future. This instruction could take two distinct yet related forms: building linguistic knowledge (i.e. grammar instruction) and building self-editing skills (i.e. strategy training) (Bitchener and Ferris, 2012).

REFERENCES


Teachers’ Perception of and Difficulties in Teaching Culture Components in American English File 1 from Two Cultural Perspectives

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ABSTRACT
Currently, various cultural elements are divergently presented in English coursebooks, which raises the question of how teachers can lecture them. In reality, perceiving the evaluation and difficulties of teaching culture in ELT materials from educator’s perception has received inadequate consideration. Concerning these gaps in the literature, an investigation into teachers’ attitudes towards teaching culture in an ELT coursebook is critical. The data used for this study were collected through interviews with four participants. From the analysis, it can be concluded that a major proportion of AEF1 is characterised by the cultural perspective called an accomplished fact, whereas a future competence is among the minor features. Besides, teachers have difficulty teaching such elements. Consequently, they should make greater attempt to prepare lecture notes incorporating cultural factors.

KEYWORDS: Cultural components, Cultural perspectives, Material evaluation

INTRODUCTION
Although cultural perspectives are the heart of language teaching, there exists a debate on what cultural elements are included, and how they are presented in ELT coursebooks (Hurst, 2014). Yet, what to teach is not as important as how to lecture them. However, perceiving the evaluation and difficulties of teaching culture in ELT materials from the educators’ perception has received insufficient consideration. Studies also have shown that instructors encounter difficulties teaching such elements, particularly in Viet Nam.

Hence, regarding such literature gaps, an investigation into teachers’ attitudes towards teaching culture in an ELT coursebook is considered necessary. In this study, the perception of four teachers at UEF are analysed, aiming to (1) identify their perception on the presentation of culture components, (2) investigate the difficulties of teaching cultural elements and (3) provide further suggestion for teaching culture components in AEF1. From these objectives, two research questions are:

• What is the UEF teachers’ perception of the presentation of culture components in AEF1?
• What are difficulties teachers might encounter when teaching the cultural components in AEF1?

Within the scope of this study, the researchers applied the definition of Murphy (1986) and Mishan (2000) and Tornberg’s two perspectives of culture (Tornberg, 2000, cited in Pervan, 2011).

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Two female and two male voluntary participants, P., Tr., V.A., and K. were Vietnamese lecturers at UEF. The sampling method was convenience sampling, since all subjects have used AEF1 for five years and have a close relationship with the researchers. Due to the unavailability of the participants, they were asked to complete a paper-based interview. The materials was American English File 1 – Second Edition (Oxenden et al., 2008). It has been used at UEF for five years. The interview questions were devised based on Tonsberg’s perspectives of culture. The items are as follows:
Figure 1. Items of culture components employed in the interview

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Teachers’ perception of culture components

1.1. An accomplished fact

The cultural aspects, historical and geographical facts; artefacts; and collective descriptions of lifestyle, are reviewed in relation to the target culture (hereby C2) and reported to be projected at different levels.

Firstly, it was agreed that the books did not project the information about historical events and facts. Contrastingly, all participants stated AEF1 contained geographic facts relevant to C2. However, some of them found these elements insufficient, and merely a sketch revolving some cultures. Hence, the pieces of geographic information in AEF1 could be concluded to be knowledge-oriented and shallow.

Secondly, while the majority commented AEF1 reflected the aesthetic values, one informant claimed such demonstration seemed inadequate for learners to discover the language. Even for those agreeing on the presentation of artefacts, most participants indicated it focused on the American pop culture and neglected other sub-cultures. This result is partially similar to Gray’s study in 2000 (cited in Mishan, 2005).

Thirdly, regarding collective description, three participants believed that AEF1 provided ample texts and pictures showing Western lifestyle. They also gave examples from AEF1U3 and AEF1U4; those illustrated eating habits and mindset of the American. Yet, there were some negative comments:

“The target demography described in the book is comprised of white, young, well-to-do, happy Western people...”

This demonstrates collective description of culture is not collective enough to generally illustrate a kaleidoscopic and global perception.

1.2. A future competence

From the interviews, a recurrent theme was that AEF1 reflected the cultural preparation and comparison sufficiently, yet seemingly negatively.

First, a popular view agreed AEF1 prepared students for future communication with English speakers implicitly. Three teachers reported the Communication Part was carefully designed, aiming to familiarise students with real-life conversations. However, two teachers indicated such provision was unsystematic, which mostly devised coincidently with the topics. Plus, one complained the cultural preparation was reflected implicitly, merely through some forms of lexical differences, and tips to avoid cultural conflicts.

Secondly, AEF1 provided learners with opportunities to compare and contrast between cultures but unsatisfactorily. Some participants listed down the tasks from AEF1U5 and AEF1U6, where students were encouraged to make comparison between C2 and their own. From their perspective, AEF1 grants student with chances to discover various cultures while still treasuring their own tradition’s values. Furthermore, two participants thought the provision of such activities merely aimed at the surface structure differences; they agreed teachers could use the information in AEF1 to design further activities.
2. Teachers’ difficulties in teaching culture components

2.1. An accomplished fact

All informants felt that some elements posed difficulties to teachers and students. Firstly, since AEF1 does not contain much information about historical events and facts, the participants hardly reported any challenges. In contrast, regarding the geographic facts, two informants reported no arising problems. However, one teacher raised the concern of suitable methods. Another participant stated that pieces of geographical information may cost teachers much time designing their lectures.

Regarding artefacts, not many teachers felt comfortable. The artefacts of C2 were reported to be too specific, hindering students’ understanding. One informant gave an example of New York culture presented in Lesson 5C, claiming “students did not feel at ease when learning strange concepts...”

Moreover, three participants reported the tasks designed for these lessons were irrelevant to students’ knowledge. One informant gave the example in Lesson 1B. It was difficult and strange for students to identify the task, driving them to ignore such tasks. Therefore, all teachers agreed these factors needed carefully considering.

Finally, most informants concur that the collective elements posed some challenges. Specifically, teachers need expand their personal knowledge to provide students with up-to-date cultural information or satisfactory explanations.

2.2. A future competence

A current theme was that introducing such elements was captivating, but raising students’ curiosity was problematic; this is similar to the negative attitude of students towards the interpretation of the target culture in Gonen & Saglam’s study (2012).

K. confessed that h/she had to prepare the lesson carefully, and teachers were burdened with the interpretation of the culture elements. This was congruent with A., claiming that “teachers should have knowledge to explain cultural gaps and vocabulary to prevent the misunderstandings.”

In contrast, the element of cross-cultural comparison asked students to reflect more. Therefore, all informants fear it might pose some difficulties for those never or rarely exposed to C2.

CONCLUSION

Generally, AEF1 provides learners having general knowledge about culture and a limited understanding of cultural differences. According to the participants, the homogenous representation of culture and the lack of intercultural perception are some drawbacks of AEF1. Therefore, teachers should be more active in transferring cultural messages. Specifically, they should devise more tasks to raise students’ awareness of the variety of C2.

Besides, teachers also encountered some difficulties when teaching such elements. Generally, they found at ease to introduce these cultural elements. However, teachers are challenged to invest effort in synthesizing information for their students. Students when asked to compare with their own culture need contribute their effort as well.
REFERENCES


Beginner EFL Students Learning Academic English: Experiences, Challenges and Success

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ABSTRACT
This paper examines the challenges and difficulties that preparatory year (beginner) students experienced in learning academic English at the first year program in a Saudi university. Using a of a mixed-method methodology, the paper reports the results of a survey questionnaire of 257 students and closely examines the cases of 30 of those students through semi-structured interviews, focusing on their English language learning experience and their challenges in the new academic environment. The findings indicate that students experience three major challenges during the crucial preparatory year at university: learning and understanding vocabulary, speaking and time management. The evidence suggests that students are able to overcome these challenges despite that the fact that they are busy with other academic commitments in a short period of time.

KEYWORDS: Preparatory Year, Beginner Students, Academic English, Challenges, Success

INTRODUCTION
Poor English language proficiency affect first year students' behaviour and performance in regard to classroom participation and approaching their teachers (e.g. McLean et al., 2013). Murray (2010: 56) also argues that “students who enter university lacking the English competency necessary to pursue their studies effectively can suffer anxiety, frustration, demotivation and an inability to engage with the learning process”. Andrade (2009) states that students with stronger English skills face fewer challenges in their studies and adjustment than those students with poor English skills. The suggestion is, then, that all students entering these universities should be supported in building the English language skills needed to succeed in first year programs and, subsequently, meet the academic language demands of their degree courses.

Researchers have identified academic language skills (Braine, 2002; Ambe, 2011); experience and past knowledge (Moje and O’Brien, 2000; Ambe, 2009; Ambe, 2011); English proficiency level of the students, learning set-up and students age (Ambe 2009; Ambe, 2011); critical thinking skills, passiveness of learners and emphasis on exams (Biggs, 2003) as the main challenges of learning in the first year of university. These research studies have been conducted in English-speaking countries. “At present, much less is known about such transitions in societies where English functions as a second (ESL) or foreign language (EFL)” (Evans and Morrison, 2011: 199). The current study attempts to fill this gap in this area in a non-English speaking country (Saudi Arabia) where the first language of all students is Arabic.

According to Huang et al. (2002), non-native English speaking students encounter substantial challenges in English academic listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Caplan and Stevens (2017) conducted a research in order to help design a new curriculum of the English for Academic Purposes program (EAP). They identified success factors (including persistence and engagement) and challenges for international students (linguistic, cultural, and academic) as well as the use of support services. They concluded that speaking skills, particularly the possibility to be involved in debates and group work, are of a paramount importance to language learners. Their objective was to identify the particular learning needs, challenges, and success factors of international undergraduate students (whom English is not their first language) in order to develop an improved EAP curriculum. The findings have reiterated the value and difficulty of academic literacy (Wingate, 2015). They also highlight the massive challenge of oral communication which was highlighted by (Ferris and Tagg, 1996a, Ferris and Tagg, 1996b; Huang, 2010; Johns, 1981).

Selvadurai (1998) and Mori (2000) both concluded that language ability is the main issue of non-native English language speakerd studying in the U.S. They signposted language as the highest cause of numerous issues faced by international students at American universities. They concluded that competence in spoken and written English is the major reason for international students’ academic success and failure. Abel (2002) consider time management, classroom dynamics, social and educational assistance as further causes of academic success and states “academic success seems to correlate modestly with attitudes toward learning and study strategies” (p.13).
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The main challenges students face in the first year of their preparatory year are: vocabulary (14%), time management (12%) and exams (11%) as well as the four main skills (listening, writing, speaking, and grammar). These findings are in agreement with previous studies (Wingate, 2015, Ferris and Tagg, 1996a, Ferris and Tagg, 1996b; Huang, 2010; Johns, 1981). These challenges are not unique to the IAU context. These findings largely support Caplan and Stevens' findings (2017) that grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, speaking, and writing were particular difficulties facing international students at a United States university.

When these four issues were investigated further in the one to one interviews, it became obvious that the issue was neither the intensity of the information nor the level of it, but rather a complete failure of the students to adjust to their new environment. Switching from high school habit to a full mature environment needed time and coaching. These findings are in line not only with Evans and Morrison's (2011) findings that first year students face interrelated challenges in adjusting to the demands of university study, but also with Reason's et al. (2006:171) results which highlighted “the complex interconnections among the multiple influences that shape first-year students’ academic knowledge acquisition and skill development”.

According to the students who were interviewed, they have learned the hard way as they had to deal with disappointment through low marks. They then realized that they needed to double the efforts and allocate more time outside the university to revise and self-improve to keep up with the curriculum. When asked about exams, 28 students out of the thirty (93%) believed that exams were difficult and long; moreover, the students do not believe that they receive adequate training and preparation for the exams. It is worth mentioning that 13% of students claim not to have faced any challenges in their first year, and 24% of the student who took part in the survey did not know how to deal with the challenges and were too shy to seek help and guidance.

With regard to the second question about the way students dealt with the faced challenges, 22% learned to practice more at home and 20% started working harder. This means that 42% of the students who participated in the survey experienced a behavioral change rather a learning issue. Again, during the interviews, participants explained that with time, they realized that life in university is different to high school and the only way forward is work harder and increase the volume of homework. Students with the help of teachers and university resources learned how to manage their time and organize their unique routines how to revise and memorize new vocabulary.

The other interesting outcome of the survey is that only 1% of students needed a private tutor which may imply that the support provided by university teachers is sufficient. However, this low number could have also been due to other factors. For instance, certain students may have needed a private tutor but were unable to afford it as private tutoring can be costly.

As for the third question, it can be stated that 70% of students believe that their experience had a positive effect on them; (37% very satisfied and 33% satisfied). They believe that they have achieved what was expected of them and that they have exceeded their targets. During the interviews some students claimed that their main target during the preparatory year is to achieve a pass and get accepted to university academic programs. This suggests that students always worried about being accepted in their preferred degree programs, and this may have a driving force for beginner students to succeed in their first year. This supports the findings of Evans and Morrison (2011) and Harvey et al. (2006).

The findings also indicate that students now feel more confident when it comes to English language and believe they can hold and academic conversation as well as writing reports and academic essays. This greatly supports Andrade's (2009) findings that first year “students felt their English skills had progressed while at the university, enabling them to satisfactorily complete courses”. On the other side, 19% believe that the experience was negative and were not satisfied with the overall experience. However, when asked during the interviews they intimated that they have themselves set a high expectation (i.e. speaking fluently within a year) and could not reach the target.
CONCLUSION

The present study has investigated the English learning challenges beginner students encountered in their first year at IAU. The data suggests that beginner students in IAU face, like any other students from all over the world, a number of challenges experienced by first language first year students.

The essential conclusion of the study is that the 30 participants in the interviews managed to overcome the challenges posed by the university transition and the majority of them not only completed their preparatory year but also met the conditions set by colleges and academic programs. However, the degree and duration of these challenges vary according to ability, background and personality. It is argued that there is no identical ‘first year experience’, but rather a range of different experiences that are influenced by a collection of personal and institutional considerations (Harvey et al., 2006).

REFERENCES


The Use of Culturally Relevant Texts for 2nd Year Students’ Reading Motivation: An Action Research Project at School of Foreign Languages, Thai Nguyen University

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ABSTRACT
Much research has been conducted to develop learners’ second language acquisitions. However, few studies have addressed the important aspect of reading motivation among university students in Vietnam. Aiming to help the 2nd year students at School of Foreign Languages, Thai Nguyen University (SFL-TNU) improve their English reading motivation, this study investigates into the uses of culturally relevant texts (CRTs) on students’ reading motivation and suggests using CRTs as materials for motivating learners in intensive and extensive reading courses. An action research was conducted with a class including 40 second-year students at SFL-TNU. The cultural relevance rubrics, class observations and student interviews were three key research instruments to collect empirical data on the use of CRTs in improving learners’ intrinsic reading motivation which involves their persistence with the learning task, attention, enthusiasm and enjoyment, reading involvement, curiosity and preferences for reading challenging texts. The results revealed that CRTs intrinsically motivated the students to read English. Based on the findings, this study had practical implications for further practice and research on English language reading.

KEYWORDS: Intrinsic motivation, culturally relevant texts

INTRODUCTION
In the context of SFL-TNU, despite the teachers’ and students’ efforts, the English reading performance of the 2nd year students is still far from expected when the students have been observed to show their little interest in reading activities. They are found sleeping, making noises or sitting silently during classes. From the researcher’s teaching experiences, a lack of motivation is believed to be one of very important factors that cause such reading difficulty.

The main aim of the research is to investigate into the extent to which the uses of CRTs in reading classrooms could motivate the students to read English.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
This study looks deeply into the close connection between intrinsic motivation - interest in and enthusiasm for the materials used in class (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991) - and the text (a factor influencing reading motivation, Figure 1, according to Renandya, 2015). As stated in Crookes and Schmidt, 1991, intrinsically motivated students enjoy learning for their own purposes and pursue learning about topics that interest them. Correspondingly, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) contend that materials which engage the emotions of the learner allows them to process the contents and language of the materials at a much deeper level, resulting in the kind of learning that is durable and long lasting.

![Figure 1: The 5 Ts of Motivation (Adapted from Renandya, 2015, p.181)](image-url)
Culturally relevant texts are such materials since they are defined as literary texts that depict aspects of learner’s culture such as ways of life, dressing, food, artifacts and others, which are familiar to them (Davoudi & Ramezani, 2014). Shortly, CRTs help students understand who they are and where they come from because they connect to their lives, and such connection facilitates their comprehension (Freeman & Freeman, 2004). A rubric (Figure 2) which can be used to help identify the cultural relevance level of a text was developed by Ebe (2010).

![Cultural Relevance Rubric](image)

Figure 2. Cultural Relevance Rubrics (Ebe, 2010, p.194)

In short, based on the research from Raffini (1996) and Crookes and Schmidt (1991), this research investigates into seven components of intrinsic motivation, namely learners’ attention; persistence with the learning task; enthusiasm; enjoyment; reading curiosity; reading involvement; and preference for challenge in reading. Summarily, the study investigates whether students’ level of each of these seven components increased or decreased after they were exposed to CRTs.

A total of 12 different reading texts used in 12 lessons were Course book texts (CBTs) during the first six weeks and Culturally Relevant texts (CRTs) as course book supplements during the six following weeks. The participants were 40 second year English majored students studying in the same class at SFL.

The data collection includes two main steps. The first step was to measure the cultural relevance of the in-class reading texts as perceived by participation through Cultural Relevance Rubrics. The second step was to adapt and pilot the three data collection instruments: Classroom Observation Checklist 1, Classroom Observation Checklist 2 which were to measure seven components of motivation and Student Interviews which were to collect data on their perceptions after the intervention.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Students’ Self-Reflection on Culturally Relevant Levels of Reading Texts

The mean scores of the levels of cultural relevance of CBTs texts, as can be seen from Table 1, were around 14 on average out of a total 40.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Texts (T) Used in Each Reading Lesson (L)</th>
<th>CBTs Texts Used</th>
<th>CRTs Texts Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Scores of the Culturally Relevant Level of Each Reading Text</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Culturally Relevant Texts Scores

This very low score means that students were rather unfamiliar with the CBTs texts introduced in the first six reading lessons and had little connection with their content. Meanwhile, the higher scores recorded in L7 - 12 indicate that these texts were confirmed to be cultural relevant to the students and that these texts are now classified as CRTs.
2. Students’ Observed Attention, Action, Enthusiasm and Enjoyment

On-task behavior includes levels of students’ attention, persistence with the learning task, as two components of motivation and the overall class motivation was to evaluate the overall of the students’ enthusiasm (the level at which the students performed their involvement, concentration, and effort) and the students’ overall enjoyment over the reading texts. Figures 3 and 4 reveal that there was a clear difference by types of reading texts (CBTs vs. CRTs).

The students’ Attention, Action, Enthusiasm and Enjoyment increasingly decreased on days when CBTs were used, and did reversely on days when CRTs were used. This indicates that students show their higher levels of motivation for an extended duration and more persistence with the learning task in the lessons when CRTs are practiced.

3. Students’ Perceived Reading Involvement, Curiosity and Preference to Challenge

Results from Student Interviews show the students’ perceived reading involvement, curiosity and challenge which were coded as HRM (High Reading Motivation) if the interviewed student made a positive statement to show their reading motivation as high, and LRM (Low Reading Motivation) if the statement conveyed a negative point of view. The positive and negative statements were counted and represented in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

In general, the participating students expressed their high perceived levels of reading involvement since they found the CRTs were close to them and that they could get connected to the stories. Some students stated that their reading prediction skills also improved because they were able to “imagine the situation” and guess what would happened next.

Similarly, mentioning CRTs, the students perceived their high level of curiosity as they stated that they wanted to “read more” and “to know in which situations they are like me [the student], and in which situation they are different from me [the student]”. Other students also shared the same idea that “by learning to read English through this kind of texts, I hope I will able to read English books, newspapers or magazines” Most of the students found the CRTs’ information “relaxing to read” and “exciting to know”.

CRTs could indeed help them to understand better and they liked it when the questions in the reading texts made them make more effort to answer. Besides, they felt eager to learn new information that they had never known before stating that CRTs ‘expanded my views of society’ (the student), and ‘had meanings’ to them. Many students even described their willingness to read CRTs no matter how hard they were to them and they found it interesting to discover “like” and “unlike” things.
CONCLUSION
In conclusion, the findings of the study, supported with empirical data and discussed in the current literature review, highlight the CRTs’ positive effects on students’ English language reading motivation. Though the study was conducted in SFL – TNU, its findings of the study are applicable to not only SFL-TNU settings but also to other university contexts that share similarities with TNU across Vietnam. A reading lesson plan with a focus on the use of culturally relevant reading texts will promote significantly students’ reading motivation. Accordingly, English language teachers in general and those teaching reading skills are advised to acknowledge the benefits of CRTs specifically in those university contexts where lacks of students’ reading motivation are pervasive.

REFERENCES
### Appendices

#### Semi-structured Interview Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview dimensions</th>
<th>Interview Questions</th>
<th>Hint/Probing questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The cultural relevance of the texts and the concept of the texts</td>
<td>What do you think of/observe about the reading text used in the past reading lessons from Week 1 – 6 (for the first round of interviews) or from Week 7 – 12 (for the second round of interviews)?</td>
<td>1. Do you feel familiar with the story in the texts? 2. Do you feel like you know the people in the texts?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading involvement</td>
<td>What effects do you think the reading texts used in the past six weeks have on your own reading motivation?</td>
<td>3. Do you feel like you make friends with people in the texts? 4. Do you make picture in your mind when you read?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading involvement</td>
<td>What do you learn more from the reading texts?</td>
<td>5. Do you enjoy reading a long, involved story or fiction book?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading Curiosity</td>
<td>To what extent do you think the reading texts motivate you to read in class and outside the class?</td>
<td>6. Do you like the texts when you know how the ideas are related with one another?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading Curiosity</td>
<td>What do you find interesting in the reading texts?</td>
<td>7. Do you want to read more about this kind of texts?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading challenge</td>
<td>To what extent do you think the reading texts are useful to you?</td>
<td>8. Do you read even if it is not required by the teacher?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading challenge</td>
<td>To what extent do you enjoy a longer and involved text which is culturally relevant to you? Why? Why not?</td>
<td>9. Do you get interested in reading when the content is familiar to you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student’s expectation</td>
<td>Do you prefer reading CBTs (for the first round of interviews) or CRTs (for the second round of interviews) individually or in groups in classroom? Why? Why not?</td>
<td>10. Do you have favorite subjects that you like to read about?</td>
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<td>Do you prefer to use CBTs (for the first round of interviews) or CRTs (for the second round of interviews) as in-class reading or as homework reading? Why? Why not?</td>
<td>11. Do you enjoy reading texts about living things?</td>
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<td>Do you like to choose your own favorite reading texts to read? Why? Why not?</td>
<td>12. Do you like the questions in the texts when you think?</td>
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<td>To what extent are grades or reading scores a good way to see how well you are doing in reading?</td>
<td>13. Do you usually learn difficult things by reading?</td>
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<td>14. Do you like hard and challenging texts?</td>
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<td>15. If the text is culturally relevant to you, do you read it no matter how hard it is to you?</td>
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<td>16. What are the advantages of individual reading and group reading?</td>
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<td>17. How in-class reading and homework reading motivate you to read more?</td>
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<td>18. Do you get interested in reading when you can choose the text you want to read?</td>
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<td>19. Would you like every of your reading be scored or not?</td>
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Observation Sheet 1: On-task Behavior

Observer: ........................................ Date: ........................................
Teacher: ........................................ Time of class: ........................................
No. of Students present ........................................ Level of class: ........................................
Type of materials (circle one): texts in course book / culturally relevant text
Description of materials: ........................................
Activity: ........................................

Instructions:
1. These observations are designed to measure the levels of learner motivation generated by the materials in use.
2. Do not participate in the lesson. Place yourself in an unobtrusive position in the classroom.
3. Start the observation when the students have been working together in groups or pairs for two minutes.
4. Observe students one by one, consecutively, clockwise around the class.
5. Every 5 minutes write down the category best describing the observed student’s behavior at that moment, then pass on to the next student.
6. Write the numbers in sequence down the data sheet.
7. Continue until all students have been observed 12 times, then complete Observation Sheet 2.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Student number</th>
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Categories: 1 = student on-task; 2 = student off-task
“on-task”: engaged in the pedagogic work of the day
“off-task”: a complete lack of attention to the set task
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST 2: STUDENTS’ READING MOTIVATION
Adapted from Nunan (1989, p. 110)

Observation Sheet 2: Overall Class Motivation
Observer: ____________________________ Date: ____________________________
Teacher: ____________________________ Time of class: ____________________________
No. of Students present: ____________________________ Level of class: ____________________________
Type of materials (circle one): texts in course book / culturally relevant text
Description of materials: __________________________________________________________
Activity: ____________________________

Observation focus Level of student motivation generated by the teaching materials in use. 3 is an average mark for any one items.

Instructions:
1. This sheet is for observing the class as a whole, not individual students.
2. Complete this sheet when the activity is drawing to a close.
3. Circle ONE number for each statement below.
4. Add final comments at the bottom of the sheet if you wish.

1. Mark how involved in the leaning task the students are.
   not very involved 1 2 3 4 5 very involved
2. Mark the level of the student concentration on the leaning task.
   low 1 2 3 4 5 high
3. The students are paying persistent (extended) attention to the leaning task.
   not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so
4. Mark the students’ activity level (effort/intensity of application).
   low 1 2 3 4 5 high
5. The materials in use are challenging for the students.
   not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so
6. Students like hard and challenging texts.
   not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so
7. The students are enjoying the activity.
   not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so
8. The students find the teaching materials interesting.
   not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so
9. The materials in use are appropriate for the students.
   not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so
10. Students are interested in reading even if it is not required by the teacher.
    not really 1 2 3 4 5 very much so

Comments: .............................................................................................................
.............................................................................................................
ESL Students’ Perception about their Self-Esteem

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ABSTRACT
The present study aims to investigate the Perception of Pakistani ESL learners about their self-esteem in general. The research was carried out on 145 ESL Intermediate level students of different public colleges of Hyderabad, Sindh. The data was collected in two phases. Quantitative data was collected through Rosenberg’s (1965) Self-esteem Scale (SES) whereas Qualitative data was collected through focused group discussion. Analysis of the data reveals that the learners have higher self-esteem which can be attributed to the fact that they assess their self-esteem in quite broader perspective which is not specifically limited to ESL context. The findings suggest that learner’s social role affects his self-esteem such as familial responsibilities at very earlier age, financial support they provide to their families and parental/familial encouragement inclusively fosters their self-esteem.

KEY WORDS: SES (Self-Esteem Scale), Perception, Pakistani, EFL learners

INTRODUCTION
Foreign language learning is a multifaceted process which involves cognitive and affective factors. Cognitive factors is actually internal and mental learning process whereas affective is the emotional side of behavior in language learning process (Brown, 1994). They collectively influence a learning process. In past, the focus of research in discipline of foreign language teaching & learning has been restricted to teacher and teaching. It witnessed a significant shift to learner and learning with the rise of humanistic approach & learner’s feelings and emotions are emphasized as an inevitable factor in language learning (Ormeci, 2013). Humanistic approach emphasized that the way students feel about themselves may affect their learning and it emphasizes educating the person as whole, considering both the intellectual and the emotional dimensions (Moskovitz, 1978).

The learner-centered approach to language teaching highlights affective side of learner. Affective domain refers to the emotional side of behavior which plays significant role in second language learning /acquisition process. Affective variables in relation of foreign language learning and teaching have earned importance with the height of interest developed by scholars in discipline of applied linguistics. The affective variables are assumed more influencing factors than cognitive factors on language teaching (Stern, 1996). Horwitz et al. (1986) denies the cognitive factors as the only influencing factor in foreign language learning but he counts the emotional/affective factors equally contributing to the foreign language learning process. Similarly, Williams and Similarly, Burden (1997) state emotions as an integral part of learning. Chastain’s claim testifies Burden when states that the emotions control the will to activate or to shut down the cognitive functions.

Morris Rosenberg (1965) defined self-esteem as a stable sense of personal worth or worthiness. Richards and Schmidt (2002) state it as a judgment which an individual makes of his own worth, relying on a feeling of efficiency and effective interaction with one’s own environment. Brown (2007) postulated that Self-esteem is probably the most prevalent feature of human behavior. He further asserts that the success of cognitive or affective activity greatly depends up to self-esteem, self-confidence, self-efficacy and having belief in your own capacities for that activity.

Wells and Maxwell (1976) stated that in psychological literature the concept of Self-esteem appears under different names which refers apparently to the same phenomenon. Stern (1995) stated that there are different terms which are used interchangeably such as ‘self-concept’, ‘self-efficacy’, ‘self-esteem’ and ‘self-confidence’ in the literature. Self-concept and self-efficacy are viewed similar by some researchers (Bong & Clark, 1999; Choi, 2005). Similarly the terms ‘self-concept’ and ‘self-esteem’ are distinguished by Huitt (2004) who proposed self-concept as cognitive aspect of self, whereas ‘self-esteem’ of affective aspect of self, which refers to one’s feelings of self-worth.” In a same way, Miyagawa (2010) stated the difference between ‘self-confidence’ and ‘self-esteem’. He explained Self-confidence as capability of doing something. It is what we are and what we are bad at. Whereas Self-esteem is the feeling of worthiness at something, in other words, it is we are who we are.
MATERIAL AND METHODS
In order to collect the data, 150 male and female ESL learners of intermediate level were approached randomly. The study used Rosenberg’s Self-esteem Scale, which consists of 10 items. It was translated in Urdu and Sindhi (participants’ first Language). Each of which is answered on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 4) “Strongly agree” to 3) “Agree” to 2) “Disagree” to 1) “Strongly Disagree” for item number 1, 3, 4, 7, 10 representing high self-esteem and 1) “Strongly Agree” to 2) “Agree” to 3) “Disagree” to 4) “Strongly Disagree” for item number 2, 5, 6, 8, 9 representing low self-esteem. ESL learners were asked to fill questionnaires provided by researcher. However, item “I wish I could have more respect for myself” was not included for its ambiguity. Questionnaire items were described with the help of descriptive statistics whereas for analyzing the data of focused group discussion, the study used Krueger’s (1994) framework. Moreover, 5 of the respondents filled questionnaires incomplete therefore they were discarded.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Quantitative data indicates that the highest percentage of ESL learners exhibits higher self-esteem. The reason behind learner's satisfaction with oneself is supported by the responses of the participants of focused group discussion. FG participants think that they feel very confident, if they outdo other students in any academic task. Most importantly, when they start earning to support their families at early age. They are happy and satisfied about it. Participants agreed to the point that they set their expectations in academic context (English language class). When the result of their attempted task meet their expectations then it brings them good feeling about themselves. It indicates that learner's good/ bad feeling about himself greatly depends on the expected result of the attempted task, when they feel challenged with presence of other students who can do class task better than them. Somehow, they relate age to more experience, more command over task. Observing these situations around, learner feels his self-esteem challenged and he feels that he may be/not be as competent as his class fellows. It further indicates that learner's accomplishment heightens his self-esteem whereas failure to accomplish directly affects his self-esteem. Questionnaire responses exhibit the higher self-esteem of learners; the reliance and confidence of learners over themselves and the value the participants relate to themselves. It can be attributed to the very important reason of trust which their families lie in them by making them responsible for many of their family/ home matters at very earlier age.

The higher percentage of responses strongly support the point that in context of second language learning they think themselves equal to other learners exhibiting their higher self-esteem. According to current study, the major reasons for higher self-esteem can be attributed to the two of very important reasons:

1. Their families give them responsibility for many of their family/ home matters at very earlier age.
2. They start earning to support their families at early age.
3. Parental/family support

It clearly exhibits that the higher self-esteem starts developing since childhood. Therefore ESL students assess their self-esteem in quite broader perspective which is not specifically limited to ESL context. Coppersmith (1967) and Rosenberg (1965, 1979) state how people perceive themselves to be viewed by others is of great importance such as family, classmates and friends and so on. Luhtanen & Crocker (1992) emphasize that people are likely to base their self-esteem on their social identities.

Many of the students of public Colleges are more exposed to the real life situations as they deal with certain responsibilities of family at earlier age. Therefore, they think that they have accomplished many things which may not have been accomplished by other children of their age. In addition, majority of the public college students start earning to support their families financially which naturally boosts their self-esteem. To clarify it further, it is a matter of fact that the self-esteem is reinforced through social interaction therefore getting into social interaction by the mean of supporting families financially and dealing with family responsibilities strengthens EFL learners’ self-esteem. This early exposure to real life situations has boosted their self-esteem.

The self-esteem of student is affected daily, academically and socially because of many of his academic and social roles (Dustin, Murray & Mertens, 1996). Tafarodi & Walters (1999) points out that the Self-esteem is influenced by culture. In collectivistic culture, self-esteem is related to self-liking as compared to self-competence. In individualistic culture, self-esteem is associated with self-competence. Moreover, study further confirms the role of parental/family support and encouragement in fostering higher self-esteem of EFL participants. It is supported by the previous studies (Brook over, 1965; Coppersmith, 1967) that state the significant impact of family on child’s self-esteem.

CONCLUSION
The findings of current study revealed that the EFL learners have higher self-esteem. It is because the EFL participants/respondents of current study are from the social class which gives responsibilities to their children at very earlier age which reinforce their self-esteem, confidence and independence. The family/parental support is also found playing great role in strengthening their self-esteem.
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Language Influence on Airline Companies’ Identity with the Branding Strategies

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ABSTRACT
In this globalisation era, the competition in the market is getting stronger. It is crucial that a company has a clear branding image to differentiate themselves from other competitors. Many researches focus on branding strategies but studies on the role of language in branding strategies are limited. The purpose of this study is to understand how the airline companies in Malaysia use branding strategies to market themselves through the text and sign used. This study proposed a consumer’s perspective brand equity model with three dimensions: brand awareness, brand loyalty and perceived quality. AirAsia and Malaysia Airlines were chosen for this study. The data collected was the company background from their official website. The data was analysed by using discourse analysis. This study shows that AirAsia present the company identity clearly in their official website while Malaysia Airlines stress on their product and service provided in their official website.

KEYWORDS: Branding Strategy, Tagline, Logo, Corporate identity, AirAsia, Malaysia Airlines

INTRODUCTION
Based on the latest annual report from United Nation World Tourism organization (UNWTO, 2018), international tourist arrivals is 1,326 million in 2017, which is 7% or 84 million over year 2016 and generated USD 1,340 billion for international tourist receipts.

Tourism and air transport are interlinked (Bieger & Wittmer, 2006). Tourism is the driving factor for air transport as this is a globalize era, tourist can access to foreign countries easily for vacation. According to the latest edition of Tourism Highlights from United Nation World Tourism organization, 57% of tourists had chosen to travel by air as their mode of transport (UNWTO, 2018). In order to stand and hold their share in the market, airline companies had developed strategies to brand and market themselves to potential clients.

Brand equity model, publish by David Aaker at 1991 is used in this study, which defines brand equity and describes how it generates values for the company.

The brand name is the simplest and the most important form of the company as the clients will recognize it and link to the product or service provided. Brand name gives a product its core identity. It is the anchor for a brand’s image, and cannot be changed easily (Kohli, Leuthesser, & Suri, 2007).

Slogans play a very important role to support the brand idea and the company identity. (Kohli, Leuthesser, & Suri, 2007) Kohli et al (2013) mention that logo and slogan enhance the brand’s identity in their study; logos use graphics, which is a universal language that transcends geographical boundaries in an increasingly global market, however logo cannot present much on brand’s identity. On the other hand, slogan can be much longer and able to explain more about the brand. Kohli and team found out that the creative elements in slogan design which are jingle, rhyming and simplicity, does not give a significant effect in slogan recall; higher spending had more effect to keep the slogan on top of the consumer’s mind instead (Kohli et al 2013).

Logos can help a brand in 2 ways; first, can be used in conjunction with the company name, whether stylized depictions of brand names or more abstract designs, serve as visual cues for faster processing and universal recognition of brands across different in languages and cultures. Second, logos can be used in place of the name when there is space or time constraint. (Kohli et al 2007; Kohli et al 2002) If logos are to be changed, they should be changed for content, not for style, and the change should be incremental (Kohli, Suri, & Thakor, 2002).

The purpose of this study is to understand how AirAsia and Malaysia Airlines market themselves through the text and signals used in their official website.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
This research is analyzing company background, slogan and logo in the company website of the airline company chosen namely AirAsia and Malaysia Airlines to examine how they pass the message and create brand awareness in public. The language used in company background while describing the company history and slogan used will be examine while company logo will sharpen and deepen the image in clients perception on the brand.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Company identity is constructed in company’s official website, they have to be clear and establish the image that they would like to show to clients and business competitors.

AirAsia’s entire business model focuses on a low-cost philosophy which requires them to operate lean, simple and efficient. AirAsia mentions 3 key strategies currently employing to match their philosophy which are: High Aircraft Utilisation; Low Fare, No Frills and lastly Point to point Network. (AirAsia, 2002) High Aircraft Utilisation ensures the frequency of the route, so that clients had freedom to decide to take on the flight timing preferred. AirAsia focus on high frequency and high turnaround of flights, fastest in the region with turnaround of 25 minutes. (AirAsia, 2002) The strategy passes a message to clients that AirAsia willing to give clients the flexibility to choose the most comfortable time to travel, more importantly in low and affordable cost.

The second strategy is “Low Fare, No Frills”, clients need not to accumulate frequent flyer miles or airport lounge in exchange for lower air faries, and they can also get to choose to pay for in-flight meals, snacks and drinks. (AirAsia, 2002) This shows that even though AirAsia is a low cost carrier, necessary services to provide to their clients are well kept in mind, which means clients do not need to struggle in a situation they are not able to enjoy the other services provided like other airline companies, even better, clients get the freedom to choose. Despite establishing the frequent flyer program, which a usual strategy other airline companies for clients to get cheaper flight ticket fare, AirAsia ensure the ticket fare is affordable at the same time establish Big Member, which clients can accumulate Big points and utilize it in their bookings.

The last strategy of AirAsia, “Point to Point Network”, all short-haul AirAsia flights (four-hour flight radius or less) and medium- to long haul AirAsia X flights are non-stop, doing away with the need for human resources, physical infrastructure and facilities at transit locations. (AirAsia, 2002) This tells clients that they can reduce the cost for transit in order to travel to their preferred location, which matter the most to the clients that they can cut the hassle of recollect luggage and rush to recheck-in at another departure terminal for transit. Soon after AirAsia had introduced “FLY-THRU” service for long haul flights to include transit service, but they had ensure the convenience of clients does not interrupt. FLY-THRU process conveniently transferring from one flight to another without the hassle of going through immigration processing, and of having to collect your baggage when you are taking 2 different flights to get to your final destination and stopping over at a transit station (AirAsia, 2002).

“Low Cost” term is appear repeating in the company website and slogan “Now Everyone can fly”, which AirAsia would like to give the message that travel by flight is not as expensive, luxury and cannot afford by normal class clients. Despite of low cost, AirAsia does not neglect the safety of their clients; safety plays a heavy part in their vision. AirAsia keep operations simple and transparent to avoid unnecessary worries in clients. The highest priority is given to safe operations, and AirAsia complies with conditions asset by regulators in all the countries where it operates, they also partners with the most renowned maintenance providers to ensure its fleet is always in the best condition (AirAsia, 2002).

Besides, in their vision and mission, AirAsia gives a sense of belonging to their clients, they values their clients and their staff; and creating the atmosphere that they care about their clients and staffs to ensure clients onboard or who purchase their services will feel at home.

On the other hand, Malaysia Airlines mentions the different type of services provided not only air transportation, but also include cargo service, engineering and training facilities. This group structure was created to drive better transparency and focused management across the respective operating subsidiaries, creating profit center subsidiaries of the company’s separate businesses. This ensures profit and loss accountability and unlocks the value of the various assets by driving new levels of operational efficiency. (Malaysia Airlines, 2016) Malaysia Airlines description carries a hidden meaning that they have to work hard to gain profitability by the services provided as they are struggling to break even.

Malaysia Airline carries the new slogan “Malaysia Hospitality Begins with us” to show their determination for regaining profit and they belief that as national airline, they have responsibility to show their clients the warmth and diversity of Malaysia. Malaysia Airlines embody that incredible diversity of Malaysia, capturing its rich traditions, cultures, cuisines and warm hospitality on board, while opening up more of Malaysia’s destinations than any other airline (Malaysia Airlines, 2016). This also shown in the company logo as it is a blue wau bulan, which is the traditional Malay moon kite. The logo had maintained since 1987 until now, it had keep in consumer’s mind that it presents Malaysia airlines.

CONCLUSION

This study shows that the language used in describing and explaining company’s background, together with their mission and vision, it will help clients to know more and get better understanding on how a company brand themselves. It can also help clients to have better perception on their company values.
In conclusion, language also plays an important role in business. AirAsia is more successful in branding by declaring themselves as a low cost carrier, clients are clearly acknowledge that “Now Everyone Can Fly”, which injects the idea of low cost, affordable for everyone, the first option come to mind when clients are surveying for flight tickets to travel. Malaysia Airlines is service-oriented as their latest slogan “Malaysia Hospitality Begins with us”, consistently sending the message to clients that it is all about service.

REFERENCES
Gary Snyder’s Perspective about Nature as Seen in *Mother Earth: Her Whales*
A Study of Ecocriticism

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ABSTRACT

Human and nature can’t be separated. Human’s behavior give impact to the nature. Human’s behavior toward nature can be seen in the literary work. Many writers try to increase the awareness of people about environment, some of them criticizes human’s behavior that bring destruction to the nature. This destruction will threaten human’s life in the future. Gary Snyder tries to deliver his perspective about nature in his poem *Mother Earth: Her Whales*. By analysing Snyder’s perspective, the reader will understand about the environmental issue that happen in this era. The reader also can take action to solve the environmental problem. To understand the perspective of Gary Snyder, the researcher uses ecocriticism theory. Textual analysis method is used to find out the relations between human and nature and the perspective of the writer in the poem. Based on the analysis, it can be concluded that Snyder tries to criticize human in all countries about their behavior toward nature. Although people create so many conferences about environment, there are still hidden agenda to exploit it. Ecocriticism help the researcher to reveal the reaction to man’s attitude of dominating nature.

KEYWORDS: Environment, Nature, Ecocriticism, Literature

INTRODUCTION

Nature in literary work often use as background of story or as a setting of place to create certain mood and atmosphere. Gary Snyder depicts nature differently in his poem *Mother Earth: Her Whales*. Snyder takes nature as the main character of his poem. He describes about how human treats nature. Snyder also talks about globalization and its impact to the ecology and environment. Through his poem, he expresses his criticism toward people and countries who exploit nature to gain personal advantages. These people exploit nature without thinking about the bad impact for the next generation in the future. Snyder uses poem as a tool to raise awareness of people about the importance of nature. In his poem, he raises the environmental issue that happen in some countries. He shows the destruction matter of nature not only in land but also in the sea. The destructions which is done by human not only destroy water, air and land but also destroy the animal and plant habitat. There are many conferences talks about nature’s destruction, one of them is UN Conference in the Stockholm. Snyder attended this conference and started to question whether these people really care about environment or they had different agenda behind it. *Mother Earth: Her Whales* contains serious issue about nature that Snyder tries to build a new perspective about loving nature and stop the destruction on it.

Ecocriticism Theory

The object of this research is Gary Snyder’s poem entitled *Mother Earth: Her Whales*. The researcher uses textual analysis method to find out the relations between human and nature and the perspective of the writer in the poem. The researcher also employs ecocriticism theory to reveal the perspective of the writer and his message to the reader. Ecocriticism is the study of relationship between literature and the physical environment. Ecocritics asks the question about how is nature represented in the poem and how does human behavior influence to the nature. In the analysis, the researcher also connects it with Snyder’s socio-historical background and interest. Snyder lived in Japan in 1956 to study Zen Buddhism there for twelve years. Therefore, the value of Zen Buddhism reflected much in poem. He also has special interest in Native American value and its traditions. It also influences to his poem.

Snyder’s Perspective: Human Domination’s of Nature

Snyder opens his poem by depicting the condition of nature without intervention from human. In first two stanza, Snyder depicts the beauty and stability of nature. Owl, lizard, and sparrow do what they usually do: winks, lifts on tiptoe and stretches up his neck. Grasses are working in the sun since the sun is the main resources of energy for all life. The sun provides the energy for the plant's photosynthesis and the result of photosynthesis becomes the food resources for animal as the next level consumer in food chain and the top level consumer is human. Snyder shows how important nature for human’s life. Human, animal, plant and abiotic elements are no separate entity.
In the third stanza, Snyder starts criticizing land’s exploitation in Brazil. Snyder condemned political elite in destroying jungle for financial gain in the name of the state of Brazil. The political elite is not just torture the jungle and living things inside but also sold it. The word ‘robot’ refers to the power-thirsty bureaucrat longing profit. Their act seems as speaking for the nature but actually they don’t have any interest in ecological matters. Snyder questions how can these people speak for the green of the leaf and speak for the soil? They actually don’t have privilege to speak for the nature, because they are the one who destroy the nature itself.

In the fourth stanza, Snyder rises the issue of whale hunting in Japan. Once again, he starts this stanza by depicting the elegance of the movements of the heavy creatures. Then, he criticizes Japanese because they don’t have any criteria about what kinds of whale that they can kill. It means there are no regulation to protect this animal from hunting. Furthermore, Snyder also rises the issue of sea pollution by methyl mercury. He criticizes Japan as "once-great Buddhist nation" that do something out of his expectation. As a religious nations, Snyder thinks that Japan should consider the living things inside the sea that they polluted.

In the next stanza, Snyder criticizes China for the habitat destruction of The Elaphure. Elaphure also known as "Père David's Deer" is "a species of reddish-tawny deer" which used to live in Northern-China. Elaphure usually found in "tule marshes" at the Yellow River, but nowadays only known in captivity. The logging of "tule marshes" at the Yellow River to grow rice caused Elaphure lost their habitat. Snyder gives evidence that the destruction toward environment started from ancient time. He mentioned the case of the logging of the Chinese forest of Lo-Yang in 1200 AD as the example. The devastation of the forest also destroyed the habitat of Wild Geese and other wild animals such as tigers, wild boars and monkeys. And it became an irony because human destroyed it for building parking space. Snyder asked was it worth to destroy nature for human’s convenience, in what way human are superior to other living things?

Then Snyder moved to explain the environmental issue in North America or what the original Native American named as Turtle Island. In this stanza Snyder called Western civilization as "the robot nations". The image of a robot for mankind used to portray the loss of humanity and the machine-like behavior modern man frequently shows by just functioning in modern society. The white people came and took the land from the Native American, they created war and of course the war affected to the animal’s habitat such as ants, abalone, otters, wolves and elk. Then in the next stanza, Snyder criticize the head-heavy power-hungry politicians, scientists, government, two-world Capitalist-Imperialist, the Third-world, the Communist, the paper-shuffling male, non-farmer and jet-set bureaucrats that they have no right to speak for nature. They don’t have pure intention, the important thing for them is just profit and money. Snyder ends his poem by showing his hopes that the nature will be better in the future.

CONCLUSION

By showing his criticism through his poem Snyder wants to fight for ecological convictions. His perspective about nature was so clear that he criticizes nations who doing harm and destroying nature to gain financial profit. Through his literary work, Snyder speaks for nature that nature and non-human living things also have rights to survive, right to be treated by human properly. Human should think about their behavior and its impact to the nature. Snyder ends his poem by showing his hope that nature deserved better. Snyder invites human to create a balance and harmonious life with the nature.

REFERENCES

The Interaction Strategies Employed by an Elementary School EFL Teacher in Indonesia

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ABSTRACT

In Indonesia English is the first foreign language taught in schools, including in elementary school. The English teachers have central roles in the process of acquisition of the students. As the more capable persons, they should give meaningful input to make the interaction run well. They employ many interaction strategies to facilitate students’ understanding. This research aims at answering the question: “What and how the interaction strategies are employed by an English teacher in an EFL classroom of elementary School in Indonesia?” This research is descriptive qualitative with conversational analysis approach. The subject of the research is a non-native English speaker; he is a qualified and experienced English teacher who teaches the fourth grade students of elementary school in Indonesia. The data of the research was collected from the observation during teaching and learning process and are presented descriptively. The results of the research show that the teacher employs many interaction strategies which can be classified as speech modification and communication strategies. He helps the students not only by reducing the rate of speech, clear and aloud voice, using body movement, using media, paraphrasing, repetition, confirmation and comprehension check.

KEYWORDS: EFL Teacher, Interaction Strategies, Speech Modification, Communication Strategies

INTRODUCTION

In Indonesia English is considered as a foreign language because the language is only used in certain occasions. Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) is aimed at enabling the students to communicate using the target language. The students can increase the language they learn through various activities that the teacher provides in the classroom. They can also practice using the language through interaction.

Many researchers have proved that classroom interaction provide rich information on how learning a language takes place. First, Chaudron (1988), identified the features of teacher talk in classroom interaction based on the previous researchers. The features are amount of talk, rate of speech, pauses, phonology, articulation, and stress, and modification in vocabulary, syntax and discourse. Then, Van Lier (1988) found a number of turn-taking behaviors that were considered indicative of learner initiative. Furthermore, Long (1996) cites that interaction facilitates acquisition because of conversational and linguistic modifications that occur in such discourse and that provide students with input they need. Finally, Meng and Wang (2011: 98) found out that interaction between learners and teachers in the classroom is an important part in improving students’ communicative competence. The conclusion is, then, there many aspects of classroom interaction which can be observed to develop the theory of language learning.

There are some reasons why EFL teachers should use the target language for interaction in the classroom. The first, in foreign language situation like in Indonesia, children will depend almost entirely on the school environment for input (Moon, 2000:14). So, the teachers may be the only source of language, which makes his/her roles in children’s language learning very important. She also stated that that using English more often in the class for interaction will build students’ self-confidence.

There are some strategies that can help students to understand what is being talked during the interaction is using paraphrasing, code switching, using body language, and choosing a certain topic. Those strategies are suitable with the features of communication strategy proposed by Dornyei and Scott (1997) in Ellis (2008). Teachers may paraphrase an utterance that students do not understand. If they have employed the modifications above and the students still do not understand the ideas, they may apply code switching. They may not only use the first language (L1), but they may also avoid unfamiliar topic for the instructional materials.

From the explanation above, the students at elementary school need EFL teachers who can apply the interaction strategies in various classroom activities in order to facilitate language learning. The teachers can give good model how the language is used and to give chance for the students to practice the language in a real communication. They should understand the interaction strategies and employ them in the classroom. Therefore, this research answers the question: “What and how the interaction strategies are employed by an English teacher in an EFL classroom of elementary School in Indonesia?”
METHODS

This is a descriptive qualitative research, and the design of this research is a case study. The single case learned here is the interaction strategies employed by the EFL teacher when he had interaction during the teaching process in an English classroom of an elementary school in Indonesia. The teacher is non-native English speaker, he is an Indonesian. The techniques of collecting the data were observation and deep interview to the teacher. The steps of collecting data are as follows: 1) the researcher observed directly on the process of teaching and learning in which the interaction took place. She wrote the phenomenon happening in the class in the field notes; 2) the researcher interviewed the teacher to confirm and check the data taken from the observation if it was necessary. The data was analyzed inductively based on the phenomena happened in the English class.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part presents the results and discussion of the interactions strategies employed by the teacher in teaching English in an elementary school. During the teaching process, the teacher tried hard to use English for the interaction. In fact, the students’ ability of using the target language is very low. As a result, he has to employ interaction strategies. The strategies employed are interaction devices to facilitate understanding when he interacts with the students.

In this research the language of instruction which the teacher used in the classroom was English. He used this language more often than Indonesian. He realizes that the communication using English with the students is very important. First, in term of interaction, communication in the classroom using the target language gives them real situations on how the language is used. Then, he wants to give good examples how to use the target language. Moreover, the students have chance to apply the language they learn in real communication. Finally, he can see whether his teaching is successful or not, by knowing their ability to use the language in the class through interaction.

The results of the research show that the teacher applied some modifications by reducing the rate of speech, clear and aloud voice, using body movement, using media, paraphrasing, repetition, confirmation and comprehension check. It can be seen that he used different sentences to express the same ideas or repeated his utterances or questions to check the students’ understanding. He also gave feedback to reinforce students’ respond by praising or repeating the students’ utterances. Those modifications can be classified as verbal interaction strategies. The other strategies that could be found were that he always chose a certain topic to teach and built the class with relax situation (by singing a song or sometimes quiz). He also never blamed if the students made mistakes. Finally, he gave positive feedback when the students could give correct answers.

The strategies, which are in line with the characteristics of teacher talk, caretaker talk, and communication strategies, are suitable with the students’ characteristics.

The interaction strategies applied by the teacher also meet with the characteristics of teacher talk (Choudron, 1988 and Lych, 1996), caretaker talk (Ellis, 2008), and communication strategies (Dornyei (1995). Teacher talk has unique features. They are slow rate of speech, more frequent and longer pauses, exaggerated and simplified pronunciation, basic vocabularies, and a lot of repetition. While caretakers adjust their speech formally so that the input children receive is both clearer and linguistically simpler than the speech they address to other adults. English teachers can adopt the theory of communication strategies. Strategies used may include paraphrasing or circumlocution, substitution, avoiding, switching to the first language (L1), and asking for clarification.

CONCLUSION

In foreign language learning context, English teacher can promote students’ ability in communication through classroom interaction during teaching learning process. Students need help from teacher in order to that they can participate in the interaction. Teacher can help them by employing various interaction strategies in the English classroom. The interaction strategies which help students are speech modifications, such as using simple vocabularies and sentences, comprehension check, using slow rate of speech, clear pronunciation, and a lot of repetition. Besides, he applied communication strategies, such as using body movement, using L1, code switching, substitution, and avoiding. The other strategies that could be found were that he always chose a certain topic to teach, built the class with relax situation (by singing a song or sometimes quiz), and never blamed when the students make mistakes. In short, understanding interaction strategies in English classroom help teachers to train students to use the target language they learn. English teacher can use L2 as the language of instruction during teaching and learning process in the class as long as he applied various interaction strategies.
REFERENCES


Interactive Literacy Learning for Remedial Students via Sound Encoding and Syllable Blending Game

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ABSTRACT
Teaching remedial students basic literacy skills continue to challenge teachers due to students’ short attention span and memory deficits. Second author found two of her remedial students having difficulty reading words with simple syllable sounds even after 2 years in schools. Thus, an action research was conducted with these students as the research participants. Second author used Malay sound awareness followed by teaching letters which represent the sounds using animated association approach. The participants were first taught the 6 vowel sounds in Malay using 6 interesting animated songs devised by the first author based on the Malay Early Literacy Instructional Model. Next, students were introduced to five consonant sounds (sonorants). Subsequently, sound blending was taught using an animation game. Significant improvement was seen in both participants in their phonemic awareness, phoneme-grapheme correspondence, syllable reading and word reading tests conducted right before and immediately after only three weeks’ intervention. Most importantly, these students regained confidence and interest in literacy learning. The findings suggest that reading and spelling can be taught through fun and easy sound coding to ease the cognitive processing load of remedial students.

KEYWORDS: Literacy learning, remedial students, animated game in education

INTRODUCTION
Learning to read and write is not a natural ability like learning to speak and understand a language (Sousa, 2011). This is evident as writing systems existed much later in human history. Language devices inherent enable any native speaker of a language to produce and retrieve phonological structures through automatic functioning processes below the conscious level (Shankweiler & Lundquist, 1993). In contrast, writing or reading requires explicit understanding of the writing system. In an alphabetic writing system, a child must explicitly or implicitly gain knowledge on how letters and the sequence of letters correspond to speech segments (Ng & Yeo, 2013). While many children can learn to read and write effortlessly, there are some who face difficulties in literacy learning due to deficiencies in physical, biological, linguistic, poor socio-economic background, underprivileged environment or even ineffective instructions (Munro, 2008).

As Yeo (2006) pertinently asserted, “Reading difficulties will not fade away unless effective measures are undertaken to intervene the problems faced by the child”. Children who have difficulty in mastering basic literacy skills of language by the end of first grade begin to feel less confident about their abilities. As they proceed in the schooling years, reading difficulties will directly leads to literacy motivation declines even further. Hence, it is essential to focus our attention on the early literacy learning as there is evidence which supports that well-designed early intervention programmes can prevent the development of long-term literacy difficulties (Wanzek & Vaughn, 2007).

Therefore, the aim of this action research was to improve remedial students’ phonological awareness, grapheme-phoneme correspondence, syllable reading and word reading skills, focusing on words with open syllable CVCV structures using animated songs and animated blending game.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
This study applied an action research design which involve cycles of analysis, reconnaissance, reconceptualization of the problem, planning of the intervention, implementation of the plan, and evaluation of the effectiveness of the intervention (McKernan, 1991). Meyer (2000) describes action research as a process that involves people and social situations that have to ultimate aim of changing an existing situation for the better.

Two students from a remedial class of a national primary school in an inner city of East Malaysia involved in this study (2 boys; mean age 8.5 years old). These two participants were native speakers of Malay and came
from low socioeconomic family backgrounds. Both participants could recognise and name all alphabets but they have problems in syllable reading and spelling. They could only recognise some open syllables and a few simple words but reading the words seem slow and laborious. Besides that, both participants showed low motivation in learning but were very much attracted when computer was incorporated in the remedial lessons.

The researchers intend to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention by using a Malay Literacy Test adapted from Ng (2013) which comprises of four parts. Part 1 is the phonological awareness test with 10 items. Part 2 is the grapheme-phoneme correspondence test with 15 items. Part 3 is syllable reading test with 30 open syllable items (5 consonants x 6 vowels). Part 4 is word reading test with 10 items.

The intervention was designed based on the Malay Early Literacy Instructional Model (Ng, 2013). Based on this model above, animation songs were used to introduce the grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPC) and phonological awareness (PA). It began with the six vowel sounds. With animated songs, participants learnt to associate vowel sounds with their corresponding graphemes (GPC). Participants were then guided to associate the phonemes with objects with similar sounds in the environment to enhance phonological awareness (PA). Activities like “treasure hunt” and “how do I spell...?” were played for skill reinforcement and automatic syllable reading (ASR).

After mastering all vowel sounds and the corresponding graphemes, consonants were introduced (s, m, n, l and r). These are sonorants which are produced with continuous, non-turbulent airflow in the vocal tract. They are selected to be taught first as they are voiced and could easily and clearly demonstrate blending and segmentation as compared to other consonants such as <b>, <c>, <d>, etc.

After learning each consonant sound using animated songs (Ng, 2014), participants were introduced to the “Plant and Grow” animated game for learning blending and segmentation (B&S) skill. The word ‘plant’ in this software means merge sonorant letters (<s>, <l>, <m>, <n>, <r>) in the form of seeds brought by beautifully designed bees into the vase with 6 vowels (<a>, <i>, <o>, <u>, <e>, <é>). The word ‘Grow’ signifies a blending of consonants and vowels to form syllables CV. For example, <s> merges with <a> to form <sa>, without naming the letter. This visual and audio animation enables participants to “see” and “hear” the blending of phonemes and segmentation of syllables.

New syllable learnt are immediately practiced with phonological awareness skills, such as “sa”, “satu” (one); “sabun” (soap), “sapu” (sweep), “angsa” (goose) and “rusa” (deer) to create awareness of the syllable sound. Similarly, automatic syllable reading is enhanced through reading and spelling after and before each intervention session. Word reading is introduced right after learning enough syllables to form words. These words are then learnt in context to provide meaningful learning.

The intervention lasted for 3 weeks, 5 days a week and 30 minutes per day. The intervention was conducted during the remedial sessions and the focus was to create phonological awareness, build the understanding of grapheme-phoneme correspondences, enhance blending and segmentation skills, increase automatic syllable and word reading and ultimately enable contextual reading. The sessions were planned but yet not strictly structured so that the intervention was conducted based on the learning pace of participants.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results from the Malay Literacy Test administered before and after the intervention demonstrated that both participants A and B showed significant improvement in all four skills, namely phonological awareness (an increase of 70% and 80% respectively), grapheme-phoneme correspondences (40% and 56.7%), syllable reading (50.7% and 58.7%) and word reading (70 and 60%).

The findings showed that both native-speaker remedial participants have gained some understanding of phonological and orthographic knowledge of the language in 3 week’s intervention. At the beginning of the intervention, the participants tend to fall back to the old style of “spelling out each letter name before naming the syllable”. It was in fact not easy to unlearn as old habits die hard. It took some time before the participants began to understand that graphemes represent spoken sounds and spoken sounds can be encoded using graphemes.

When they were guided to “seek for” similar sounds in their environment, for example, “susu” (milk), “sudu” (spoon), “sangai” (river), they began to develop phonological awareness which they had never learnt explicitly before. This realization made learning more interesting and exciting. The learning became more invigorating as they could relate to more and more similar sounds in the surrounding, especially things which were relevant to them such as their own names. They were amazed when they discovered that the similar sounds could be represented by the same letters. This pattern recognition accelerates learning as learning transfer occurs. This was evident as the learning speed picked up after the first blending task of consonant <s> with vowel sounds. Moreover, participants were more aware of the prints around them. In one occasion, one of the participants was observed to have read out the sign on the wall in the classroom correctly without spelling it out.
Learning to encode (spell) and decode (read) was daily activities before and after each intervention session to reinforce and achieve automatic reading and spelling skills. The continuous assessments served as warming up exercises as well as practice to awaken interest, support retention and provide feedback to the learning before moving on to the next steps. In addition, blending skills were enhanced through the “plant and grow” computer games to stimulate their interest and provide multimodal learning (Sankey, Birch & Gardiner, 2010). Computer games managed to attract their interest in learning as the use of multimedia incorporate elements of visual, audio and movement (Chambers, Cheung, Madden, Slavin & Gifford, 2006). The intervention was carried out in a supportive and non-threatening emotional climate. The findings proved that emotional engagement is essential to get children involved in higher cognitive processes learning (Driscoll, 2005).

CONCLUSION

The results showed that the implementation of the 3-week action research successfully improved participants’ phonological awareness, grapheme-phoneme correspondences and blending skills. These skills collectively brought about improvement in word reading, and most important reading speed which largely enhances reading comprehension. The approach used in the intervention catered to the special needs of remedial students and effectively made the learning more interesting and beneficial to these students. In fact, rather than marking the end of the short 3-week action research, this is the beginning of a journey towards literacy teaching for these students until they achieve the goal of reading to learn and reading for knowledge and enjoyment.

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The Impact of Cultural Factors on Translating Chinese-English Historical Texts

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ABSTRACT
Cultural context forms an important part of contexts. In the process of translation, the cultural connotation of the source language should be transformed and decoded. Therefore, by comparing cultural differences between east and west countries, this study aims to figure out how cultural implications are manifested in the translation of Chinese Zodiac, traditional diets and social customs. After collecting questionnaires from two hundred respondents and analyzing relevant data, the cognitive ability of target readers are tested and the impact of cultural factors on translating Chinese-English historical texts is evaluated.

KEYWORDS: Cultural factors; C-E translation; historical texts; Zodiac

INTRODUCTION
Language is an important part of culture and an indispensable tool for preserving, exchanging and reflecting culture. “Culture” not only reflects the characteristics of a nation, but also affects people’s way of thinking and their language habits. Idioms are the essence of language, including proverbs, set-phrases, two-part allegorical sayings, classical allusions, fables, slangs, etc. Some of them are created in daily life, while others are derived from literary works. Because idioms are established by the people through long social practice, they can reflect the cultural origins of a country, a nation, and a region.

China and the West have different geographical environments, religious beliefs and living habits. Therefore, when translating historical texts, we should pay attention to the cultural factors in the context of texts, correctly understand the semantic connotations conveyed by the source language, and then decode and translate the source text. The modern American translator Eugene Nida once noted: “For a truly successful translation, the translator’s bi-cultural foundation is more important than the bilingual foundation, because words only make sense in the cultural context in which they live.” In the practice of translation, only after getting a profound understanding of the differences between Eastern and Western cultures as well as the cultural connotations can we avoid problems such as over-translation, under-translation or mistranslation.

At the same time, the ability of the target language readers to understand cultural factors is also very important. For example, in the twelve zodiacs, the “Dragon” is the totem of the Chinese nation and a symbol of good fortune. In as many as 180 idioms containing dragons, the dragon also serves as a positive meaning, but in Western countries, the dragon which contains derogatory emotions is synonymous with evil. Therefore, when translating some idioms containing cultural factors, we can’t literally translate words into words. Instead, we should consider the reader's thinking and cognitive style and the cultural environment of the target country to effectively reproduce the semantic connotation of culturally loaded words.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
1. The foundation of text type theory
In the 1960s, Katharina Reiss, a translator and Germany scholar of research school of western translation theory, put forward the theory of text typology on the basis of three classifications of language functions developed by Czech linguists Buhler. (Ding Jianjiang, 2003: 03) Reiss connected the language functions with the language types and texts with those language functions. Starting from the research of environment of communications in language functions, she conducted the research on the process, methods and assessments of the realization of translation equivalence. Although her function and text typology translation theories were based on equivalence concept, she emphasized that the communication function of translation was achieved at discourse level rather than words or sentences, since the focus and the starting point was the systematization of translation measurement and assessment.

Reiss divided the language texts into four categories: 1) Expressive text: it emphasized the creative structure and the aesthetic level of the language, focusing on the text writer and the text itself; 2) Informative text: All the factual texts aiming to deliver the message, knowledge, ideas and others all belong to informative text and the centre of the text lie in its content and topic; 3) Operative text: The goal of this text is to persuade the text reader or make the receiver adopt a certain behaviour, so that they can respond and react on the text from behaviour perspective. The language features are dialogue-based and the focus of the text is its operative
function; 4) Audio-visual text: The emphasis is the audio and visual images, such as texts in movies, advertisements and music and it serves as a supplement to other three categories. Meanwhile, Reiss also conducted detailed descriptions to every category of text. (Reiss, 1989)

Similarly, British translator Peter Newmark concluded three main functions in all the language functions after he absorbed the research results of other translation theorists: expressive function, informative function and vocative function. The text classifications of Reiss and Newmark were extremely similar, although the only difference was that Newmark gave a more detailed and restricted description towards the features and translation methods of texts in all categories. (Ding, 2003:03) The theory of text types mainly focuses on the detailed features such as the text styles, emphasis, centre and language types and it conducts the classification after combining the new words and ideas in the text, unusual rhetorical devices, coping of semantic losses, the length of translation units, relative length of source text and translation and others. The theory offers a series of practical methodologies for translation.

2. The application of semantic translation and communicative translation

There are wide differences between semantic translation (ST) and communicative translation (CT). To decide which translation method shall be applied, Peter Newmark has a further study at linguistic level and lays emphasis on using theory to deal with problems in translation. In the book of A Textbook of Translation (1988), he proposed the concept of ST and CT and described the differences between them. As can be seen in the form of a flattened V diagram:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source language emphasis</th>
<th>Target language emphasis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word-for-word translation</td>
<td>Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal translation</td>
<td>Free translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faithful translation</td>
<td>Idiomatic translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic translation</td>
<td>Communicative translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Newmark, 1988: 45)

From the methods shown above, Newmark stated that only semantic translation and communicative translation fulfilled the two main aims of translation, which are accuracy and economy. According to him, the basic difference between ST and CT focused on “meaning” and “message”, “author” and “reader”, “thought-process” and “utterance”. (Newmark, 1981: 23)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The idioms related to the zodiac are abundant in Chinese historical texts. According to statistics, there are about 2,520 idioms in Chinese, of which there are as many as 1,260 idioms about the zodiac. Because each animal has its own specific appearance, physiology, behavior, habit, function and other characteristics, it will remind people of a certain association meaning. This association meaning mostly covers the cultural content, cultural tradition and cultural psychology of the nation. It affects the creative ability of the source language writers, and these cultural factors also affect the cognitive ability of the target readers. In order to let the target readers understand their connotations clearly and vividly, the cultural factors contained in the zodiac are briefly summarized:

1) Rat / Mouse: In China, the rat is a symbol of action sneaky, insignificant darkness, greed and shame, with a lot of derogatory colors; in the West, the rat is the spreader of disease and the representative of the traitor. Rats are basically the same in the cultural meaning of the East and West.

2) Ox / Cattle: In China, ox are used by farmers to cultivate fields. They are hard-working and hard-working, and they are very popular. Therefore, there are as many as 160 idioms containing ox. In the UK, people traditionally use horses for farming. Therefore, their feelings for the horse are deeper. For example, in China, there is a word called “Bragging”, but in the West it is expressed by “talk horse”.

3) Tiger: In Chinese culture, the tiger is the king of beasts, a representative of bravery and authority. There are as many as 180 idioms about tigers. In Western culture, the status of tigers is often replaced by lions, such as “King-Richard the lion-hearted”.

4) Rabbit / Hare: In China, the rabbit is a symbol of good and meek; in the West, the rabbit refers to a cute little animal with a smooth hair and short tail. Rabbits have the same meaning in Eastern and Western cultures.

5) Dragon: In China, the dragon is the totem of the Chinese nation. It refers to the outstanding and extraordinary characters. In the calligraphy works, the “Dragon” also describes the calligraphy works vividly and imposingly, and the style is free and easy, for example, “Wang Xianzhi, a famous 4th century Chinese calligrapher, wrote a whole piece of characters with the twist and turn of a single continuous movement of the brush like that of dragons and snakes.” In the Western countries, in the New Testament, the dragon is portrayed as the evil “devil” and “Satan”, often equated with evil. The dragon has the opposite meaning in the Eastern and Western
cultures.

6) Snake: In Chinese culture, snake means cold, bloody and sinister, and it is a horrible image; in Western culture, snakes are also representatives of evil and ungratefulness. The meaning of snakes in the Eastern and Western cultures is basically the same.

7) Horse: In the Chinese culture, the horse is a symbol of hard work, courage, and aggressiveness. There are as many as 180 idioms about horses. In Western countries, horses are used as plowing grounds or used for competitions. The meaning of horses in Eastern and Western cultures is not exactly the same.

8) Goat / Sheep: In Chinese culture, sheep are weak and docile animals. There are about 60 idioms about sheep in Chinese. In English, “sheep” refers to people who are at the mercy of people, timid and weak, and contain “goat”. The idioms refer to people who are stupid and lascivious. The meaning of sheep in Eastern and Western cultures is not exactly the same.

9) Monkey: In China, monkeys are very popular because of their naughty, alert and lively characters. In the West, the cultural connotations of monkeys are similar, and they refer to the naughty children or the people who are being played.

10) Cock: In Chinese culture, cock has always symbolized auspiciousness, trustworthiness and punctuality. There are about 130 idioms about chicken in Chinese idioms. In the West, “cock” has three meanings, one of which is a proud attack. The second stands for the leader; the third is the person who is arrogant and brazen. The meaning of chicken in Eastern and Western cultures is not exactly the same.

11) Dog: In China, if the dog is simply a pet, it is a symbol of love, but if placed in a fixed idiom, the dog’s status is relatively low, and the idioms containing the dog are more derogatory; in the West, the status of the dog Higher. The meaning of dogs in Eastern and Western cultures is not consistent.

12) Pig / Boar: Pigs have the same meaning in Eastern and Western cultures and are symbols of laziness, stupidity and greed.

CONCLUSION

Language is the carrier of culture. In addition to body language, people who use different languages can only rely on translation to exchange information. In different countries and regions, people’s ways of thinking, values and customs have their own characteristics. Therefore, in cross-cultural translation (from Chinese to English) of historical texts, there is a significant impact of cultural factors. If the translator want to accurately decode the content of the original text, they must first accurately understand the cultural connotation of idioms in the source language. When translating Chinese Zodiacs, traditional diets and social customs, it’s better to focus more on the semantic connotation of culture rather than the surface meaning of each literary words. The translator should not only be faithful to the words, but also thoroughly understand the cultural laws behind the words, comprehensively consider the cognitive ability of the target readers, and select appropriate translation strategies such as transliteration, literal translation and free translation.

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International students’ attitude towards use of Malay language in communicative discourse

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ABSTRACT
The population of international students in Malaysia is undeniably soaring upwards and the University Putra Malaysia is no exception. Statistically, as in 2018, more than 170,000 international students from 163 countries were studying in Malaysian institutions of learning. As part of the basic requirements for graduation in Malaysian higher institutions of learning, international students should study ‘Basic Malay Skills’. However, there are widespread beliefs about the attitudes of international students towards learning and use of Malay Language, but these beliefs are not proven by scientific research. This study aims to examine international students’ attitudes towards Malay language. The study also hopes to find out whether there is correlation between students’ gender and their attitude. In achieving this, the study employs quantitative approach in data collection and data analysis. The study sampled 100 international students, who were enrolled into postgraduate programs, for the study. A survey questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents who took part in the study. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse data. The findings reveals that international students have positive attitudes toward Malay language.

KEYWORDS: Positive Attitude, Negative Attitude, Motivation, Gender, Learning Situation

INTRODUCTION
Statistic has proved that more than 170,000 international students from 163 countries of the world have been studying in various Malaysian higher institutions of learning (APAIE, 2018). However, international students are obliged to study Basic Malay Skills as part of necessary requirement for graduation in the program offered. This is in conformity with section 23 of the Malaysian education act. The section has clearly spelled out that where the core language of instructions is different from the country’s national language, the students shall be taught national language as compulsory subject in the education (Saran, 2002). Perhaps, this is a measure taken to ensure that Malay is not neglected in Malaysia, being the national language. Also, it might have been incorporated into higher education curricular to help international students to interact and communicate in Malay with Malay speakers effectively. Students’ ability to appropriately and effectively communicate in international situation on the basis of their intercultural skill knowledge, and attitude can help develop global understanding and intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2006). When the international students are taught the language of the host countries and engage them with the host community outside the class, this would provide them opportunities for authentic language and culture learning (Artamonova, 2017). Nevertheless, there is a growing concern and mixed feelings on the compulsory study of Basic Malay Skills for international students studying in Malaysian higher institutions of learning

Language attitude has been a subject of much systematic investigation in the area of sociolinguistics. The theory of language attitude provides useful account of how attitude is categorised. According to Baker (1992) three components are identified. These consist of Behavioural, Cognitive and Affective. Cognitive component represents thoughts, ideas and beliefs, often on the basis of one’s knowledge or information about an attitude object (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993, 2007). This component entails that attitude is not born but learned phenomenon. Therefore, individuals are not born with attitude but learn it through social interactions. This instigates individual to think or react favourably or unfavourably depending on attitudinal object. Cognitive component is often viewed as ‘opinion’ (Ahn, 2014). Affective component on the other hand, refers to individual’s feelings and emotions toward an object attitude. This component has been considered a focal area of attention in attitudinal studies (Abu-Rabia, 1993, Ahn, 2014). Conversely, Behavioural component refers to an intention or predisposition of an individual to act in a certain ways with regard to an attitude object. It can therefore be deduced that attitude can shape individual’s responses on the attitude object which consequently affect the attitude.

Midraj (1998) observes that various studies support the overview for the existence of positive correlations between learners’ positive attitudes and successful language learning. This argument is in congruent with Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N., & Moorcroft, R. (1985) where they perceive that there exist a significant association between attitudes and learning a second language. They also stresses that some kinds of attitudes
are more dominant than others. Therefore, language classroom experiences influence learners’ attitudes toward the languages, people and cultures of the host community (Fisher & Evans, 2000, Chan & Seong, 2011). According to Gardner et al. (1985), students who develop more positive and possess keen interest in the material can strive hard to acquire it. In the same vein, Brown (1994) support this point of view as he states that learners of second language profit from positive attitudes whereas negative attitudes could result in declined motivation. This can be inferred that attitudes toward the learning situation would ease or hinder language learning (Cortes, 2002). It should be noted that studies of language attitude are of utmost importance as they do not only influence learning, but are also significant in the development of intercultural competence. Literature has shown that majority of language attitude studies were conducted on Indo-European languages especially English and Spanish. Similar studies have to be undertaken on Asia-Pacific languages such as Malay to fill the missing gap and to provide additional justifications of the previous findings. Hence, this study aims to:

1. Examine whether international students produce positive or negative attitudes to learning and use of Malay language in their communicative discourse.
2. Find out whether there is a significant difference between attitude of man and woman toward Malay language.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Their age ranged from 26 to 45. The participants were taught compulsory Basic Malay Skills and have passed the course. The study was undertaken in the form of survey, with data being gathered via questionnaires. The study adopted and adapted Artamonova, (2017) Language Attitudes Questionnaire for Language Learners consisting three attitude sub-scales. These include: Socio-cultural appeal, Language learning experience, and Value of multilingualism. Reliability coefficient was calculated using Cronbach alpha at .809. The participants completed the questionnaire that contains 24 items using 5 points Likert scale.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Study participants were 100 post-graduate international students of Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) out of which 75 were male and 25 were female. The study employed descriptive statistics to calculate the overall attitudes of the participants toward Malay language. The result shows that participants both male and female have slightly positive attitudes to the language in question. Moreover, the outlook of the result indicates difference in the attitude of both genders. This necessitated the study to run t-test to identify whether there is significant differences between them. Based on the results of independent samples t-test, p-value was 0.98, since the significant value was greater than alpha at .05 level of significance, there was not adequate proof to reject the null hypothesis. It can be deduced that there is no significant difference between students’ attitudes according to their gender.

The most noticeable finding to arise from the study is that participants develop positive attitude to learning and use of Malay language. This finding broadly supports the literature in this area showing the correlation between attitude and motivation, and important function they perform in language learning (Gardner et al., 1985). Being the participants are those who passed through the Basic Malay Skills course, it is not far from the fact that their favourable motivation has influenced their attitude to Malay language which in turn resulted in passing such a course. This study has generated results which support the findings of a number of the previous works in language attitude (Artamonova, 2017). Their positive attitude can be linked to the increased confidence and improved Malay skills as they felt they invested more efforts into learning and were rewarded during the experience.

CONCLUSION

The international students have positive attitude to not only Malay language learning, but also Malay speakers and Malay cultures, and this may influence their understanding of the language. There is no significant difference between attitudes of male and that female toward the Malay language as they both have the same positive attitudes. The implication of this result indicates that the teachers of Malay Basic Skills should henceforth strive hard to use appropriate method of teaching that inculcates interest and facilitates proper understanding of the language as the results indicate that participants’ responses are slightly greater than the cut-off point between positive and negative attitudes. Otherwise, international students would be demotivated and the resultant effect is for them to show negative attitude to Malay language and native speakers.
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The effectiveness of Abstract Writing Checklist on writing a highly successful abstract by postgraduate students

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ABSTRACT

Clearly an abstract plays a key role in providing a synopsis of a study to editors and readers and encouraging them to read the paper. This qualitative study aimed at exploring the effect of using an abstract writing checklist on writing successful abstracts by a group of 27 MA students at a public university in Malaysia. An abstract writing checklist was developed by the researchers based on Hyland’s (2000) rhetorical move framework. The students were an intact group of postgraduate students majoring in Applied Linguistics. They were prompted to write 250-word abstracts for intended submission to an international conference. After two weeks, they were briefed on the abstract writing checklist. This briefing session took no more than 30 minutes of going through the items of the checklist with the course lecturer (the second author) who answered the questions raised by the students. Then, the students were given two weeks to revise their abstracts following the checklist. The two drafts of the abstracts were compared qualitatively and the results indicated improvements in students’ writing. The results show that self-assessment checklists help ESL learners improve the quality of their academic writing.

KEYWORDS: Abstracts, Academic writing, Self-assessment checklists

INTRODUCTION

In education, according to Parkin, Hepplestone, Holden, Irwin and Thorpe (2012), teacher feedback is considered important as it informs students and facilitates their learning. But, according to Parkin et al. (2012), the problem is that teacher feedback does not always play its intended role because most students:

i. do not pay attention to teacher feedback;
ii. b) do not spend time on revising their work; and
iii. c) fail to understand the given feedback.

Additionally, most teachers find giving feedback time-consuming but the annoying part of the story is when students largely neglect the teacher feedback (Laryea, 2013). Finally, there is empirical evidence that teacher feedback can damage students’ identity since some of them are not good at receiving critical comments (Sargeant, McNaughton, Mercer, Murphy, Sullivan, & Bruce, 2011).

These problems hinder students’ progress. In such cases, self-assessment seems to be a useful alternative. Self-assessment reportedly facilitates students’ development when they are formally trained how to self-assess (McDonald, 2007).

In their academic endeavor, postgraduate students frequently need to write abstracts. Writing a comprehensive and engaging abstract is a challenge even for experienced authors. It is easy to experience writers’ block in writing abstracts. Therefore, it is important to provide them with tools and strategies to help them write abstracts. This study aimed at exploring the effect of using an abstract writing checklist on a group of postgraduate students’ writing abstracts in a public university in Malaysia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A self-assessment checklist was developed by the researchers based on Hyland’s (2000) framework. The checklist included 6 moves, namely, introduction, purpose, method, product, conclusion. The participants recruited for this study were 27 English MA Applied Linguistics students who wrote abstracts for intended submission to an international conference. Their first draft were collected. After they were briefed on the checklist, they were given two weeks to revise their first drafts. The researchers qualitatively compared the quality of the two drafts written by each student according to Hyland’s (2000) framework.

RESULTS

The results indicated considerable differences between the first and second drafts of the abstracts written by the students. The problems that were observed in the first drafts are listed below:

- The first drafts were often too lengthy.
They were not concise.

Some students structured their abstracts in two to four paragraphs rather than a single paragraph.

In some abstracts only three moves were mentioned, namely, result, introduction and conclusion. In some others, only two moves were mentioned, namely, conclusion and method.

The position of the moves were wrong in some abstracts. Most of the students started their abstracts with methodology and a few others with results.

The most frequently ignored move was conclusion.

References were cited in most of the abstracts.

After the checklist was introduced to the students, the following changes were noticeable in their second drafts:

- The abstracts were concise and more readable.
- All of five moves were included.
- All the moves were organized in a correct order in a single paragraph.
- Unless absolutely necessary, there were no citations in the abstracts.

The results seem to suggest that the learners found the self-assessment checklist helpful in revising their abstracts.

**DISCUSSION**

Our results are in line with those of Saberi, Mashohor and Abdullah (2017) who investigated the usefulness of their Online Abstract Checker Application. Their results showed that on average the participants rated the software as highly useful (4.57 out of 5). Likewise, in a study on the effectiveness of self-assessment, Kim (2015) found that the self-assessment devices used in the treatment helped students become receptive toward criticism about their work, find the teacher feedback useful and successfully revise their work. Garcia (2011) carried out a case study on how Second Language (L2) learners in a composition classroom understood and used self-assessment activities. The results showed L2 writers tried to negotiate how they viewed self-assessment. A very compelling finding in this study was to observe how some of the interviewed students did not think certain types self-assessment provided them with a space to engage in negotiations with their instructor. They reported that self-assessment plays a key role in effective language learning.

**CONCLUSION**

To conclude, the analysis of the students’ abstracts indicated that the abstract writing checklist was useful in helping them as novice writers write successful and well-organized abstracts. As the results of this study indicate, self-assessment checklists help student writers in revising and organizing their abstracts. Therefore, language teachers are encouraged to adopt these materials in similar cases.

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An Investigation of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Among Chinese Postgraduate Students in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT
Language learning strategy (LLS) plays a significant role in second language acquisition. Plenty of research has been done on English learning strategy among different level of students in China. However, there are not enough studies conducted among postgraduate students and in overseas background. This paper aims to investigate strategy in learning English among Chinese postgraduate students at a university in Malaysia. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was applied to assess the use of language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990). The findings indicated that the sample of students were medium users of learning strategy and LLS use did not differ in gender, age, duration of study in Malaysia, programs and disciplines.

KEYWORDS: Language learning, Strategy, Postgraduate students, SILL

INTRODUCTION
Learning strategies have a very important impact on English learning performance. Foreign studies on language learning strategies began in the 1960s and study of English learning strategies in China started in the mid-1980s. Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategies as “learners’ actions to make learning easier, faster, more effective and more transferable to new situations”. Therefore, language learning strategies are referred to skills that learners use to facilitate their comprehension, practice and internalization in the second or foreign language. A great number of studies were conducted via administering Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) designed by Oxford (1990). Chamot (2001) suggested that by investigating second language learners’ strategies used during their learning, we can obtain the insights into language learning from cognitive, social and affective aspect. Furthermore, weak learners are expected to succeed in language learning when instructions of strategies are provided to them.

SILL instrument is comprised of fifty items which are under six categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Leaners’ use of these sub-strategies varied in studies. Mullins’s (1992) study revealed high use of cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies and medium use of the memory, affective and social strategies by investigating 110 Thai university EFL students. Bedell and Oxford (1996) found compensation strategy was used most frequently and the strategy used least was memory among 353 Chinese EFL students. Peacock (2001) used the same instrument with 140 students from different faculties in a Hong Kong university and findings showed that cognitive and compensation were mainly used by students and those from different faculties resorted to different strategies. Peacock & Ho’s (2003) study explored the association between strategy use, English proficiency, gender and age across eight disciplines in a Hong Kong university. He found positive correlation with 27 strategies with English proficiency, that older students used affective and social strategies more, and female students inclined to memory and metacognitive strategies. Tseng’s (2010) study investigated the LLS applied by advanced EFL learners in Taiwan. The findings showed that those students were high users of the overall strategies and more advanced learners used more strategies in language learning. The gender and different programs did not contribute to the strategies use for those learners.

The previous studies paid much attention to investigate the most frequently used categories, the relation between strategy use and L2 proficiency, gender and strategy use and students’ program and strategy use. The review of Wei and Cai (2018) concluded that there lacks study on language learning strategy use among Chinese postgraduates as well as overseas students. Based on the studies mentioned above, the present research focused on the strategy used for language learning among China postgraduate students in Malaysia. There are four questions to be investigated as follows:

1. What is the use of language learning strategy (LLS) among Chinese postgraduate students?
2. Do gender, age, duration of study, program and discipline affect LLS use?

MATERIALS AND METHODS
The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL version 7.0 for ESL/EFL learners, 50 items), a self-report questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990), was administered to assess participants’ use of language
learning strategies. A large number of studies applied SILL and assessed its reliability and validity. A report by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) proved its consistent high reliability coefficients from .85 to .98 and showed high internal reliability. Besides it is also found the high validity in content and construct. In SILL, 50 items are divided into six categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Participants reported their use of strategies on a five-point Likert scale, with the answer ranging from never to always. Oxford (1990) defined the strategy use into three levels: low use (1.0-2.4), medium use (2.5-3.4) and high use (3.5-5.0). A background questionnaire was added including questions of participants’ demographic information such as gender, age, program enrolled, discipline and study duration in Malaysia. Besides, the whole questionnaires were translated to Chinese language to rule out any ambiguity for participants’ convenience.

Currently, there are 165 students pursuing postgraduate programs from different disciplines in a public university in Malaysia for the first semester 2019 academic year. Their English proficiency is at least overall 6.0 scores in IELTS (academic) since it is also the minimum language requirement of the university for international students to start their postgraduate courses. Thus, all of them are regarded as competent users of English. Invitation to participate the study was sent to all Chinese postgraduate students online. Data collection took one week and finally 121 responses of students from three faculties (business, education and language) were found suitable to be used in the study. Those participants’ age ranged from 22-42 years old, having studied in Malaysia from 2 months to 6 years.

Descriptive statistics were performed to all SLLL items and independent t-tests were conducted to investigate if there are significant differences between strategies use and gender, age and program. One-Way ANOVA was performed to find if there is significant difference between strategies use and participants’ duration of study in Malaysia (from one to six years).

After testing the reliability, the Cronbach’s alpha of .94 showed that the reliability of the instrument was very high and corresponded to previous studies. Data in this study were normal since skewness and Kurtosis values were between ±2 (George & Mallery, 2003).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Overall Strategy Use
Based on the descriptive statistics performed for data analysis, the participants were found to be medium strategy users (M=3.45). The most frequent component of strategies used was compensation (M=3.64), followed by metacognitive (M=3.55), cognitive (M=3.52), social (M=3.52), affective (M=3.25) and the least frequent one was memory (M=3.21).

B. Gender
From the results of two-sample test, we can conclude that there was no significant difference between male (N=41) and female (N=80) participants using overall and sub-strategies.

C. Age
Younger participants (22-29 years old) and elder participants (above 30 years old) did not have significant difference in using strategies in learning. We concluded that age did not influence the overall strategy use among the participants.

D. Duration of Study in Malaysia
The results showed that there was no significant difference between the duration of study in Malaysia and participants strategy using. Students’ length of study overseas did not contribute to their use of strategy in English learning.

E. Program and Discipline
Master (N=80) and PhD students (N=60) did not have a significant difference in strategies use during English learning. It is can be concluded programs did not affect their using strategies. In addition, there was no significant difference using strategies among students from faculty of business, education and language. We can also conclude that disciplines did not contribute to participants strategy use in their English learning.

DISCUSSION

The findings of overall strategy use correspond to a part of Bedell and Oxford’s (1996) study where compensation was found the most frequently used category. Since these participants were no longer beginners of English learning, they would stop using strategies such as writing diary, using flash cards and gesturing new words. Instead, they are more likely to infer words by relating to what they learned before. However, they should pay more attention to review as well as practice for actual use. Tseng’s (2010) research also indicated that male and female students had no significant difference in learning strategies use and he also found programs enrolled and experience study abroad did not contribute to learners’ strategy use. It could be
explained that since the learners reached certain age or academic level, for example, when pursuing master or PhD after completing their degree, their age and program may not be influential factors to English learning strategy. Besides, since all participants were from social science cluster, their use of strategy was more likely to be similar.

CONCLUSION
The findings of present study showed that Chinese postgraduate students in a Malaysian public university were medium user of language learning strategies. Their strategy use did not differ by age, gender, duration of study overseas, program and disciplines enrolled. They were suggested to review and apply what they learned more often. In the future, studies may use larger sample and compare those students’ detailed proficiency with their strategy use.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

The global demand for economic development and integration, made it compulsory to create sustainable ways for surviving as an entrepreneurial, so as to create employment opportunities, bring social and rural economic development and encourage creativity. On the other hand the Arabic schools are in massive needs for such entrepreneurial skills in order to develop Nigeria economically and socially. Efforts had been intensified by Nigerian government and other stake holders to introduce courses of such kind and nature in colleges and other institutions of learning in that nation at large, but never the less, this effort is incomplete if it is not introduced to Arabic schools, more especially in the language that can be understood by Arabic students. For that, the research intends to focus on Arabic based entrepreneurial skills for easy and wide understanding of entrepreneurship for Arabic schools in Nigeria at large. Therefore, this study has been carried out in some selected Colleges and higher institutions of learning within Zamfara and neighboring States in western zone of Nigeria, in order to investigate the Arabic Students’ Perception of Entrepreneurship Education and Entrepreneurial Skills. Thus, to identify opportunities that can create profit or small scale businesses. By so doing, employment opportunities can be created for Arabic students in Nigerian colleges and higher institutions of learning, so that social and rural economic development could be brought and creativity could be encouraged among them.

KEYWORDS: Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneur, Development, Skills, Economic

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is an instrument for social and economic transformation and development. On the other hand, Entrepreneurship education is a form of education which makes humans to be responsive to their personal, families, national needs and aspirations. Entrepreneurship education is about developing attitudes, behaviors and capacities at the individual level. It is also about the application of those skills and attitudes that can take many forms during an individual’s career, creating a range of long-term benefits to society and the economy. The concept of entrepreneurship education according to Anho (2011) is associated with various activities herein stated but not limited to the following: Innovation, creativity, risk taking, initiative, visionary, focus, determination, team-spirit, resourcefulness, financial control, self-confidence versatility, knowledgeable, dynamic thinking, optimum disposition, originality, people oriented, flexible in decision, responses to suggestions and criticism, need achievement driven, profit oriented, persistent and persevering, energy for hard work, adjustment to challenges and future looking. The research aim is to investigate possible ways of small handwork in different methods, and also find possible solutions for the Arabic students in Arabic secondary schools and colleges of higher learning as their earn for sustainable life. The research work basically focused on Arabic secondary schools and colleges, governmental and non-governmental (Private) in Zamfara state and other neighboring states in Nigeria. This research have undergone through some questions which include: Is there any difference between Arabic students attitude toward entrepreneurial skills development and their intention in developing entrepreneurial skills? Is there difference in Arabic students’ commitment and intention toward development of entrepreneurial skills? Does perceived relevance of entrepreneurial skills development of Arabic students differs from their intention in developing entrepreneurial skills in Nigeria? Did the level of satisfaction of entrepreneurial skills development of Arabic students differs from their intention in developing entrepreneurial skills? Did gender of Arabic students has any relationship or influence in their intention of entrepreneurial skills development? Five null hypothesis were created also based on these RQ. The Significance of this study cannot be overemphasized. The findings of the research will be of greater help to Arabic students, particularly in Zamfara state and Nigeria at large. This is because as was indicated earlier, that the study will be based for Arabic Students. Likewise, it will also help the Federal Ministry of Education, its sub division, NGOs and relevant stakeholders as well as colleges and other higher institutions of learning in the country. This study will contribute significantly to the researchers that may wish to carry out similar work in the future. The study purposely focused on Arabic schools, small scale industrial places and handwork owners for sample selection. Therefore, the research found out possible ways to create entrepreneurial Skills
and also looked at the possible measures to be taken in order to eradicate Unemployment and encourage the Arabic Students to be self-reliant.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

120 people were sampled randomly from Arabic Schools in Zamfara and above mentioned States in northern part of Nigeria. The instrument used in this research for collection of data comprises the prominent method, i.e. questionnaire method. Questionnaire instrument has been distributed and collected by the research assistants after the instrument was administered. The reason for using the method as a source for data collection is because the research is based on the behavior of people towards the Entrepreneurial Skills for Arabic Students. Therefore, two parts of questionnaire has been used in collecting data from the respondents concerned. (Part: A of the questionnaire contains Bio-Data, such as age, sex, marital status and occupational status. While Part: B contains research variables). The research needs information from both primary and secondary sources. The primary source entails information collected from the respondents, using questionnaire method base on the topic of study. While secondary source on the other hand entails information obtained from journals, text books periodic publication and internet, e. t. c. The drafted and designed questionnaire was shown to research experts before distributing, and it was considered valid, consistent, reliable and okay for the research. On the other hand, a descriptive statistics was used for the analysis of data.

RESULTS

Paired sample t – test was run using SPSS version 20.0 to test the first four hypotheses formulated earlier in this paper. In doing that the researcher tested the hypothesis one after the other with the total number of one hundred Arabic students in Nigeria as follows:

(H01): Paired sample t – test was conducted to test the above null hypothesis (H01) with the total number of students (N = 99), out of 100 collected Questionnaires, the attitude (Mean = 3.538, SD = .9256 & N = 99) and intention (Mean = 3.971, SD =1.0790 & N = 99).

The t- test was statistically significant at α = .05 t = 3.354, P = .001 thus there is statistically significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

(H02): Paired sample t – test was conducted to test the above null hypothesis (H02) with the total number of students (N = 99), the commitment (Mean = 2.769, SD = .9411 & N = 99) and intention (Mean = 3.971, SD =1.0790 & N = 99).

The t- test was statistically significant at α = .05 df = 98, t = 7.956, P = .000 (2 – tailed) thus there is statistically significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

(H03): Paired sample t – test was conducted to test the above null hypothesis (H03) with the total number of students (N = 99), the perceived relevance (Mean = 3.025, SD = .6046 & N = 99) and intention (Mean = 3.971, SD =1.0790 & N = 99).

The t- test was statistically significant at α = .05, df = 98, t = 7.719, P = .000 (2 – tailed) thus there is statistically significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

(H04): Paired sample t – test was conducted to test the above null hypothesis (H04) with the total number of students (N = 99), the perceived relevance (Mean = 2.815, SD = .6447 & N = 99) and intention (Mean = 3.971, SD =1.0790 & N = 99).

The t- test was statistically significant at α = .05, df = 98, t = 9.520, P = .000 (2 – tailed) thus there is statistically significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

DISCUSSION

In conclusion, from the above analysis all the five formulated null hypotheses were rejected at 95% confidence level indicating that there exist significant difference in the attitude, commitment, perceived relevance and satisfaction of Arabic students toward entrepreneurial skills development and their intention of developing entrepreneurial skills in Nigeria and there is also significant difference in terms of gender of Arabic students’ and their intention in developing entrepreneurial skills in Nigeria.

CONCLUSION

Some of the recommendations derived from the research include the following:

- Funding of entrepreneurship education should be taken seriously by the federal government. This can be achieved through increase in the budgetary allocation to the educational sector.
- Entrepreneurship education should be inculcated into the school’s curriculum Arabic schools included, in order to promote human empowerment and development through entrepreneurial skill acquisition. It is a means of reducing unemployment since it is skilled oriented and employment motivated.
- The private partners and Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) should be encouraged to participate in entrepreneurship education in all schools of learning, through funding or any relevant contribution.
The youth in Arabic schools should shun joblessness and criminality through the cultivation of entrepreneurial spirit and acquisition of relevant skills that will launch them into enterprise greatness and economic independence.

REFERENCES
The Influence of L1 Orthography and Word Study Approach on the L2 Orthography among Arab Learners

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ABSTRACT
The complication of the spelling system poses difficulties to the second language (L2) learners, particularly Arab learners. Orthographic problems among Arab school students received little attention in English spelling research. Therefore, this study has aimed to examine the relationship between L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) spelling performances and identify the effect of the Word Study approach. Pre- and post-tests were administrated. The sample comprised 60 fourth grade female and male students who hailed from Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur. The data were analyzed and interpreted using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results revealed a relationship between the L1 and L2 writing spelling performance and demonstrated a significant difference in mean scores after the implementation of the treatment.

KEYWORDS: Orthography, Word Study approach, Arab learners

INTRODUCTION
Spelling is defined as a complex competence in organizing letters of a certain language in an accurate order to create meaningful words. It requires various skills such as phonology, morphology, semantics, a good knowledge of spelling rules, and visual memory (Al-Sobhi, 2017). It is essential for young learners to be exposed to spelling corrections during their schooling years, as spelling helps a child to develop a solid connection between graphemes and their sounds. Hence, young learners can also increase their literacy by learning words that aren’t simply sounded out (Alsaawi, 2015). Arab learners as ESL learners face many difficulties while learning English, especially on English spelling words. This problem has created many challenges for them in mastering English spelling (Jayusi, & Thaher, 2011). Allaith (2011) stated that the numbers of English spelling errors that are made by children are mainly related to the difference between the L1 and L2 sound systems. Consequently, the learners must learn the different sources of word knowledge such as semantic, phonological, morphological, and orthographic knowledge.

ESL Arabic speakers from most of the Arab countries appear to produce more English word spelling errors than other non-native speakers of English who alphabetically differ from Roman writing system (Deacon, 2015). According to Al-Shahrani (2013), the alphabetical system of the first language has an influence on the spelling of English as a second language, and this study looks into the effects of L1 phonological and orthographical systems on English spelling. The study proved that L2 learners come with their own phonemic and graphemic knowledge in an attempt to apply them in the L2 writing system and this automatically affects their spelling performance. Furthermore, Al-Haq & Al-Sobh, (2010), Al-Shahrani (2013) and Al-Humaidi, (2015) claimed that the spelling competence of ESL Arab speakers may refer to their traditional approaches used in their educational system in schools. To the researcher’s knowledge, limited studies have been carried out to analyze the performance of Arab learners in their L1 spelling. In addition, the educational systems of Arab-speaking learners are still based on traditional rote learning at schools and there is little in terms of updated teaching methodologies in these systems (Rosie Norman & Al Rabai, 2014). In light of this, the present study wishes to fill in this gap by acquiring new insights into the spelling difficulties faced by ESL Arab learners in their first stages at school as well as to examine the possible influences of L1 (Arabic) orthographic performance on L2 (English) spelling performance among Arab learners which is carried out by adopting a Word study Instruction Approach to improve their writing spelling skill.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
The quasi-experimental approach was implemented as the design of this study. The research employed a purposive sampling approach when choosing the participants. For the purpose of this study, the researcher purposively selected the Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur as this is the only school that immerses English as a part of their curriculum in Malaysia. The school allowed carrying out the research on 60 learners from the fourth grade and these learners consisted of boys and girls aged 10 to 12 years old who divided into two classes that had equivalent numbers of learners, balanced in genders and also their academic achievements.
The pre-test (spelling test) was given in the first week to both control and experimental groups in two languages (Arabic and English). The scores from the pre-test were utilized to see the basic levels of the participants in the two languages before conducting the treatment, while the scores from the post-test (English spelling test) in the last week were carried out to discover whether the implemented Word Study Instruction was an alternated approach that could affect the experimental group. The researcher was given six periods per week for the duration of 10 weeks according to the school schedule and the researcher’s limited time. The two classes, one for the control group and the other for the experimental group were taught by the researcher. The pre-test was analyzed by measuring the scores using descriptive statistics. Pearson correlation was conducted to study the relationship between spelling performance in Arabic language and English language. A paired sample t-test was run for the experimental group in order to see the significant difference in terms of the students spelling performances in English after the approach has been implemented. In addition, an independent sample t-test was made to compare the two independent scores of the two groups.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the pre-test results more errors were found in English writing in comparison to the Arabic writing. The results from the Arabic writing test were discussed in terms of means and frequencies. The overall frequency of the students spelling errors was 403. Among all the errors identified, the letter geminate category was the most frequent, with a percentage of 74.16% followed by the errors of letter omission, which made up 54.58%. This confirms the findings of some studies (Alsawwai, 2015; Al-Busaidi, 2015; Al-Sobhi, 2017) which indicated that most of the Arab ESL students made spelling errors due to letter geminate and letter omission. Another study confirmed that letter omission was the second largest type of errors (Brosh, 2015). However, the result of letter insertion in this study constituted the least common errors found in the writing spelling with the percentage of 39.16%.

In English writing test, the whole frequency of the students ‘spelling errors was 505. Among all the errors demonstrated, the letter transposition was the highest frequency, with a percentage of 75.83% followed by the errors of the letter substitution that made up 59.16%. This result confirms the findings of some of the previous studies (Kareema, 2013; Kusuran, 2017; Deacon, 2017) who claimed that most of ESL Arab students committed spelling errors due to the letter transposition and letter substitution which are both considered the most common errors that L2 students make. However, both letter omission and insertion constituted the least common errors found in writing with the percentage of 27.08% and 48.33%, respectively.

The two similar major types of the spelling errors which were found in the English and Arabic languages were omission and insertion. Both errors represented the second largest categories of the spelling errors that were done by the Arabs students in the pre-test. Therefore, this result may prove the possibility of negative transfer from the L1 Arabic language to the L2 English word spelling which causes many similar errors in the test. This is consistent with Skinner (1975) ideas that a child’s learning is affected by his past learning because the knowledge of L1 could facilitate the learning of L2.

The findings from the post-test show a difference in mean scores after the treatment had been implemented in the writing class. This perhaps supports the idea put forward by Word Study Instruction Approach that there is a need to develop orthographic word knowledge in order to improve writing plus spelling accuracy. The Pearson test results showed that an increase in L1 Arabic language spelling performance was moderately correlated with an increase in the L2 English language spelling performance which r is (.480) = 16%, p < .000, and this result supports the findings of past study by Isaac (2015), which indicated a positive moderate correlation between the L1 Arabic and Chinese performances and English word spelling.

The result from paired sample t-test exposed that students scored higher in Post English spelling test (M = 19.20, SD=2.05) than the Pre English test (M=17.10, SD=1.82), t (29) = -5.94, p=.000, thus, there is a significant increase in scores after the treatment had been implemented. While the result from the independent t-test showed that Arab students from experimental group scored slightly higher (M = 19.20, SD = 2.06) than control group (M = 16.47, SD = 2.21), t (58) = 4.96, p = .000, 95% CI [.163, 3.83]. Therefore, there was a statistically significant difference in mean scores between the two groups and this confirmed the findings in Jayousi & Thaher (2011) study which showed the significant effect of using spelling tasks among ESL Arab learners (grade 6 & 7) from the United Arab Emirates.

CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study is to examine and identify the possible influence of the L1 Arabic orthography on the L2 English word spelling among Arab native speakers who are learning English as a second language in their school where lack of word spelling instructions was considered as a big challenge for them to master the English writing skill. The present study was carried out based on four questions which support the research objectives. A quantitative (experimental) method was used to collect and analyze the data. The findings support the notion that L1 (Arabic) negative transfer across the L2 writing skills and these cause the errors. The usage of the new learning materials through Word Study Instruction Approach gained a positive result on the Arab
learners after the treatment, this supports the main aim of both theories of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Error Analysis that formulate learning materials which would help the second learners to avoid acquiring wrong habits that could be transferred from their native language experiences. The study recommends that learners of English as a second language should focus on the orthographic constituent of alphabetic knowledge in order to understand the rules of the particular language.

REFERENCES
Homonymy Related English Vocabulary Learning: Investigating the Difficulties of the third year Students

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ABSTRACT
Homonymy as a type of lexical relations between words is a significant linguistic phenomenon, which has received a lot of attention in recent years. English contains numerous homonymous forms with different meanings, which often cause confusion for the EFL/ESL learners. In line with that, this research was carried out primarily to investigate the linguistic difficulties of learning and teaching homonymy in English in the Yemeni context. Hence, this data-oriented descriptive study was designed to investigate the difficulties in learning using homonymous English words as the data of the study. A total sample of 80 third-year English major students and 20 of their teachers at the Faculty of Education, Aden, University of Aden were selected randomly as the subjects for this study. The qualitative and quantitative data required for this investigation were collected by employing two research instruments: a diagnostic test and a questionnaire. The major findings of the study revealed that phonological and orthographical identities of homonymic words, ‘unrelatedness’ of meanings, similarity in pronunciation, insufficient vocabulary size and knowledge, inadequate practice, poor focus in the course materials and stereo- typed teaching methodology contribute to learner difficulties with homonymy. Significantly, the survey of literature and the findings of this work would be a modest contribution to vocabulary teaching and learning with special reference to homonymy.

KEYWORDS: Ambiguity, homonymy, polysemy, lexical relations, vocabulary.

INTRODUCTION
In recent years, many studies have underscored the essential role that vocabulary plays in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition at all proficiency levels. Homonymy as a type of lexical relations between words is a significant linguistic phenomenon, which has received a lot of attention in recent years. English contains numerous homonymous forms with different meanings which often cause confusion for the EFL/ESL learners. "Homonyms present an interesting challenge for theories of word learning because learning a secondary meaning of a homonym differs fundamentally from learning a single-meaning word" (Storkel, H. and Maekawa, J. (2005:828). Because the meanings of homonyms are usually completely unrelated to one another, they are a fruitful source of ambiguity. In some rare but interesting cases, the two meanings of a homonym are opposites—as in cleave ‘split asunder’ and cleave ‘stick closely’. Some other related studies show that the differences between polysemy and homonymy, and the ways in which they are resolved in dictionaries, are obstacles to L2 learners in the process of acquiring vocabulary. Yanase, M. (2001), emphasized that the concepts as well as the criteria of classification of e polysemy and homonomy are not easy to understand for non-native speakers like the Japanese. In another study, Conklin (2005:152) found that L2 learners responded more quickly to words with multiple related senses than to words with multiple unrelated ones. As Hastrup and Henriksen (2000:222) point out, learning a word is not a linear process. For Graham, A. (2008:16) “this an important issue to consider with regard to homonymic acquisition which proofs that the psychological realities of vocabulary acquisition in an L2 increases the psychological demand that homonymy places on that acquisition process.” These statements make two points relevant to the EFL learner. First, the homonymic relations are an important part of the language to be mastered. Second, that it is an area, which seems to ‘resist’ tuition and, therefore, requires special, systematic attention. Having said that, three pertinent questions arise: What are the factors that influence the processing of homonymy? What kinds of homonymic information do learners need? And in what ways can such information facilitate learning? Since the three questions are interrelated, any attempt at answering one is bound to take the others into account. Very little work has been done on the problems and difficulties of teaching and learning of homonymy in Yemen even at the tertiary level. Hence an investigation into the sources and nature of and possible solutions to the problems of learning and using homonymous English words is necessary; this is what the proposed study aims to address directly.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

The present work is a data-oriented descriptive study. The qualitative and quantitative data required for this investigation were collected by employing two research instruments, a diagnostic test to be given to the subjects of the study, and a questionnaire to be given to the teachers concerned. The subjects were eighty third-year English major students of the Faculty of Education, Aden, University of Aden; all of them sat for the diagnostic test. They were selected randomly from groups 1, 2, and 3, the total strength of which was one hundred and twenty-nine. The subjects were presumed to constitute a homogenous representative group for the following reasons. They all shared the same L1 namely Arabic, and had very similar L2 background. Twenty teachers, were selected as respondents for the second research instrument viz., the questionnaire.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study focused on the problems of homonymy in relation to phonological and orthographical identities, ‘unrelatedness’ of meanings, the role of context, frequency of homonymic vocabulary, and knowledge of more and less familiar meanings of homophones and homographs. The results of the diagnostic test and the questionnaire provide some explanation for the students’ difficulties in processing English homonymy. It is evident from the results that the subjects had problems in both the broad areas of homonymy viz., homophony and homography. The subjects gave a variety of wrong meanings for the homographs, as it is difficult for them to perceive the distinct and unrelated meanings of such words; identical orthographic form only adds to their confusion. Phonological similarities of homonymic words can be considered as a more serious cause of students’ difficulties in processing homonyms; similarity in pronunciation is a powerful distracter leading them away from form-meaning relationship. The results of this present study are thus consistent with Zughoul (1991:52) in that "homonymy (both phonological and graphic similarities) complicates the form-meaning relationships in English and increases the learning burden of homonyms".

The surprising element in the results is that contextual clues in single sentences or a larger text seem not to be helpful to the subjects, no matter whether they dealt with homographs or homophones. Instead of aiding word comprehension, the clues appear to hinder it. This finding supports the claim that lexical processing depends heavily on the richness of the learners’ semantic and conceptual system (Fukkink, and Block, 2001).

Furthermore, the results indicate that the participants faced greater problems in processing low frequency homonyms than high frequency ones. This is in total conformity with what has been discussed that word frequency influences language processing; high frequency words are generally produced or recognized more accurately and more appropriately than low frequency words.

The learners’ incorrect answers in the data also suggest that a more important factor that might be linked to the use of homonymic words is learner motivation; the subjects were not, as the researcher observed, very much enthusiastic about taking the diagnostic test, when it was administered. This finding is in line with Brown (1987) that there is a strong relationship between the learners’ affective factors and their performance and academic achievement. The analysis of the data of the questionnaire and interpretation bring out clearly that there are three major causes of difficulty of processing homographs: (a) guessing a new meaning for an ambiguous familiar form (b) comprehending its less common meaning (c) Unfamiliarity with its different parts of speech, insufficient vocabulary size and knowledge, inadequate practice, and low learning motivation are three other minor causes.

CONCLUSION

Homonyms are one of the essential constructions in English vocabulary and a problematic area for the Yemeni EFL university learners. The results obtained by both tools, namely the diagnostic test and the questionnaire have revealed that Yemeni EFL university students have different levels of difficulties with homophonic words with or without sentential/textual contexts. The major findings of the study revealed that phonological and orthographical identities of homonymic words, ‘unrelatedness’ of meanings, similarity in pronunciation, insufficient vocabulary size and knowledge, inadequate practice, poor focus in the course materials and stereotyped teaching methodology contribute to learner difficulties with homonymy. The survey of literature and the findings of this work would be a modest contribution to vocabulary teaching and learning with special reference to homonymy.
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Primary School Teachers’ Readiness towards Heutagogy and Peeragogy

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ABSTRACT
Over the decades, education is seen as a pedagogical relationship between the teacher and the learner. Traditionally, what a learner needed to learn, what knowledge and skills that should be taught were always decided by a teacher. However, education has transformed and moved from pedagogy to different approaches namely andragogy, heutagogy and peeragogy, the newest approach to education to suit the needs of the society. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to identify primary school teachers’ acceptance of technology and to investigate their readiness towards Heutagogy and Peeragogy. This study also sought to identify possible demographic factors which may influence respondents’ readiness towards Heutagogy and Peeragogy. Data were collected from 48 primary teachers in a primary school in Malaysia using a survey and were analysed using descriptive statistics. The results showed that the in-service teachers have a very positive readiness towards technology in Education as well as using heutagogy approach and peeragogy approach in their teaching. The study about the teachers’ acceptance of technology, readiness towards Heutagogy and Peeragogy and the challenges faced are expected to provide useful information for the educators to provide support for future study.

KEYWORDS: heutagogy, peeragogy, ICT, education, peers learning, individual learning

INTRODUCTION
Education has undergone several revolutions through research for the past thirty years to review how people learn and how teaching could and should be provided (Kenyon & Hase, 2001). According to Jerald (2009), a broader set of “21st century skills” must be provided in school to the students in order to thrive in a rapidly evolving, technology-saturated world. Thus, changes are needed in education as it is argued that pedagogy in teacher education with little sense of the social, moral, and political aspects are not enough to prepare students to face challenges in the 21st century. Heutagogy and peeragogy are believed to be the newest approaches to uncover the most effective ways to do self-determined learning and collaborative learning, a new set of skills and competencies geared towards the 21st century and beyond. It is way easier to implement such teaching and learning in tertiary level. However, are the primary teachers ready for the changes? Can the primary teachers help the primary students to maximise their learning ability as well as to assist them to learn effectively themselves?

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Questionnaire has been distributed to 48 respondents to collect the data on SJKC Yuk Chyun’s Primary School Teachers’ Readiness towards Heutagogy and Peeragogy. The questionnaire’s questions were formulated and edited from the UTAUT questionnaire to reflect the area the study was focusing on. The structured questionnaire consists of a series of question sequences. There are 42 items all in total in the questionnaire. The questionnaire is basically divided into three sections, namely personal details, computer knowledge and Internet experience and UTAUT Model questions which including four main factors, namely performance expectancy (PE), effort expectancy (EE), social influence (SI), facilitating conditions (FC).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The data gathered are analyzed in term of frequency counts and percentage distribution. The findings are presented mainly in two parts, namely:
(i) The Demographic Data
(ii) Analysis of Data:
  - Research Question 1: What is the level of technology acceptance among SJKC Yuk Chyun’s primary school teachers.
  - Research Question 2: What is the level of readiness for heutagogy among SJKC Yuk Chyun’s primary school teachers.
  - Research Question 3: What is the level of readiness for peeragogy among SJKC Yuk Chyun’s primary school teachers.
school teachers.

**Research Question 1:**

Table 1: Distribution of respondent according to their computer knowledge and Internet experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How do you describe your general computer knowledge?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How would you describe your Internet knowledge?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How long have you been using the Internet?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t use</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 5 years</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How often do you use the Internet per day?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 hour</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 3 hours</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6 hours</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>43.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 6 hours</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Question 2 & Research Question 3:**

Table 2: Aspect 1: Performance Expectancy (PE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD or D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Using technology (ICT) in class enables to enhance my teaching in class.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using technology (ICT) would save teachers’ and learners’ time.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Using technology (ICT) would increase the quality of teaching and learning process.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Using heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) enables to enhance the learners’ learning process.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Using heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) would save learners’ and teachers’ time.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Using heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) would increase the</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
quality of teaching and learning process.

7. Using peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) enables to enhance the learners’ learning process.  8.33  8.33  75

8. Using peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) would save learners’ and teachers’ time.  8.33  8.33  75

9. Using peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) would increase the quality of teaching and learning process.

0   16.67  83.33

Note: SD=Strongly Disagree    D=Disagree    N=Neutral    A=Agree    SA=Strongly Agree

(ii) **Effort Expectancy (EE)**

Table 3: Aspect 2: Effort Expectancy (EE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>SD or D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A or SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Learning to technology (ICT) in class is easy.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>83.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using technology (ICT) in teaching and learning is easy.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It is easy for me to become skilful at using technology (ICT) in my teaching.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. By using technology (ICT) in teaching, I am able to teach easily in class.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Learning to apply heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in class is easy.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Using heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in teaching and learning is easy.</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>41.67</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. It is easy for learners to become skilful at using heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in my teaching.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54.55</td>
<td>45.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. By using heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in teaching and learning process, I am able to teach easily in class.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Learning to apply peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in class is easy.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Using peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in teaching and learning is easy.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. It is easy for learners to become skilful at using peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in my teaching</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. By using peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in teaching and learning process, I am able to teach easily in class.

Note: SD=Strongly Disagree  D=Disagree  N=Neutral  A=Agree  SA=Strongly Agree

(iii) Social Influence (SI)

Table 4: Aspect 3: Social Influence (SI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD or D  N  A or SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. People who are important to me think that I should use ICT in my teaching.</td>
<td>0  25  75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. People who influence my behaviour think that I should use ICT in teaching.</td>
<td>0  25  75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I would use ICT in my teaching if my friends and colleagues used them.</td>
<td>0  16.67 83.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Minister of Education encourages teachers to use ICT in class.</td>
<td>0  8.33 91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. People who are important to me think that I should use heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in my teaching.</td>
<td>0  41.67 58.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. People who influence my behaviour think that I should use heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in teaching.</td>
<td>0  41.67 58.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I would use heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in my teaching if my friends and colleagues used them.</td>
<td>0  41.67 58.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Minister of Education encourages teachers to use heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in class.</td>
<td>0  25  75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. People who are important to me think that I should use peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in my teaching.</td>
<td>0  25  75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. People who influence my behaviour think that I should use peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in teaching.</td>
<td>0  25  75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I would use peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in my teaching if my friends and colleagues used them.</td>
<td>0  16.67 83.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Minister of Education encourages teachers to use peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in class.</td>
<td>0  16.67 83.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(iv) Facilitating Conditions (FC)

Table 5: Aspect 4: Facilitating Conditions (FC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>SD or D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A or SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have the resources necessity to integrate ICT in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I have the knowledge necessity to integrate ICT in my teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>91.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. There is a specific person or group available for assistance with any technical problem I may encounter.</td>
<td>16.33</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td></td>
<td>75.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I have the resources necessity to integrate heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in class.</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I have the knowledge necessity to integrate heutagogy approach (self-directed learning) in my teaching.</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. There is a specific person or group available for assistance with any problem I may encounter regarding heutagogy approach.</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I have the resources necessity to integrate peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in class.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>81.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I have the knowledge necessity to integrate peeragogy approach (peer-to-peer learning) in my teaching.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. There is a specific person or group available for assistance with any problem I may encounter regarding peeragogy approach.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36.36</td>
<td></td>
<td>63.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The SJKC Yuk Chyun’s in service teachers have very positive attitudes towards technology in Education as well as using heutagogy approach and peeragogy approach in teaching and learning process. They show that they have certain amount of general knowledge of computer and the Internet. They also agreed that by using two approaches in class would increase the quality of learning. However, there are a small amount of students seem to be uncertain about the situation as they have nobody to refer to when they face any problems regarding the two approaches.

CONCLUSION

This study shows that the teachers on the whole show very positive attitudes and they are willing to understand and to explore heutagogy and peeragogy approaches in their teaching. In order to promote heutagogy and peeragogy approaches in class, the authority should provide sufficient facilities, materials, resources and help to the teachers nationwide. This would help to create interest and awareness among the teachers. On top of
that, teachers know who they should refer to if they have any problems regarding the approaches. The authority should be more supportive so that the teachers would not be discouraged if they face any difficulties and challenges when dealing with heutagogy and peeragogy approaches in their teaching.

REFERENCES
Acoustic similarity between Libyan Arabic vowels and English vowels

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E-mail: Kalthoum66@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
Previous studies have shown that the acoustic similarity between L1 and L2 vowels may predict the difficulties EFL learners faced in perception and production of L2 vowels. However, there is a lack of studies investigating the acoustic similarity between Arabic vowels and English vowels. This study examined the acoustic similarity between Libyan Arabic vowels and standard British English vowels. The study sample consisted of 10 native speakers of Libyan Arabic (5 males, 5 females) aged between 20-35 years old. They produced 450 stimuli that represent 8 Libyan vowels /iː, ɪ, e, æː, ʌː, ɔː, ʊ, uː/. These vowels were analyzed based on the first two formants (F1, F2) and then compared to English vowels reported in Deterding (1997). F1 and F2 values of the vowels in the words of these two languages were converted into a Bark scale. Euclidean Distance was calculated to determine the acoustic similarity between vowels. The results indicated that high front Libyan vowels are acoustically similar to English front vowels. Mid-front vowels were different across languages when produced by female speakers compared to male speakers. The same results were obtained for back vowels. These results of this analysis can be used to guide in the design and interpretation of results of speech perception studies on the same vowels by these speakers.

KEYWORDS: Vowels, Libyan Arabic, instrumental analysis, pronunciation

INTRODUCTION
Arab learners of English, particularly the adults, are often struggling to accurately produce English sounds, particularly English vowels. A number of studies revealed that Arab EFL learners have different difficulties in perceiving and producing English vowels (Al-Badawi and Salim, 2014; Khalil, 2014; Alshangiti, 2015; Al-Abdely and Yap, 2016; Ababneh, 2018). Flege, Bohn and Jang (1997) believed that learners’ experience with their first language (L1) is a key contributor to these difficulties. Many cross-language speech perception studies have focused only on perceptual similarity between native and non-native vowels (Best, Faber and Levitt, 1996; Hazan, 2007; Gilichinskaya and Strange, 2010; Chládková and Jonáš Podlipský; 2011; Escudero and Vasiliev, 2011). However, investigating and determining the acoustic similarity between native vowels and non-native vowels is a recent issue in speech perception studies. It is not easy to investigate the acoustic similarity between vowels across different languages. Acoustic similarity can be determined by comparing measures of several acoustic properties of vowels. By doing so, it is possible to objectively quantify how similar one vowel from one language is to the corresponding vowel in another language.

Furthermore, previous studies have shown that the acoustic similarity between L1 and L2 vowels may predict the difficulties EFL learners faced in perception and production of L2 vowels. Strange, Bohn, Trent, and Nishi (2004) assumed that cross language acoustic similarity can predict the perceptual similarity which in turn may lead to predict the difficulties faced American English learners of German. The results revealed that acoustic similarity of English and German vowels was not always a good predictor of perceptual similarity, particularly for new German front rounded vowels and for similar German mid front and back vowels. However, American listeners assimilated German vowels to American vowels based on the spectral similarity if the duration was overlapped with spectral similarity. In a more recent study, Escudero and Vasiliev (2011) examined the power of acoustic similarity in predicting the perceptual assimilation of Peruvian Spanish to Canadian French and Canadian English by a group of monolingual Spanish listeners. It was revealed that acoustic similarity between native and target language vowels was a very good predictor of context-specific perceptual mappings. Elvin, Escudero and Vasiliev (2014) found that cross language acoustic similarity successfully predicted the discrimination difficulty of Brazilian Portuguese vowels by Spanish and Australian listeners.

However, existing literatures on acoustic similarity between English and Arabic vowels may be very limited. Therefore, this paper aims to determine the acoustic similarity between English and Arabic vowels in order to be used in the future to predict the difficulties Arab learners of English may face in acquiring English vowels, particularly among Libyan learners of English.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

Participants: The participants are ten native speakers of Libyan Arabic (5 males, 5 females). Their age ranges between 20-35 years old. They are postgraduate students at Malaysian universities. In order to control the dialect effects, all of the participants were selected from the western part of Libya. They are similar in terms of their exposure to English in Libya. They reported normal speaking ability.

Stimuli: the stimuli are Libyan sentences that include words with target vowels. The target vowels are eight Libyan Arabic vowels /i:,i,e,æ,a,o,u,ʊ/. They were embedded in real mono-syllable words in a carrier sentence: (اكتب ... مرة ثانية) /Iktib… marra thanya/.

Procedure: The participants were asked to go through the list of the Libyan sentences to familiarize themselves with the target words. They were instructed to read in their normal speech speed and to read in Libyan dialect not standard Arabic. Their recordings were made in a very quiet room using PRAAT version 5.3.51 (Boersma and Weenink, 2015).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The spectral measurements of English vowels reported in Deterding (1997) for the two genders were used as references points. The recorded Libyan vowels were segmented and annotated using PRAAT. The first and second formant frequencies of each vowel were then taken at the midpoint of the vowels. The F1 and F2 values (in Hertz) of native and non-native vowels were converted into the auditory Bark scale to reduce variation among the speakers using Zwicker and Terhardt (1980) formula as shown in Table 1 and Table 2. The Euclidean distance was used to determine the acoustic similarity between the F1 and F2 of each L1 vowel and its L2 counterpart using the following formula:

\[ ED = \sqrt{(F_{12} - F_{11})^2 + (F_{22} - F_{21})^2} \]

Table 1. Euclidean Distance between English vowels and Libyan vowels as produced by male Libyan learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The vowel</th>
<th>F1(Hz)</th>
<th>F2(Hz)</th>
<th>F1(Bark)</th>
<th>F2(Bark)</th>
<th>distance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i:</td>
<td>English 280</td>
<td>2249</td>
<td>2.731</td>
<td>13.853</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 328</td>
<td>2216</td>
<td>3.172</td>
<td>13.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>English 397</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>3.819</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 408</td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>3.923</td>
<td>12.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>English 451</td>
<td>1918</td>
<td>4.684</td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 525</td>
<td>1595</td>
<td>4.956</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>English 575</td>
<td>1696</td>
<td>6.131</td>
<td>11.42</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 570</td>
<td>1545</td>
<td>5.343</td>
<td>11.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>English 569</td>
<td>1445</td>
<td>5.944</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 591</td>
<td>1224</td>
<td>5.515</td>
<td>9.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o:</td>
<td>English 542</td>
<td>1199</td>
<td>5.098</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 503</td>
<td>1223</td>
<td>4.756</td>
<td>9.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u:</td>
<td>English 489</td>
<td>1165</td>
<td>4.640</td>
<td>9.55</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 479</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>4.557</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English 433</td>
<td>1017</td>
<td>4.579</td>
<td>9.65</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Libyan 433</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>3.723</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Euclidean Distance between English vowels and Libyan vowels as produced by female Libyan learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The vowel</th>
<th>F1(Hz)</th>
<th>F2(Hz)</th>
<th>F1(Bark)</th>
<th>F2(Bark)</th>
<th>distance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>2402</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>14.87</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>2515</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>14.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>2064</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>13.64</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>2241</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>2069</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>13.30</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>1782</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>12.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>1818</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>12.41</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>12.34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ά</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>1320</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>11.01</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>713</td>
<td>1423</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>1224</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>7.77</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>1146</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>9.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>œ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>1199</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>1289</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>10.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>û</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>917</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>10.91</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyan</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>1046</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F1 and F2 in Bark were then plotted in a chart to give a clear representation of the Libyan vowels and English vowels as produced by native speakers of each language.

![Formant plot of Libyan vowels and English vowels](image)

Figure 1. Formant plot of Libyan vowels and English vowels when produced by male native speakers of each language
From the above figures, it can be noted that vowels in English and Libyan Arabic occupy almost the same location in the vowel space. Libyan vowels are acoustically similar to English vowels when produced by male speakers, except for the front vowel /e/ (see Figure 1). However, the two sets of vowels show disparity when produced by females, particularly back vowels /ɔ:, u:/ and mid-front vowel /æ/. Further, Libyan front vowels /i:,ɪ/ share almost the same acoustic properties of those English vowels.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this paper was to determine the acoustic similarity between Libyan-Arabic vowels and English vowels. The results demonstrated that some Libyan vowels are very similar in the acoustic properties to their English counterparts when produced by native speakers of Libyan Arabic and British English. On the other hand, there is some gender differences found in the quality of these two sets of vowels produced. The results suggested that some English vowels may require more attention when teaching English sounds to Libyan learners of English. Further, these results can be used in the design of perceptual experiments that explores the problems in perceiving English vowels among Libyan learners of English in particular and Arab learners of English, in general.
REFERENCES


Gratitude expressions of EFL learners in mobile learning process: a case study of Indonesian higher education context

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ABSTRACT
This research aims to examine the expression of gratitude expressed by EFL students in a mobile learning process in the higher education context. Twenty-four Indonesian postgraduate students and one lecturer participated in this research. The study was carried out based on the mobile class meeting by using WhatsApp; one of the popular internet messaging applications nowadays. Specifically, the focuses of this research study are to identify: (1) the strategy of the gratitude expression used among the students, (2) the students' strategy of gratitude towards their lecturer, (3) the reasons why the students expressed their gratitude, and (4) how their performance was responded by their interlocutors, in this case, their friends and their lecturer. The data were collected based on the content analysis of the chats in the WhatsApp group which was divided into two contexts: informal context and formal context. The former refers to the situation where the topic discussed has nothing to do with learning material, more about reconstructing the class and its regulations. Conversely, the latter applies to the case where the learning materials were discussed in group chat-room. As the result, the EFL students to convey their gratitude by thanking in different strategies based on their interlocutors.

KEYWORDS: Gratitude expression, mobile learning, WhatsApp, strategy.

INTRODUCTION
Using language in communication means performing an action (Austin, 1962). Based on this idea, it is necessary to express our idea appropriately to avoid pragmatic failure. In that case, Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) mentioned that gratitude expression should be performed successfully to stimulate feelings of intimacy and solidarity between participants of an interaction. Conversely, if the delivery of gratitude is not right, it will create negative consequences that can worsen the relationship. Thus, to prevent an embarrassing situation, the speaker needs to understand how to convey gratitude expression appropriately.

Most people perform their gratitude expression by saying “thank you” to appreciate an action that the hearer has done which brings fortune. Pishghadam and Zarei (2011.p 141) explained that “expression of gratitude can be classified as simple, phatic utterance to lengthy communicative events developed by both giver and recipient of a gift, favor, reward, and service.” Thanking as one of speech acts is influenced by culture. Different culture has different standard politeness to express gratitude (Intachakra, 2004; Chen, 2005; Pishghadam & Zarei, 2011; Yasama & Ewur, 2014)

Not only that, Herring (1994) found out that the medium used for communication also plays a crucial role in communication. In face to face communication, the utterances conveyed by the speaker is supported by non-verbal properties such as gesture, tone, mimic, and so on. Those properties enable a speaker to deliver his/her idea clearly so that misunderstanding can be eliminated. However, it is quite different if the medium of communication is through the internet. Internet interaction has its own rules, which known as network etiquette, or netiquette (Crystal, 2006, 2011).

The development of technology nowadays influences the way how people communicate with others through computers and mobile phones. The process of teaching and learning similarly get advantages from internet technology. E-learning and mobile learning are used as supplement tools to the conventional form of learning (Bansai and Joshi, 2014) since they provide affordances for the users to access and require learning
materials without being limited by time and space (Herring, 1994). One of the popular applications used for the learning process is WhatsApp. Yeobah and Awur (2014) claimed that by utilizing WhatsApp messenger, communication through mobile phones has become more comfortable, faster and cheaper. Besides, WhatsApp also offers several opportunities to enhance students’ learning capabilities, especially in higher education, this application is utilized for discussing and sharing information between students and lecturers (Husain et al., 2017).

The purpose of this study is to explore gratitude expressions used by EFL students in a mobile learning process, which is in the WhatsApp discussion group. The focuses of this study are to discuss:

1. the gratitude strategies performed among the students;
2. the students' strategy of gratitude toward their lecturer;
3. the reasons why they expressed gratitude;
4. how their performance was responded by their interlocutors, in this case, their friends and their lecturer

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The data of this study was obtained from the English class chat room using WhatsApp messenger. Initially, there were only twenty-four postgraduate students invited in that WhatsApp group. After several regular face-to-face meetings, their English lecturer joined the group since they had to discuss the schedule for a replacement class, which finally would be conducted through the WhatsApp group.

In collecting the data, the researchers started by identifying the emergence of gratitude expression uttered by the members of the WhatsApp in two different contexts, non-formal and formal. The first was the context in which the participants of the conversation only among the students. Meanwhile, the latter referred to the context when the lecture joined the group and the process of EFL learning begun. Then, the gratitude expressions were coded by using gratitude strategies based on some studies (Eisnenstein and Bodman, 1986; Intachakra, 2004; Cheng, 2005; Bayat, 2013). Next, the idea of Eisnenstein and Bodman (1986) became the reference for analyzing the responses of the hearers.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the data, gratitude expression commonly used was “thank you” and its variants (thanks) or Indonesian gratitude: “terima kasih” and its variant (makasih). The gratitude expression in Indonesian language was uttered by the students since there was no obligation for them to use English. It was different from regular class in which English was dominantly used in the learning process although without warning. In this mobile learning process, gratitude expression occurred in the various ways as shown in the following table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gratitude expressions</th>
<th>NON – FORMAL (among students)</th>
<th>FORMAL (students to lecturer)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Terima kasih</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makasih</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terima kasih + emoji</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanks</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thx</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother tongue</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emoji</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td></td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you + emoji</td>
<td></td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unlike conventional learning process conducted face to face communication, WhatsApp as part of Internet-based communication definitely depends on the keyboard to deliver the message. Language use in internet interaction is not either spoken language or writing (Herring, 1994; Crystal 2006). To comprehend how the language used in internet interaction, Crystal (2006) claimed that it is essential to understand how different varieties of language are used on the Internet. According to him, “it is not always easy to use language effectively and clearly on the internet since written language on a screen does not behave in the same way as writing on a traditional page (p.7)”. The absence of non-verbal properties such as gesture, tone, mimic, and so on also affect the process of internet communication (Herring, 1994; Crystal, 2006; Jones and Hafner, 2012). Because of that, the users of the computers utilize emoticon to emphasize their utterances as their supporting strategies to express their gratitude. Even there are gratitude expressions which only used emoticons without words (10%).

The strategies of gratitude expressions used by the students can be seen in the following Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gratitude expression</th>
<th>Informal (among the students)</th>
<th>Formal (students to lecturer)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thanking directly</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking + address terms</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking + address term followed by the prior action given</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking + complementing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirmation + thanking</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking + address term + blessing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior action before thanking</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking which is followed apology.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking + address term + emoji</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Emoji</em></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanking + prior action +emoji</td>
<td></td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows gratitude strategies applied by the students to their peers and lecturer. The strategy commonly used is thanking by using address term “pak”; “Thank you, pak” or “makasih, pak” (24 %). However, the form of language used is non-formal such as: thx (netspeak of thank you), “makasih” (a variant of “terima kasih” in Bahasa Indonesia).

Meanwhile, thanking expression of the lecture was more formal. The students expressed their thanking in sophisticated ways by using a combination of thanking expression, address term and *emoji* as well (28%). For example, *Terimakasih banyak, bu 😊* or “*Terima kasih banyak, bu* 😊”.

Another example of gratitude expression from the data collection are the following utterances: “*Terimakasih bu atas bimbingannya* 😇 (“Thanking by mentioning address term and prior action given by the lecturer) and thank you miss, *barakallah*.” (thanking + blessing by using code mixing in Arabic).
As mentioned previously, two different situations occurred in the WhatsApp group, i.e., non-formal and formal contexts. The reasons for the emergence of gratitude expression in an informal situation are based on different topics. It is when the class leader (1) forms the WhatsApp group, (2) broadcast the information regarding schedule of the classroom and/or (3) help other class members for personal business such as asking permission for not attending the class, etc. Meanwhile, the second situation happened when the lecturer participated in the WhatsApp group. Students uttered the gratitude expressions to the lecturer after the replacement class in the WhatsApp group finished.

As the result of the study, gratitude expressed by the EFL students perceived similar responses from the hearer, “sama-sama”. The statements of sama-sama (in Indonesian language) which means “you are welcome” in English. However, not all gratitude expressions receive a response. Due to the medium of this interaction, the adjacency pairs of the conversation in WhatsApp is different from face to face communication. To some extent, sometimes one utterance might be late responded or ignored unintentionally (Jones & Hafner, 2012).

CONCLUSION
The finding of the study showed that there were several thanking strategies performed by the students. The commonly used to their peers was thanking + address term + the reason for thanking and thanking + address terms. Meanwhile, thanking strategy which is saliently used to the lecturer is thanking + the reason + emoji (or emoticon). It can be noticed that when expressing thanking in WhatsApp group, the students can create various strategies influenced by computer/mobile phone properties. The use of emoticons plays salient point here to fill the absence of non-verbal and to provide the emotion of the speaker(s). The gratitude expression was conveyed because the hearer has done something beneficial for the speakers. Last but not least, the popular response for gratitude expression explicitly uttered by the students and the lecturer is similar, that is "you are welcome"
REFERENCES


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Apology Strategies Utilized among International University Students in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT
Apology is an act of speech utilized to comfort or support the listeners who were offended by a violation. Most gender and language theories show that, gender inequality exists between both genders in communication. This inequality is because of the restriction of the cultural context and social standards which lead to the assumption that females are inclined to be more polite than males. This study focuses to seek out whether or not gender plays a role within the apology strategies used by international university students in Malaysia. The sample of this study consists of 30 male international students and 30 female international students. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was used to collect data. The data were analyzed according to the model of apology strategies proposed by Fitriani and Lestari (2011). The results of this study showed that there are similarities and differences of the apology strategies used by the respondents. This study is significant for the lecturers and students to distinguish the types of apology strategies employed. Future researchers could help by exploring other determinants that can influence apology strategies like social distance and power.

KEYWORDS: Apology, Apology strategies, Discourse Completion Test

INTRODUCTION
This study intends to explore the potential difference of apology strategies utilized by both genders among international university students in Malaysia. Speech acts are considered as every act that people utilize via utterances, the gesture of uttering and the way we interpret and the negotiations of speech acts depend on speech or context (Schmidt and Richards, 1980). Leech (1983) defined apology as an act of convivial speech to achieve the social aim in preserving harmony between speakers and listeners.

This study is based on the theories proposed by Trosborg (1995) and Aijmer (1996). Those theories were compiled by Fitriani and Lestari (2011). There are seven categories of apology strategies compiled by Fitriani and Lestari (2011) which are (1) explicitly apologizing, (2) acknowledging responsibility, (3) giving an explanation, (4) lessening the degree of offense, (5) expressing concern for the listener, (6) promising forbearance, and (7) offering redress. In second category which is acknowledging responsibility, there are six sub-strategies of this strategy which are implicitly acknowledging responsibility, explicitly acknowledging responsibility, expressing regret, expressing self-shortcomings, demonstrating a sense of shame, and receiving error explicitly. In third category which is giving an explanation, there are two sub-strategies of this strategy which are implicit explanation and explicit explanation. In fourth category which is minimizing the degree of offense, there are three sub-strategies of this strategy which are claiming that the offense is not a big deal, questioning the previous conditions, and blaming someone else. In seventh category which is offering redress, there are three sub-strategies of this strategy which are explicitly denying responsibility, implicitly denying responsibility, and justifying oneself.

Some researches were done in the past regarding the gender-based apology strategies such as Harb (2015), Chamani (2014), and Humeid (2013). Harb (2015) carried out a gender-based study on apology strategies among Arabic speakers. The objective of this study is to examine whether gender affects the apology strategies used by Arabic speakers. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was developed and utilized in this study for data collection that incorporates 10 situations where the participants have to give their responses. The results of this study showed more similarities than differences for both genders and there were no significant differences.
Chamani (2014) conducted a study on gender differences in the utilization of apologies by Persian speakers. The aim of this study is to investigate the differences in gender on the utilization of apology strategies and to examine the influence of social factors such as status and social distance on the frequency of the utilization of apology strategies in Persian between men and women. The data for this study were 500 apology responses (corpus) collected by using a method of observation (ethnographic). The findings of this study showed that in the Persian corpus there were no significant differences in apology strategies utilized by both genders. Moreover, the findings revealed that male respondents apologize to strangers (males) with the highest frequency, whereas female respondents used the majority of apologies with their friends (females), and that both sexes apologize more to people with the same social status and social distance.

In addition, Humeid (2013) conducted another study on the influence of gender and status on the apology strategies utilized by Native American English speakers and Iraqi EFL speakers. This study aims to compare the apology strategies utilized by EFL speakers in English and Iraqi Native speakers. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was employed to the Iraqi EFL speakers and Native American English speakers. The findings of this study revealed that male Iraqi EFL speakers employed more strategies toward higher-level people, whereas male Native American English speakers employed more strategies with lower-level people. In addition, female Iraqi speakers employed more apology strategies than male Iraqi speakers, differing from Americans.

This study seeks to answer these subsequent questions:

1. What are the apology strategies utilized among both genders of international university students in Malaysia?
2. What are the similarities and differences among the apology strategies utilized by both genders of international university students in Malaysia?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The descriptive quantitative method was utilized in conducting this study. As the populations of this study are international university students, 30 international male and 30 female students from one of the universities in Malaysia were chosen as the subjects. The instrument used in this study is the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) that was adapted from Istifci (2009). This test describes several different situations that require apologies to be made. The participants were instructed to express their responses according to the situations in the test. A pilot study was carried out to test the reliability of the DCT involving 20 international students from other university (10 males and 10 females). The findings of the pilot study showed that all situations in the DCT were clearly understood by the participants. Hence, this instrument was considered reliable to be utilized in this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of this study showed that most of the male respondents preferred to use explicitly apologizing strategy whereas most of the female respondents preferred to use giving an explanation strategy in apologizing. The result of male respondents in this study is aligned with past studies by Humeid (2013), Harb (2015), and Chamani (2014) which most of their male respondents preferred to use *Illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)* strategy or also known as explicitly apologizing strategy. According to them, male EFL learners are believed that they cannot express themselves in English effectively and tend to neglect their responsibility. On the other hand, the result of female respondents in this study is contrary with past studies by Humeid (2013), Harb (2015), and Chamani (2014) which most of their female respondents preferred to use the same strategy as the males which is explicitly apologizing strategy. According to them, female EFL learners are believed to be more polite than male EFL learners as it is linked to religious determinants such as social conventions.

The findings of this study revealed that there are similarities and differences in apology strategies utilized by male and female international students. One of the similarities is that both genders of the respondents chose expressing concern for the listener strategy as the least frequently used strategy. Another similarity is that both genders of the respondents chose minimizing the degree of offense strategy as the second least frequently used strategy. These similarities are aligned with the previous study by Harb (2015). Harb (2015) revealed that male and female Arabic speakers equally avert the utilization of taking responsibility (RESP) strategy as it was recognized as more face-threatening than other strategies.
Other than that, both male and female respondents also have differences in choosing the apology strategies. One of the differences is that the male respondents preferred to use explicitly apologizing strategy when apologizing to others as it was chosen as the most frequently used strategy by the male respondents. This shows that most of the male international students preferred to simply apologize rather than explaining the situations or why they violated the social norms. Another difference is that most of the female respondents chose explicit explanation strategy when apologizing as it was chosen as the most frequently utilized strategy by the female international students. This shows that most of the female international students felt that they owe the other party an explanation during an apology to clarify the offense. This result is aligned with previous study such as a study by Humeid (2013). Humeid (2013) found out that male Iraqi EFL university students were inclined to utilize direct apology (explicitly apologizing) strategy while female Iraqi EFL university students were inclined to utilize elaborated strategy (explicit explanation). According to him, it is believed that males in that society can communicate and behave more freely than females.

CONCLUSION

This study has identified that majority of the male international university students in Malaysia opted explicitly apologizing strategy while the female international students opted explicitly explanation strategy. The findings of this study indicate that there are similarities and differences in the apology strategies utilized by both genders of international university students in Malaysia. Based on the similarities and differences of the apology strategies utilized by international university students in Malaysia, as cited by Chamani (2015), it leads us to the thought of social label that “women are more polite than men” made by previous studies (Lakoff, 1975; Brown, 1980; Tannen, 1991; Holmes, 1995) has once again proven to be valid. This study also has proven the claim by (Humeid, 2013) that female tends to use long answers (explicit explanation strategy) when apologizing while male tends to use short and direct ones (explicitly apologizing strategy).

Future researchers can consider conducting more researches on the situational determinants such as social power, social distance, and degree of imposition among international university students. Plus, future researchers can conduct researches on other English speech acts such as compliment, invitation, refusal, and request among international university students in order to have more understanding of how they are utilized.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT
The most widely recognized trouble that Iraqi learners of English may come across when English composing is right spelling. Writing shapes a characteristic part in any foreign language. Learners these days have next to no enthusiasm for writing which is so essential to satisfy the learning necessities. This research is an endeavor to research the spelling blunders made by EFL Iraqi secondary school students. To accomplish this goal, a quantitative design was utilized to collect data and analyze. The learners' sorts of spelling mistakes were identified, examined and after that ordered by Cook's (1999) characterization of errors to be specific substitution, exclusion, inclusion and transposition. The elicitation method was employed by utilizing a test. The members were randomly chosen. The results indicated that blunders start from two main reasons: inter lingual and intra lingual. Besides, the findings of the test and the problems which caused these spelling mistakes additionally were examined in this investigation. The effect of the transfer of the mother tongue on the composed types of the second language will be clarified.

KEYWORDS: EFL Learners, Students, Spelling errors.

INTRODUCTION
The acquisition of a foreign language or a second language is, as Brown (2000) demonstrates, a difficult procedure that requires fatigued efforts. Like some other students of English, Iraqi students are anticipated to confront numerous challenges while learning English. Corder (1981) considers these language mistakes a characteristic result of learning. He among different scholars, for example, Hildreth (1962) and Brown (2000), sees these mistakes as a significant pointer of the advancement of learning. Brown (2000) explains that there are two sources of student mistakes they are: interlingual and intralingual.

Generally speaking, many research projects concerning problems of Arab learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in spelling have concentrated on students mistakes in general. Other studies focused only on the syntactic errors or the lexical ones. However, this study focuses not only on these two types of errors, but also the semantic errors, mechanic errors and word order errors as well. It is also important to mention that no studies have addressed specifically the spelling errors of Iraqi Arab students. Reviewing the literature concerning problems facing Arabic speaking learning from other countries.

A standout amongst the most widely recognized mistakes that plague Arab students” composed work is errors of spelling. Numerous learners continue rehashing a similar spelling mistakes, which causes a noteworthy snag for them through the entirety of their various stages of education and after they leave school, joining advanced education or fields of work. This poor spelling issue holds learners in a few different ways. Hildreth (1962) takes note of that "spelling is a kind of draft horse of composed articulation [, without which] the heap of work recorded as a hard copy is impossible effectively". . He includes that spelling with certainty facilitates the undertaking of communicating musings recorded as words. Thus, great spellers are allowed to focus on the thoughts they wish to express without being aware of the mechanics of the composition task. Accordingly, enhancing learners' spelling enables them to concentrate on the task of writing without being diverted by the dread of submitting spelling mistakes. The spelling mistakes contrarily influence the clearness of the composed message, and subsequently meddles with correspondence between the essayist and the peruser. The unfortunate impacts of wrong spelling on creating students” proficiency abilities, terrible spelling additionally gives an awful impression to bosses or partners in the field of work of the bad speller. For instance, Arabic is composed from right to left, while English is composed from left to right. Besides, the correspondence between the composed structure and the verbally
expressed structure in Arabic is considerably more normal than that in English. The study tends to find answers for the following questions:

1. How huge is the spelling issue in Iraqi high schools?
2. What types of spelling errors do Iraqi EFL learners commit in their writing?
3. How could these spelling errors be attributed to their possible sources?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This investigation was done in Iraqi male government funded school in Anbar. In Iraqi government funded schools, learners begin taking English subject from Grade 1 up to Grade 12. English is educated in an everyday schedule, with every lecture going on for forty-five minutes. That is, learners don't have to utilize English with the exception of in English classes. Also, learners don't generally require English to use as a means of communication out of school. Besides, members of this investigation comprised a gathering of male government funded school students from Grade 12 learners. What pursues is a depiction. Twenty learners will take part in this examination, and they will be approached to complete a little composition assignment to gather the information for this investigation. The method used for analyzing data is by detecting their mis-spelled words and listing the most frequent mistakes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The students' primary spelling mistakes were distinguished, broke down and afterward ordered after Cook's (1999) grouping of blunders in particular substitution, exclusion, addition and transposition. With respect to the recognized kinds of spelling blunders, corpus examination outlined that learners accomplish for the most part next to no advancement as they move to higher grades. The investigation results uncovered that blunders of substitution and exclusion comprised the most astounding level of the students' kind of mistakes. With respect to substitution mistakes, corpus demonstrated that, aside from a couple of changes, extents of mistakes in this classification diminished marginally as learners came to Grade 12. According to the examination, the phonological impedance demonstrates that the learners will in general spell words as indicated by their articulation in their first language. Also, the investigation showed that the primary driver of the learners' spelling mistakes was conceivably ascribed to the irregular idea of the English spelling framework, the Arab learners' absence of consciousness of English spelling rules just as L1 negative transfer. In general, the investigation of the learners' spelling mistakes that were distinguished in the writings demonstrated that learners have an issue with spelling rules. The mistakes assembled under "Anomaly of English" class contain the mistakes that are for the most part brought about by the non-phonetic nature of English orthographic framework. In contrast to English, Arabic has an exceedingly phonetic orthographic framework, as words are for the most part composed as they are articulated. Greatest of the errors are funny ones. They happen when students translate directly from first language to deliver their thoughts in English (using a noun as a substitute of a verb). Another cause for doing such errors due to the students' limited English vocabulary. The bad transfer of the first language because Arabic is a 'root language' and the changes from one part of speech to another often-involved morphological differences such as germination (doubling of consonants).

As we have seen, mistakes corpus examination uncovered that primary language impedance and numbness of the normal spelling standards and examples caused a substantial level of learners' spelling mistakes. My study creates that the different letters from the English language made the students more difficult than the similar letters with English and this is confirmed by (Ridha, 2012) in his study on Arab students and their errors. Arabic conversation is used to use in everyday conversation among Arabic speakers. When discussing MTI from Arabic it would not be forgotten that some errors are produced by interfering from standard and others by interfering from colloquial Arabic and this also problem that help to make errors. There are some specific habits to assistance students correct the errors. One way to highlight the effects of the mother tongues on the students' learning of English is to gather these errors and request from the students to examine them and if they can to correct them (ibid).

Henceforth, the fundamental reasons for most learners' spelling mistakes in this investigation can be related back to the responsibility of the native language/local language transfer (interlingual) and lacking the appropriate exposure of the targeted language (intralingual).
CONCLUSION
Numerous inquires consider that breaking down learners' mistakes would be of incredible esteem, because of the way that such an examination would help in understanding the sorts and reasons for language mistakes, prompting a superior comprehension of the second language learning procedure to in the end help learners and help them abstain from submitting such mistakes. This investigation has endeavored to distinguish the real kinds and reasons for spelling mistakes, which the Arab EFL high school students committed. To close the above research, the investigation uncovered that the most incessant kinds of mistakes the learners made are substitution and exclusion. It has likewise been discovered that the basic reasons for most learners' spelling mistakes in this investigation can be followed back to the responsibility of first language/local language negative transfer (interlingual) and insufficient acquisition of the targeted language (intralingual). Spelling mistakes can reflect methodologies that language students use and demonstrate the way toward securing the targeted language. Therefore, these would give language educators commonsense angles so as to create approach just as materials for therapeutic instructing. At long last, it is trusted that the outcomes could give some direction to both Iraqi EFL students and educators regarding decreasing mistakes in writing compositions and encouraging smoother correspondence. Besides, the researcher trusts the present research may animate different analysts to begin from where this paper closes and do broad scholarly research work concentrated on spelling mistakes.

REFERENCES
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Reading Strategies of Iraqi Postgraduate Students Studying in Malaysian Universities

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ABSTRACT
Reading comprehension is an essential academic ability that students should possess if they want to succeed in their scholarly program. The study aimed to probe Iraqi postgraduate students self-perceived reading strategies applied when comprehending academic text. The researchers employed the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) for data collection. The participants of this study were non-native speakers. The sample consisted of 60 participants (females =30, males =30) Iraqi postgraduate students in Malaysian universities. This study provided that both males and females of Iraqi students used all reading strategies with a range between high and moderate frequency.

KEYWORDS: Reading strategies, Iraqi postgraduate students, English academic texts, Malaysian universities

INTRODUCTION
Reading is a vital skill needed by students in the success of education (Sun, Shieh, & Huang, 2013). Reading is a cognitive process that requires readers to utilize their prior knowledge and reading techniques to understand the text. However, without good reading skills, a student will face problems to function in contemporary life such as accessing resources for their work, home lives, travels, and safety. Basically, reading is understood as a process which readers analyzes the text and grasp the message. In 1994, Chamot and O’Malley categorized reading techniques into cognitive, metacognitive, social and effective strategies. Good students in both languages, native and second language are able to enhance their academic skills faster than others who are not (Anderson, 1999). Thus, the present studies in EFL and ESL focus mainly on reading techniques that students used when they read academic texts (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Alnujudi, 2003; Alsheikh, 2002; Karbalaei, 2010; Malcom, 2009). As an introduction, two research problems would be stated and explained because these are the rationale of this study. The logic behind this study emerged from these problems and the purpose was to investigate the causes of the low marks on TOEFL among Iraqi postgraduate students in reading sub-area. Furthermore, there is still a lacks studies investigating reading strategies used by Iraqi graduate and postgraduate students; there are also questions concerning students’ understanding in the English language. In this research, a survey study was employed to determine learners’ reading strategies when reading English academic text. In TOEFL tutor for Iraqi students in Malaysian universities, it has been witnessed that although TOEFL is challenging, its reading section appears to be as the biggest challenged for EFL students. This study probed into 3 categories of reading strategies used and the reason why Iraqi postgraduate students face difficulty in the reading section. As for the second problem, the study was set up to identify reading strategies practiced among Iraqi postgraduate students in Malaysian universities. The study’s objectives were to examine Iraqi postgraduate students who are currently furthering their study in Malaysian universities self-perceived reading strategies when comprehending English academic text and to identify if gender stimulates the choice of reading strategies among EFL Iraqi students. As a conclusion, readers can overcome the difficulties in reading assignments if they are able to select and employ correct reading techniques. Two questions are emerging from two problems this study identified follow:

1. How are Iraqi postgraduate student’s self-perceived reading strategies in English academic text?
2. How is Iraqi students applied all strategies with range between high and moderate frequency?
MATERIALS AND METHODS

A systematic random sampling method was used to choose the study’s sample. 60 participants their ages ranged from 25 to 35 years old. Participants were informed about disclosure agreement as their responses will only be used for the study’s purposes and the questionnaires were collected immediately.

This study’s instruments included two parts. The first part included the demographic questionnaire from which the participants’ demographic data were collected. The second part included the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) which was adapted from Mokhtari and Shoerey (2002). This questionnaire, according to Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002) is “intended to measure the type and frequency of reading strategies that adolescent and adult ESL students use while reading academic materials in English”. This questionnaire suits the study’s purposes as it was specifically developed to examine L2 learners’ metacognitive awareness of reading strategies used in reading the academic text. SORS questionnaire has been extensively used in ESL and EFL condition for example in Iran (Atai, Hashim and Nejadghanbar, 2018). It consisted of 30 points and each is rated through a 5-point Likert scale and this included three sub-points of reading techniques. Data collected were analyzed using SPSS statistical program where descriptive statistic was employed. The means and standard deviations of data were recorded to analyze the overall frequency of each strategy used which covers global, support and problem-solving. In order to determine the relationship between gender and reading strategies; thus, a t-test was utilized to determine the correlation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Mean scores of the three subscales in reading strategies fell between 3.53 and 3.94 on a scale of 1 to 5, a range which Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) regarded as strategies with a high percentage of usage frequency. All individual strategies of the respective subscales are generally used with high and medium frequency by female and male participants. None of the strategies in this study was applied with low frequency. Despite that, problem-solving strategies appeared to be applied slightly more frequent as compared to global strategies, 3.97 scored by females and 3.86 scored by a male. Students were mostly preferred to use problem-solving strategies and the findings indicated that both male and female Iraqi students have a high level of awareness on reading strategies that they used. The overall mean scores in the reading strategies of both genders were similar and high. Female Iraqi students used reading strategies slightly more often than males and this is similar to previous studies (Jun Zhang and Bin Annual 2008; Al-Sohbani, 2013). Students’ preferences clearly indicated that they utilized appropriate attention to the text they read. They concentrated more on the text to identify the main message. They employed guessing that helps them to speed up their reading cognitive process and further the text comprehension. The application of these techniques indicated that the participants are strategic readers. More, such a result could be taken as a sign of appropriate reading practice and development which can be the sign that Iraqi students might have received good reading techniques instruction in their English class. Also, this result can be due to the fact that these students received similar English education in terms of time and syllabus at school as well as at the university. Furthermore, these students applied strategies that help them in dealing with academic texts. Students underlined and circled the clue in the passage to help them memorize it. They also paraphrased the sentences, re-read the text and take notes to gain a better understanding of what they read. They tried to find relationships and connections between ideas. The t-test result failed to reveal different mean scores between males and females. This can be seen in the results given (t=-.497, df=14, α=0.05, p=.627), the p-value is greater than the probability level of 0.05. Due to this, it can be concluded that there is no correlation between gender and the frequency of problem-solving strategies used. The results of this study do not coincide with studies conducted by Shoerey and Baboczky (2008) as in this study it identified female students used more strategies as compared to males. This can be resulted by the fact that these students received similar input in reading and reading strategies. This means the university instructors may have consciously or unconsciously exposed the students during the lesson regarding reading strategies. Further, it could be due to the education level of these students as they have more experience in reading English academic texts.

CONCLUSION

Three reading strategies were used; problem-solving strategies, support strategies, and global strategies. There is no statistically significant difference was found between female and male students regarding their usage in reading strategies. Conversely, the learners used problem-solving and global strategies
significantly correlated with their reading exam score (p< .01 and p< .05). Further research is also recommended to provide the reasoning behind students’ complaint about reading difficulties in the academic text through triangulate method which are think-aloud protocol, interview, and an in-depth questionnaire.

REFERENCES


Teachers’ Perspective on the Discontinuation of the Literacy and Numeracy Programme (Linus 2.0)

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ABSTRACT
The Literacy and Numeracy Screening 2.0 (Linus 2.0) was introduced by the Ministry of Education (MOE) to eradicate illiteracy among Malaysian students; particularly Year 1 until Year 3. It was implemented in 2011 but abolished in 2018 as the MOE has given schools the authority to overcome illiteracy on their own; that schools should come up with their bottom up measures instead of top down measures form the MOE. The aim of the study presented in this paper is to identify the challenges faced by teachers in implementing LINUS 2.0 and explore their perception on the discontinuation of the programme. Hence, the methodology employed was an explanatory sequential mixed method design where data was gathered through online open ended survey to 200 English teachers in a southern state of Malaysia and in-depth interview sessions with 10 selected teachers to gain more insight and understanding on the issue. The finding indicates that 90% of the teachers agreed with the government’s decision to discontinue the programme with several challenges highlighted in the interview session; time constraint, materials provided that are not aligned with the syllabus, and increased workload. However, another 10% argued on the need for a standardised guideline and assessment to aid teachers in screening literate and illiterate pupils at schools. This implies that the government’s decision for school to take over responsibility was right. However, there is a need for guidance from the government to ensure all efforts from different school would be aligned.

KEYWORDS: LINUS 2.0, Literacy, Numeracy, Mixed Method

INTRODUCTION
The Literacy, Numeracy Screening (LINUS) 2.0 programme is a government educational intervention initiated in 2011, aiming to improve the English Language early literacy among lower primary ESL learners. The eventual goal of LINUS 2.0 programme is to ensure that all Malaysian students acquire both literacy and numeracy at an early age that is, after three years of primary school education (KPM, 2013). It was introduced with the objective to eradicate illiteracy among level 1 pupils in primary school. It started since 2011 but recently, the government decided to discontinue this programme as the MOE has given schools the authority to overcome illiteracy on their own; that schools should come up with their bottom up measures instead of top down measures from the MOE (Bungga, 2018). However, to have school come out with their own programme(s) may lead to various assessments to identify illiteracy among pupils. Not only that, issues on the validity and reliability of the assessments may also arise as there is no standardised guideline provided by the government. The discontinuation of this programme have also caused the loss of one source of assessment to help illiterate pupils.

Early literacy is about how children acquire literacy and develop themselves as readers from time to time (Ng & Yeo, 2012). Early literacy skills are one of the important elements for children as these skills can aid their learning progress in future. Illiterate children seem to be struggling with reading and writing since they are unable to acquire the early literacy skills (Luyee, Roselan, Anwardeen, & Mohd Mustapa, 2015). Thus, the MOE had taken a very good step to provide teachers with an illiteracy programme; that is LINUS 2.0. Rosseliah, Sabariah, & Swee (2015) reported that teachers have positive perceptions towards LINUS 2.0 as it was able to help teachers to identify pupils who were illiterate. However, there were some problems faced by teachers in implementing the programme. Sani & Idris (2013) reported that teachers have insufficient time to carry out the LINUS 2.0 as teachers have heavy workload in mainstream class teaching. In addition, the teachers felt burdened by the extra responsibilities on the programme like filling in the
LINUS 2.0 form, thinking of the intervention programme for illiterate pupils as well as extra documentation and filing. The materials (LINUS Module) provided by MOE were also not aligned with the topics in pupils’ textbook. Lee (2015) also agreed that the module and the syllabus are contradictory to each other. As a result, teachers faced difficulty in helping the pupils and this led to the disappointment when the pupils could not pass the construct 12 of the LINUS 2.0.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A case study approach was selected to address the aim of the study in identifying challenges faced by teachers on LINUS 2.0 programme and explore teachers’ perception on the discontinuation of the programme. This embedded study is grounded in a mixed method design. Cresswell (2014) stated that the mixed method research design is based on blending of quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection in a single study. Meanwhile, in determining the participants for this study, the naturalistic paradigm of research dictates that sampling should be purposeful rather than random (Bhola, 1990). Hence, the sampling method chosen for this research was purposive sampling. The 200 selected teachers majoring in English and were involved directly with LINUS 2.0 programme. The open-ended survey included five constructs: i) teachers’ perception on the discontinuation of the Linus 2.0 programme, ii) challenges faced in implementing LINUS 2.0, iii) recommendation of a programme to replace the LINUS 2.0. Meanwhile, the qualitative data involved in depth interviews with 10 teachers who were chosen purposely from the quantitative samples. All data from open ended survey and interview were evaluated and triangulated to increase its validity and reliability. All information and responses were kept in accordance to the ethics of confidentiality.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research question was addressed through systematic analysis of the online open ended survey on 200 English teachers who were directly involved with the LINUS 2.0 programme. Findings show that 180 (90%) of the English teachers agreed with the government’s recent decision to abolish LINUS 2.0 programme. The interview data illustrated the impracticality of administering the programme, the challenges and difficulties faced by teacher; and a very high expectation from the MOE had led to disappointment and pressure among the teachers. Among the issues raised were that LINUS 2.0 was a waste of time, money and energy; a need for remedial English teachers to cater illiteracy; impracticality as pupils with no illiteracy problems too have to undergo the same screening for two times. Meanwhile, 10% of the teachers disagreed with the abolishment of LINUS 2.0 as they felt that the only issue was the lack of a tool to measure and identify pupils’ literacy level. The idea of LINUS 2.0 programme was good but the implementation of it should be improved or revised. Ultimately, based on the responses, it can be conclude that the abolishment of the programme may have eased and decreased teachers’ workload. Nevertheless, it left the teachers with other task which is to find suitable programme that meets the students’ needs so that the teacher can cater the illiteracy issues.

The following Figure 1 shows the challenges faced by the teachers in implementing LINUS 2.0. 15% of the teachers indicated materials provided - LINUS Module by the MOE is not aligned with the syllabus. This is similar to the study conducted by Rosseiliah, Sabariah, & Swee (2015); that the mismatch between the textbook and materials provided had caused problems coping with the lesson and screening. As a result, teachers faced difficulty in helping the pupils and this led to the disappointment when the pupils could not pass the screening. Earlier, Sani & Idris (2013) admitted that the module provided were guidelines for teachers and teachers need to modify them to suit their pupils’ level of proficiency. However, in doing so, 35% of the challenges faced by teachers was time constraint; that teachers have insufficient time to carry out the LINUS 2.0 due to their mainstream class teaching workload (Sani & Idris, 2013). The LINUS 2.0 expected teachers to focus on completing the syllabus and at the same time ensuring the LINUS pupils are able to pass all 12 constructs within the time frame given. Finally, the findings of this study showed 50% of the teachers felt that the LINUS 2.0 had increased their workload. This was supported by the interview data where the teachers reported that the documentation involved in this programme was too much as each teacher has to key in pupils’ results twice; hard copy form and online form.
CONCLUSION
The findings of this study have provided insights on how and what happened in LINUS 2.0 programme from the perspective of teachers. The analysis of the interview data showed that most teachers had a positive perception towards MOE’s decision to discontinue the programme. Besides that, the challenges highlighted may have led to the government’s decision to discontinue this programme. Despite the number of teachers agreeing to the discontinuation of LINUS 2.0 was high (90%), it has resulted in the loss of one source of assessment to monitor illiteracy among pupils. Thus, the government still needs to provide a standard guideline for schools so that each school will have a standard assessment based on schools and pupils’ level of proficiency in order to achieve 0 illiteracy among Malaysian pupils. Not only that, in order to develop a smooth and effective early literacy programme, all the stakeholders should be given the opportunity and authority to voice out idea(s) so that a simple practical programme that gives a major impact could be developed. Thus, with all contribution of ideas from stakeholders in the early intervention programme and participation from all parties concerned, the burden of the teachers could be reduced and the effectiveness of the English Language literacy programme could be enhanced, which in turn would lead to the attainment of Malaysia’s 0 illiteracy aim.

Figure 1: Challenges Faced by the Teachers in LINUS 2.0 Programme.
REFERENCES


Textual Discourse of the ‘Social Values Story Model’

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ABSTRACT
The study focuses on the textual discourse of the ‘Social Values Story Model’ written and created by Normaliza Abd Rahim (2018). The model is copyrighted by Universiti Putra Malaysia. The model consists of two social songs to enhance students learning in the classroom. The objectives of the study are to identify and discuss the textual discourse of the two social songs. The song lyrics are analysed by using the discourse analysis theory by Normaliza Abd Rahim (2019). The theory consists of three elements; content, context and assumption. The results of the study revealed that the song lyrics consist of values to enhance students learning. It is hoped that further studies will focus on students writing by using the values from model.

KEYWORDS: Textual discourse, Social Values, Learning, Content, Context

INTRODUCTION
Social value provides the general guidelines for social conduct. Therefore, it is best for a person to understand the social values that can help in his/her everyday lives. It is important to understand the meaning of each values and use it when dealing with others. It will help in the process of having a peaceful and understanding community.

Social value can be disseminated through song especially among students at school. Students will learn and try their best to use the values with their friends and family members. Also, the students will use the values that they learn among the community. According to a study by Normaliza Abd Rahim (2018), social values consist of eighteen values such as honest, sincere, kindhearted, compassionate, crafty, gratitude, simplicity, self-reliance, high-level, courage, physical and mental hygiene, politeness, respect for respect, cooperation, community spirit, justice, freedom and rationale. The values listed are referred to the Malaysian Philosophy of Education (1996) sixteen values. However, Normaliza Abd Rahim (2018) has suggested two new values to fulfill the social values.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Two social songs are used from the ‘Social Values Story Model’ to enhance students learning. The song lyrics were written by Normaliza Abd Rahim (2018) and copyrighted by Universiti Putra Malaysia. The songs are analysed by using the textual discourse from discourse analysis theory. The discourse analysis theory by Normaliza Abd Rahim (2019) consists of three elements. The elements are content, context and assumption.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Content in Song Lyrics
The content of the song lyrics explains the theme on family values and understanding the neighbours. Both themes are important in order to disseminate and understand the values. The theme family showed Alim’s family. The family consists of father, mother, elder brother, elder sister and younger sister. The neighbor consists of Sulaiman and the mother. It can be seen that the family and the neighbor have close relationship. This is because Alim and Sulaiman are good friends.

Context in Song Lyrics
The types of text involved in this study are song lyrics. The song lyrics consist of stanzas and each line consists of three to four words. The words are simple and easy to understand especially for primary school children. Each line are related to the next line and this is to ensure the simplicity of the text.
The setting of the first song “Family” lyrics is situated in the family home. Most of time, Alim is at home with the family members. The other song “Neighbour” is situated next to Alim’s house. It can be seen in the song lyrics that Alim is able to call out his friend Sulaiman next door. So therefore, the house is just divided with a fence.

CONCLUSION

The study implicates the Ministry of Education in planning curriculum focusing on communication, school in carrying out speaking activities in the classroom, teachers in preparing activities for teaching and learning and learners in giving meaningful interaction in the classroom. It is hoped that further studies will focus on the use of discourse analysis theory in small group interactions.

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT
The study focuses on the influence of Malaysia television advertisement among consumers. The objectives of the study are to identify and discuss the influence of Malaysia television advertisement among consumers. The samples of the study consist of ten male and female subjects. The subjects viewed a video of television advertisements. They are to give their perception about the copy writing from the advertisement. The data are analysed by using the discourse analysis theory by Normaliza Abd Rahim (2019). The results of the study revealed that the subjects gave their perception based on their opinion, reference and question. It is hoped that further studies will focus on Malaysia television advertisement among copywriters

KEYWORDS: Discourse analysis, Advertising, Malaysian Television Advertisement, Copywriting

INTRODUCTION
Television is a medium that is used by many; it is normally used to send news towards people who are watching Television. They normally watch television to receive news, watch movies or just simply listen to the radio or songs. According to Syed Noor-Ul-Amin (2013), television is the twentieth century creation of the technology revolution that has been transforming much of the world. He also added that television bounces signals of space satellite and uses oceanic cables to transmit live telecast to and from people all around the world. To date, television has been the main medium of advertising where messages are delivered towards the consumers. With this, television advertisement plays a vital role in influencing the consumer behavior towards a brand or service to which can affect the sales of the brand (Lal & Vats, 2016; Modig & Dahlen, 2019).

Malaysian television advertisement has been expanding in the recent years, and many brands are opting to advertise their brand through television as it’s one of the main mediums to reach its target audience (Fazal Rehman, Muhammad Ilyas, Tariq Nawaz & Shabir Hyder, 2014). Many advertisers are also suggesting in using television advertisement as it reaches higher consumers as compared to digital advertising, even though digital advertising is a blooming platform to be used. However, brands and advertisers will recommend to use television advertisement instead. According to Nielsen (2019) and Nur Widad Roslan, Hazlina Abdul Halim, Mohd Azidan Abdul Jabar & Roslina Mamat (2019), most advertising agency knows that television advertisement is the most impactful medium as compared to other medium because it is more influential and exciting.

With this, advertising agency plays a big role as a brands custodian, that helps create a certain image for the brand and maintains the brand image through campaigns and reaching the brands objective. Therefore, it is important that advertising agencies understand the factors of influence they need in a television advertisement in order to make it successful.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
The samples of the study consist of 10 male and female subjects, picked at random amongst students at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Serdang. The subjects viewed a video of Malaysian television advertisements through observation and interview. The subjects are interview answers are then analysed through Normaliza Abd Rahim (2019) discourse analysis theory third element assumption which is opinion, reference and question.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The results of the study revealed that the subjects gave their perception based on their opinion, reference and question.

Opinion
Subjects 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9 all had their own opinion regarding the Malaysian television advertisements, and most of the advertisement are from their own personal perception towards the advertisements.

Reference
Subjects 3, 6, 8 and 10 on the other hand gave reference in their answers towards a western television advertisement copy and how it differs in Malaysian context, however is not suitable to be used in Malaysian market.

Question
Subjects 2, 4, 5 and 9 had raised questions on the copy used in the television advertisement and how it should be more relating towards the Malaysian market and how it does resonate with the consumers. Therefore, they question why it is not adapted for the Malay market consumers instead of taking the western advertisement altogether.

CONCLUSION
It is hoped that further studies will focus on Malaysia television advertisement among copywriters.

REFERENCES
Improving Reading Comprehension through Explicit Teaching of Skimming and Scanning Strategies

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ABSTRACT
The study aims to find out if there is improvement of students reading comprehension through explicit teaching of skimming and scanning strategies. Reading-comprehension problem is common in the classroom due to how information is processed and what type of text structure the students are reading. Students are unable to comprehend passages and articles because they encountered many unfamiliar words. One aspect was identified; which was the use of explicit skimming and scanning strategies among students in reading comprehension activities. This study has employed an action research method using pre-test and post-test to find out if there is a difference in reading comprehension performance before and after the training. The samples were 35 form 4 students of a government school. The results revealed that there was an overall increase of test scores after training when comparison of the individual pretest and posttest results before and after training was made. It was found that there was also an increase in the average scores of the test before and after training. This study would help educators to know how much students know and use the skimming and scanning strategies in improving reading comprehension activities.

KEYWORDS: Reading Strategies, Skimming and Scanning, Second Language Learning, Reading Comprehension

INTRODUCTION
Reading is a receptive skill where readers would obtain information from the text through the process of reading comprehension. In trying to comprehend texts, readers would employ strategies to ease the process. However not all readers are equipped with effective strategies. Learners of English as a Second Language may face reading comprehension problems. One learning area that needs strategies to be worked on is reading and comprehension (Azam Namjoo and Amir Marzban, 2014). There are learners who may be able to transfer strategy they have learned in reading comprehension of the first language (Khaled Karim, 2010). However, it is common that these learners would read word-per-word for comprehension of the text as found by Hiew (2012).

In attempts to improve learners’ reading performance, Zohreh Ziyaeeimehr (2012) have found that strategy awareness training could help improve reading performance. Studies related to comprehension process tend to focus on various strategies used by learners in general were from Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), Nooreiny Maarof and Rohaya Yaacob (2011) and Madhumati and Ghosh (2012). The mentioned researchers investigated a variety of reading strategy usage including skimming and scanning. There are very few studies that focus on the use of skimming and scanning strategy. This research aims to find out if focused training of skimming and scanning can help learners improve their reading comprehension of expository texts.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
The study is to find out if there is an increase of reading comprehension performance before and after training. To find out performance, usually a test is conducted. The pretest and posttest method was chosen because the researcher would like to find out if there is a difference in reading comprehension performance before and after the training. The performance difference was calculated from the individual difference before and after training.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Pretest and Posttest had measured reading performance before and after training. It was found that there was an overall increase of test scores after training when comparison of the individual pretest and posttest results before and after training was made. It was found that there was also an increase in the average scores of the test before and after training. For frequency of scores, there was an increase of the higher ranges of scores after training. Lastly for item analysis, patterns of correct and incorrect answers were analysed. Some items showed increase number of respondents who were able to answer correctly after training. Also, few items showed no change in the number of respondents who were able to answer correctly after training.

Firstly, the individual mean scores of the pretest and posttest were tabulated into three patterns. For increase of scores, there were 20 respondents. For the decrease of scores, there were 2 respondents. Lastly for unchanged mean scores, there were 12 respondents. It can be seen that 7 of the respondents had already scored 100% in their pretest. Another 3 respondents scored 90% for both their pretest and posttest. More than half of the respondents had improved in the posttest. This signified that the training had changed their learning behaviour. It can be inferred that the training sessions may have been effective for them. This was the same outcome observed by Akkakoson (2013) where after training, the learners’ reading comprehension scores improved. The session could have made them use the strategies better than in the pretest session. For respondents who had a decrease of scores which were only 2 respondents, the scores may be significant as the respondents might not able to apply appropriately the skimming and scanning strategies taught in the training session. Analysis of the respondents’ pretest and posttest had revealed that their scores were lower in the posttest because they did not get one question correct which needed the respondents to use their skimming skill in order to get the answer.

For respondents who did not have a change in their scores, they had already scored high in their pretest. These respondents, displayed the ability to answer all the pretest and posttest questions correctly. All questions that tested their reading comprehension through skimming and scanning strategies were answered correctly. It can be inferred that they might already know how to use the skimming and scanning strategies effectively before and after training. For the respondents who scored 80% to 95%, analysis of their test papers were done. From the pretest and posttest comparison, respondent 24 was able to answer all the comprehension questions that needed him or her to use scanning strategy correctly. However, he or she was not able to answer correctly for a question that tested comprehension using skimming strategy. For other respondents, they did not get all the answers correctly for comprehension questions that would need them to employ scanning strategy. This indicated that, the number of training sessions were not enough for these respondents.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the pretest and posttest score analysis revealed that the students might have already known the strategies of skimming and scanning before the training. At face value there seemed to be a small increase of respondents who scored slightly better in their posttest compared to the pretest. The statistical analysis showed that the training was very significant in increasing reading performance. The respondents could already be proficient readers because according to Sun (2011), proficient readers employed skimming strategy in reading a text. It was just that they may be less aware of it. Furthermore, after training a few more respondents were getting better scores of the test, indicating that the training further reinforced what they already knew about skimming and scanning strategies.
REFERENCES


Enhancing the Vocabulary for Reading Comprehension through Video Dictionary Project

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ABSTRACT
Vocabulary is the foundation of language learning. It is essential that pupils acquire a wide repertoire of vocabulary so they can use the target language effectively. However, many English as a Second Language (ESL) pupils have limited vocabulary for reading comprehension especially pupils from the rural areas. Thus, this study aims to explore the effects of video dictionary project to enhance the vocabulary of Form Four pupils and improve their comprehension through a case study. Eighteen pupils from a school in rural area of Hulu Terengganu in Malaysia were selected as the participants of this study through a purposive sampling technique. The pupils were required to produce video dictionary using their own creativity by providing the definitions of chosen words, and write stories to describe the meaning of the vocabulary. Then they film their stories which were then shared with other pupils in the school. The findings indicated the project helps pupils to gain new vocabulary and improve their comprehension. This study hopes to provide ESL teachers with insights into integrating project-based learning in the English language classrooms such as video dictionary project which promote the use of English among pupils as aspired by the current Malaysia Education Blueprint.

KEYWORDS: Education, ESL, Vocabulary, Reading comprehension, Video Dictionary

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary is the foundation of any language that ever exists in the world. However, it is observed that the lack of vocabulary among ESL (English as a second language) pupils is especially notable among pupils in the rural schools. Despite being an important element of language acquisition, there is very little study done on the vocabulary learning on secondary schools in Malaysia (Rosidawati & Parilah, 2016). The knowledge of vocabulary is closely related to comprehension. Raja Suria & Nooreiny (2016) discovered a link between vocabulary and comprehension because most pupils who do well on vocabulary tests also do well on comprehension tests. Graves (2006) observed that the vocabulary knowledge is significant in predicting pupils’ comprehension. This observation supports what Becker (1977) has established in the 1970s that lack of vocabulary resulting in declining reading comprehension among weaker pupils compared to their more able peers.

Very often, pupils in the rural areas do not live in an environment to encourage them to learn and practice the language effectively as observed by other researchers like Ratnawati and Ismail (2003) and Gobel, Thang, Sidhu, Oon & Chan (2013) so it is important that these pupils are provided opportunities where they can practice the target language. Melor, Chua, Maimun & Riziauddin (2010) found pupils have the knowledge and interest in the use of ICT, but rather than learning English, most pupils use the ICT for general purposes like playing the computer games and chatting.

The video dictionary project requires the pupils to explain vocabulary using their creativity and recording their product in a form of a video which are then uploaded online for others to watch. This study was carried out to explore the use of video dictionary project to enhance pupils’ vocabulary and improve their reading comprehension. Hence, the study seeks to examine the following research questions:

1. How does the video dictionary project affect the pupils?
2. How does the video dictionary project enhance pupils’ vocabulary to improve their
LITERATURE REVIEW

Collaborative Learning Theory

Video dictionary project is designed with reference to Collaborative Learning Theory which was developed around Lev Vygotsky’s social constructivism theory. As the video dictionary project in this study focus on collaboration learning, the focus will be on the Vygotsky’s concept of ‘zone of proximal development’ (ZPD) of social constructivism theory where children can learn and perform tasks individually only when they interact with more capable person who can help them effectively (Vygotsky, 1978). Collaborative learning aims at giving importance to individuals who seek to learn not as separate learner, but together with other learners (Dillenbourg, 1999). This should help less competent pupils to progress as the more competent pupils could help them naturally, without much pressure, through working collaboratively. In the video dictionary project, pupils will have to work in small groups collaboratively in order to create a video. Teacher only acts as a facilitator and pupils are of mixed abilities so the low competent pupils are able to gain something from this project.

Experiential Learning Theory

Educational theorist believes that learning is a process, while knowledge is created through shift of experience (Kolb, 1984). Beard and Wilson (2002) stated that the experience in the experiential learning makes the learning process special.

Figure 1. Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle

There are four stages of English Language Teaching (ELT) as can be seen in Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle in Figure 1. There are Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Abstract Conceptualisation (AC) and Active experimentation (AE). In CE, learners actively experience activities (Kolb, 1984). During the project, pupils actively experienced activities while they are completing tasks and phases in order to create a video dictionary. Then in RO, learners should be able to reflect on the experience they had while doing the activity created by the teacher (Kolb, 1984). Pupils reflected on their feelings and opinion which are shared in their reflection notes. In AC, learners attempt to form a concept of a theory or model of what they have observed (Kolb, 1984). Pupils will struggle at writing scripts, but after trials and errors, consultations with teacher, or by observing other groups, they should be able to form an idea on how they can solve their problems. AE is where learners plan on testing a model or theory, or plan for future possible experience (Kolb, 1984). After the pupils have created a new script and still rejected, they will need to reflect why, brainstorming for a new script and start writing anew.

Video Dictionary Project

Video dictionary project is a project-based learning method that provides opportunity for pupils to work in a creative collaborative environment and discover something new independently and collaboratively. It also
exposes pupils to realistic and contextualised problem solving environment, building bridges between classroom environment and real-life experience (Blumenfeld, Soloway, Marx, Krajcik, Guzdial, and Palincsar, 1991; Bell, 2010). During the project, pupils have the opportunities to express their thoughts in a creative and more meaningful way by making stories for their videos. Stories are brilliant sources to cultivate ideas and as a source of information (Philip, 2000). Pupils have the chance of using different skills while completing the project like researching for ideas, writing scripts, filming and editing videos, and sharing their whole experience with others. Pupils learn more from personal experiences that promotes collaboration over competition and participation over passiveness (Mohd Nazir, 2010).

Enhance Vocabulary to Improve Reading Comprehension

Vocabulary is an important element for learners to master the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking a language. Learners need to gain a significant number of vocabulary in order to form or understanding sentences. Kamil and Hiebert (2005) stated that vocabulary is the knowledge of words or the meaning of words. ESL pupils have difficulties in learning the English language because they have limited vocabulary which cause them to struggle understanding the language (Nadzaty & Maslawati, 2017, Alqahtani, 2015). This impedes their understanding when reading texts given to them. When reading, pupils will encounter some words with different meanings that are applicable to different context and use. Learners need to be able to know what and how the words are used according the context it is used. Hackman (2008) stated that vocabulary is more than a list of words, and although learners need to possess a significant number of vocabulary, it is more important to know how the possessed vocabulary are used in different context. So it is important that learners understand the words they have learnt rather than just know the words at a superficial level.

METHODOLOGY

The general purpose of this case study is to explore the use the video dictionary project to enhance the vocabulary for reading comprehension for rural pupils in ESL learning. 18 Form Four pupils (16 years old) from a rural secondary school in Hulu Terengganu, Terengganu, were selected in this study through purposive sampling due to their low English language proficiency level.

At the beginning of the study, the participants were tested with a pre-test to gauge their level of vocabulary and general ability to comprehend a reading text. Then, the participants were required to produce a video dictionary to describe the words they have chosen in form of stories. During each session of the project, the participants were required to do a reflection on their progress. The participants’ the progress and change of interest in learning English language and their English language skills were recorded in the researcher’s field note and also observation notes by two other independent observers who took turns in attending the session. After the participants had completed their project, they were tested using a post-test to see whether they have made improvements from their pre-test. Upon completing the video dictionary, the participants’ perceptions on the project and the whole process of the making of the video were collected through pupils’ reflection, semi-structured interview and document analysis of the researchers’ field note and two independent observers’ observation notes. Pseudonyms are used when reporting the findings of this study to reassure and encourage the participants to respond honestly as their identity and responses remained confidential (Creswell, 2013).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Primarily, this study has shown that the video dictionary can effectively enhance the participants’ vocabulary for reading comprehension. The results obtained are presented and discussed according to the following themes:

1. Positive effects in pupils’ vocabulary learning
2. Enhancement in pupils’ vocabulary to improve their reading comprehension

Positive Effects in Pupils’ Vocabulary Learning

During the interview, most of the participants commented that they have acquired new vocabulary while completing the project. Some commented that they also gain more new vocabulary other than the vocabulary their groups and their peers’ groups had to explain. PIR2 and PIR12 (pseudonym for Pupil
Interview Response 2 & 12) commented when asked whether they had gained some vocabulary, they said, “Apart from the word freedom? Quite a lot...Like a few” and “Other words? Emm...the word...'exhibition'...emm...when...for...that...for...to...err...the video...the one that...when people bought tickets”

Based on the researcher’s field note, it is noted that the participants showed commitment in generating the dialogues for their characters in their scripts. They looked up the suitable words to use in their scripts online and in the dictionaries. Then they consulted the teacher whether the words they have found are appropriate with the use they intend to use. The note from the independent observers also stated that the participants showed less reliance on the teacher. They only look for the teacher when there were conflicting opinions among the team members. Some participants also made notes in their reflection notes that whenever there were conflicts, they tried to solve them themselves before finally consulting the teacher.

The participants also mentioned that their pronunciation is somehow improved during the project. The participants credit their friends, apart from their teacher, to listen to their pronunciation and correct them if there is something wrong with their pronunciation. PIR4 and PIR5 commented “Like...when there are mispronunciations,then someone listened to it...then someone will help,like telling that ‘hey,that is wrong...’” and “Whenever I mispronounced,there will be someone to correct me...[Who is that someone?].err...my friends...and the teacher...”. Researcher’s field note also noted that when the participant had problems with the pronunciation, they ask their peers or look up the dictionary before finally asking the teacher. The note from the independent observers also stated that when a participant made a mispronunciation, others will point it out and correct it. This fits what Dillenbourg (1999) stated about the importance of collaborative learning where pupils learn together with other learners.

**Enhancement in Pupils’ Vocabulary to Improve Their Reading Comprehension**

Based on the pre-test and post-test taken by the participants, 78% of them managed to score better in post-test than their pre-test score. 17% of the participants showed no difference in their pre-test and post-test score, and 6% of the participants scored lower in their post-test than their pre-test score. The participants managed to answer words they have learnt during the project correctly, despite not showing any recognition of the words during pre-test. The test results means that the participants managed to improve their comprehension vocabulary. From the data alone, the project helped the participants to improve their vocabulary comprehension than before the project. However, there are also responses by the participants during the interview which they stated that the project helps them in improving their vocabulary comprehension. Participants PIR13 and PIR5 stated that “Making scripts with my friends help me to understand the words” and “I did not understand when teacher said one word can mean differently before, but now I do”.

The researcher’s field note also noted that while some of the participants read other groups’ scripts for ideas, they were able to provide comments and give feedback. Some participants made a point in their reflection notes that reading their peers’ scripts gave them ideas and make the task of writing scripts clearer to them. This means that the participants were able to comprehend the main ideas of their peers’ scripts. This conforms to Philip (2000) who agreed that stories are excellent sources of developing the main idea and a source of knowledge. This is because stories can hold a person’s attention thus would help them to pinpoint the main ideas of a story.

**CONCLUSION**

Generally, there were overwhelming supports for the video dictionary project, based on the responses from the participants. The integration of technology and pupils’ creativity into the pupils’ vocabulary enhancement in the video dictionary project promoted an active learning process among the participants. Sofi (2015) agreed that integrating multimedia could be successful in making the traditional classrooms into a communicative and pupil-centred classroom. It produces encouraging learning outcomes as the pupils demonstrated a high level of engagement when integrating ICT skills in making their videos. Thus, the project can be seen as an example for English teachers to a more pupil-centred lesson.
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ABSTRACT
Language skill is highly beneficial for military students as it assists them to be military leaders in the future. However, lack of language skills among them especially English would be the cause of facing various problems after commissioning as military officers. Past studies have presented the needs of the four basic skills in English language for cadet officers in the perspective of instructors and superiors. This study attempts to investigate English language needs among Malaysian military students in their perspectives and their abilities in using the language in the aspects of writing, speaking, reading and listening. The sample includes the military students from various faculties of a public university in Malaysia. A survey based on questionnaires will be conducted to look at the awareness among the students towards the needs of English for military purposes and the level of their skills in English language. The findings shows that English language skill is important for their military career but several students have difficulties in mastering writing and speaking skills. The recommendations for the relevance materials and teaching method like encouraging them to have interactive group discussions and do writing practices regularly also need to be concerned in order to enhance military performances among the students.

KEYWORDS: English language, Military students, Writing skill, Speaking skill, Reading skill, Listening skill

INTRODUCTION
The four language basic skills would be writing, speaking, reading and listening. If a person is well performed in only two out of four skills, he or she still cannot be considered a successful learner. In military context, poor English language skills among military students will lead them to be military officers with poor performances in the future. This would also contribute them to face various problems while doing military tasks and communicating with others during military trainings and operations. This is because English language these days has been used widely in military context. Elamin, Ahmed, and Osman (2017) have listed the typical military writings in English such as military reports, orders, briefings, presentations, and formal and informal letters. Military writings also require them to possess good skills not only in writing but also in speaking, reading and listening. This is because, in order to write, they need to do a lot of reading to widen their military knowledge. While doing presentations, both of the presenter and the listeners should master listening and speaking skills, so that the massages will be delivered successfully. In addition, they are also required to be fluent in English to communicate with other communities in international military operations. Qaddomi (2013) has stated that English language has been recognized for its international use as a medium of communication in international and peacekeeping operations, and security cooperation. Therefore, military students should master all four basic skills in English language to perform better in military and to be military officers with desirable characters in the future.

Previous studies have presented the needs of English among military officers and military students which considered their perceptions towards the importance of English, and their levels of basic skills in English language. Surjeet (2011) conducted a study on English language needs of the Malaysian military officers, the findings showed that listening, speaking, reading and writing skills are important to the three military services; army, navy and air force. However, he has highlighted that the courses for army junior officers should be conducted at least 75% in English language. Orna-Montesinos (2013) investigated the perceptions and attitudes of Spanish Armed Forces towards using English and the result revealed that English is important in military context. Speaking was also found to be more challenging compared to
writing due to their poor communication skill. In contrast, Elamin, Ahmed, and Osman (2017), in their study of analyzing English language needs among Sudanese military students in the perspective of the instructors, the result indicated that they faced difficulties in mastering writing skill as many aspects need to be considered such as grammar, choice of words and military terms. However, no study has been conducted in investigating English language needs among Malaysian military students in the students’ perspectives. Thus, this paper presented the analysis of English language needs of Malaysian military students and their level of four basic skills in the language.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The research design used was quantitative in nature. A survey-based questionnaire was adopted from Elamin, Ahmed, and Osman (2017) in their study of investigating needs analysis of English language productive skills among the students of the Sudanese Joint Command & Staff College (JCSC) and Surjeet (2011) in his study of English language needs of the Malaysian military officers which included the four basic skills in English. The survey was aimed to look at the awareness of English language needs among military students of the National Defense University of Malaysia (NDUM), and their abilities in using the language. The questionnaire was divided into two parts; the first part presented demographic questions such as gender, program of study, year of study, and type of military service. The second part explored the awareness of English language needs among the students and their levels of four basic skills in English language which was divided into five sections; English language needs for military purposes, writing, speaking, reading and listening skills. This part was measured using five ranges of Likert-Scale, from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The questionnaires were distributed to thirty-five cadet officers out of two thousand students by using convenience sampling. This sampling method was used for its relative cost and time and also for the purpose of conducting the pilot study to ensure the validity of the study. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software were used to analyze the data. The reliability test for the items has been done and the result showed higher values for all variables of each section which exceeded the value of 0.8.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants of this study consist of 60% female and 40% male cadet officers from three services; army, navy and airforce. This study has found that English is very important to be used in military settings and majority of the students performed desirable skills in all aspects of the English language. The result has been divided into five sections; English for military purposes, writing skill, speaking skill, reading skill and listening skill. For the first section, all participants agreed that English is important to be used in different military settings (100%) and they need to learn English to improve their military career (97.2%). From the section of writing skill, about 80% of the students claimed that they are able to write correct short sentences and paragraphs in English and there were some students who claimed they are unable to write various military topics in English (11.5%). For the speaking section, they claimed that they can exchange fewer short expressions with each other (82.8%) but 14.4% of them are lack of ability in discussing various military topics in English. For their reading skill, they claimed they can read and comprehend various English language topics (94.3%) and only few students that unable to deduce the meaning of words in English texts (2.9%). For the last section, the students have the ability to listen to English context, guess the meanings (80%) and they have intrinsic motivation to improve their listening skill (82.9%). Besides, they have also been introduced to various types of reading (88.6% agreed) and listening (88.5% agreed) in English. However, about four students (11.5%) are lack of writing skill, five students (14.4) are lack of speaking skill, and only one is lack of reading skill. No student claimed that they are lack of listening skill.

Based on the findings presented above, speaking skill was seems as the most challenging followed by writing and reading skills. The students have no problem for their listening skill. The similar result showed by Orna-Montesinos (2013) in his study, speaking was also found to be more challenging among Spanish Armed Forces because of their poor communication skill. However, the subjects for the present study only revealed some poor skills from the three aspects as some of the Malaysian military students have difficulties to write about, to discuss, and to deduce meanings of the military topics. As the researcher experienced as one of the military students in her previous study at the same institution, the cause that lead to lack of speaking skill among the students is they are using their native language while speaking with others outside the class. They have also not been taught about English grammar in their writing as they have supposedly
learned it from schools. Concerning this issue, some recommendations have been suggested for the instructors in providing relevance materials and teaching methods in English courses to ensure interactive participation among the students. The instructors should make use various sources for teaching materials as been postulated by Likaj (2013) such as newspaper, magazines, military journals, military academic books and military websites. To improve teaching methods, the students should be sitting in a group and actively discuss the current military issues and do presentations regularly about various military topics. Besides, they should also do more practice on reading and writing to improve their grammar and to master English spelling. Punishment such as give a random talk in English in front of class should be given for those who fail to contribute in doing the tasks. Other than that, a suggestion for further research is to explore the level of English skills of military officers in real military environments such as Medan TD Camp in Sungai Besi and MK 4 Divisyen in Kem Wardieburn, Kuala Lumpur.

CONCLUSION
As a conclusion, this study investigates the English language needs of military students and their abilities in using the language in terms of writing, speaking, reading and listening. The result revealed English is important for military purposes and speaking skill as the most challenging among the NDUM students, followed by writing and reading skills. These skills can be improved by providing effective teaching techniques and good sources to attract students’ attention. Encourage them to engage in an interactive group discussion, do more valuable presentations, practice writing and reading regularly and use different types of teaching aids may help them to improve their skills. Effective punishments which help them to ensure the improvement of their English skills should also be given for those who are not committed in doing the tasks. Thus, the ability to possess desirable English skills among military students will contribute them to perform better as military leaders in the future.

REFERENCES
Oral Communication Strategies Use in Question and Answer Sessions between Students and a Lecturer in ESL Classroom

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ABSTRACT
ESL students often face difficulties to maintain an interaction due to linguistic deficiencies; thus, they employ different types of oral communication strategies (OCSs): gestures, fillers and paraphrasing to name a few, to achieve the intended meaning. This study aims to meet the following objectives: to analyse the types and the frequency of OCSs used by ESL students, to examine problems that have made students choose specific OCSs and to investigate how useful the OCSs used during question and answer sessions. This mixed-method research design study with 17 ESL students employs the Interactionist Theory and Psycholinguistic Theory. The quantitative data were gathered from OCSs questionnaires, and were analysed via descriptive statistics whereas qualitative data which were collected via audio-video recordings, observations and semi-interviews were analysed via text analysis. One of the findings revealed that lower proficiency students should be exposed to more OCSs via task-based teaching approach.

KEYWORDS: Oral communication strategies, communicative competence, task-based teaching

INTRODUCTION
To communicate successfully means to deliver the intended messages effectively. However, ESL students face difficulties to maintain an interaction due to linguistic deficiency, and lack of L2 resources. When there is a mismatch between students’ communication purpose and linguistics insufficient, students tend to employ different types of language devices to compensate for language deficit. Some of these strategies are paraphrasing, appeal for assistance, miming, fillers and hesitance devices, to name a few. These language tools are what we defined as oral communication strategies (OCSs). Corder (1983) has defined communication strategies as techniques employed by a speaker to convey his or her meaning when encountering some difficulties. In this current study, oral communication strategies used by ESL students during classroom question and answer sessions will be explored in-depth with three prominent objectives: first, to analyze the types and frequencies of OCSs used by the ESL students; secondly, to examine the causes behind the chosen types of OCSs and lastly, to investigate how useful OCSs are used during question and answer session

To communicate orally in English is undoubtedly crucial as most people around the globe are multilingual. Not only in business, is the mean of communication in tertiary education completely in English too. Usually, college students will be assigned to do various oral presentations as part of their continuous assessments. These oral presentations can be about concepts, theories, experience-sharing and proposal presentations. Typically, when students have done the oral presentation, they will be receiving some feedback and questions from the class lecturer to clarify some doubts, or to check students’ understanding of what they have presented. Here is when the researcher has noticed that students struggle to answer the questions even though the questions are formed from the input given by the students and from the class lecture.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Research Design
This current study has employed a mixed method research design as to have an in-depth study for the students' oral communication production. Not only that, but the data were also collected by utilising mixed-methods data collections to attain rich data in both approaches.
Sampling methods and Participants

The present study has used a purposive sampling method in which, the samples were gathered based on the researcher’s focus and issues that the researcher wish to address (Kongsom, 2009). There were 17 Interior Design year two students were chosen based on the researcher’s observation and speaking issues that were critically in need of improvement in students’ way of learning and speaking teaching techniques. Generally, they are relatively similar in terms of educational background in which most have been exposed to English education for 12-15 years. In terms of proficiency level, they are all pre-intermediate level (the results were based on the placement test before the college admission). Mostly have scored B, B+ and C+ in their English 1 subject in the previous semester. In other words, these students were chosen because they shared almost the same educational background in which will help the researcher to gain an in-depth investigation of students' OCSs use.

Self-report - Oral Communication Strategy Questionnaires

A thirty-three five-point likert- scale of self-report questionnaires by Kongsom (2009) has been adopted to examine how students have personally perceived OCSs after they had completed the communicative tasks. This questionnaire was chosen because it was developed from various related taxonomies by some well-known scholars on OCSs: Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1990), Dornyei (1995), and Dornyei and Scott (1997) and it fits well with the research objectives of the current study.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher has conducted a 2 hour-lecture on personal grooming for a formal business setting which includes the following aspects: mouth hygiene, hairstyle and colour, nail, attire colour and style, body gestures and posture, footwear and accessories. When the lecture session has done, students were assigned to present the ideas in a group of 5 members. Each group was assigned to present on two tasks:

Task 1: students have to elaborate on the differences in terms of grooming of two men in the pictures displayed.

Task 2: students have to explain how the men in the pictures can groom themselves to portray professional-like manners in a business setting.

While they were presenting, the researcher observed and jotted down some questions to be used for question and answer (Q and A) sessions and for semi-interviews. At the same time, the whole Q and A sessions were recorded too by using an audio-video recording. When the presentation ended, question and answer sessions (Q and A) began to clarify and to confirm what the students were trying to explain to the audience. When all groups of students have presented and done with the Q and A sessions, they were given questionnaires to answer. However, before they started, the researcher had explained in details the parts of the questionnaires, the purpose and explain some possible vocabularies that students might not understand in the questionnaires.

Data analysis

As for the data analysis in quantitative data analysis phase, questionnaires which were used to answer research question one and three were analysed by using descriptive statistics whereas in qualitative data analysis phase, text-analysis was employed to analyse the data gathered from observations, semi-interviews and the audio-video recording to address the second research question. The data gathered in these two data analysis approaches were explained in -depth with interaction taxonomy, cognitive-based taxonomy and supported by two underpinning theoretical perspectives of interactionist theory (Tarone, 1980) and Psycholinguistics Theory (Faerch & Kasper, 1984).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question 1: What are the types and the frequencies of OCSs used by ESL students?

Based on the descriptive statistics analysis on self-report OCSs questionnaires, the order of most chosen OCSs types by ESL students are as follows: pauses, fillers and hesitation devices 30%, code-switching 18% and appeal for help 16%. The result on pauses, fillers and hesitations devices echoes with a study by Kongsom (2014) on OCSs during the presentation that this strategy on pauses, fillers and hesitation devices
has been ranked the first among all strategies. The result have revealed as such because question and answer sessions are regarded as a closed-type task in which students were given a context and aspect to cover. Hence, the ideas to be presented restricted their vocabulary only about personal grooming. Therefore, in this context, students have taken time to process and to recall the lesson that they had just learnt to answer the questions imposed by the class lecturer. In between of their Q and A sessions, they whispered to their friends in Chinese to get the words right in English in which L1 interference (code-switching strategy) appeared to be the second of mostly employed strategy (Ahmed, 2018). Besides that, the result has also indirectly depicted how students appealed for help from their groupmates for related lexical and phrases came the third as one of the most types of OCSs employed. Interestingly, there were 16 types of OCSs reflected on 32 items in the questionnaires; nonetheless, only ten types of OCS were used by the students. This has shown that students have utilised repeated types of OCS due to low proficiency level (Masithoh, Fuziati, and Supriyadi, 2018). The result is in the same vein as what Rosas (2018) has elucidated that proficiency level of the students much influences types of OCSs. In other words, students did not aware of OCSs types and their benefits in becoming better speakers.

**Research Question 2:** What has caused students to choose specific types of OCSs over other strategies in solving communicative tasks?

Based on the semi-structured interviews, observations and data gathered from the questionnaires; students have rated pauses, fillers and hesitation devices strategies as the most chosen type OCSs due to students were unable to find suitable words to express their ideas; thus, they took time to process the questions and recall English words. Some of them claimed that they had the points and ideas in Chinese but could not find suitable phrases in English. Similarly, code-switching has been rated as the second highest types of OCS because students have no confidence to express their opinions in English that have led them to speak among them in Chinese. This has also reflected on why they employed to appeal for help a lot too. Some students have also highlighted that they prefer to use gestures to convey the arguments as gestures help them to look confident. On top of that, non-linguistics strategies were chosen as one of the most ranked strategies as because they have pronunciation issues, no confidence to speak the words out as afraid of being laughed at in which gradually prone to abandon the interaction.

**Research Question 3:** How useful are these oral communication strategies (OCSs) during the question and answer session.

Based on the data from the communicative activities conducted and examined using Dornyei and Scott’s (1997) taxonomy, it revealed that, 65% of students have reported that OCSs were useful, 25% agreed that OCSs were very useful and the rest considered OCS as neutral. Overall, it can be concluded that ESL students have perceived OCSs during Q and A sessions as helpful to compensate for the linguistics deficiency.

**CONCLUSION**

To recapitulate, it is evident that ESL students have limited range of lexical that have caused them to employ the following types of OCSs: pauses, fillers and hesitant devices, code-switching and appeal for help. It can also be seen clearly from the used of only ten types of OCSs out of 16 types. Apart from that, the students have also reported that OCSs were useful during Q and A sessions. Thus, based on the findings, students should be exposed to more communicative tasks to elicit and encourage of OCSs use. In line with teaching via activities; hence, task-based teaching and learning is recommended concerning OCSs for future study.
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Students’ Perception towards Literature Component in English Subject

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ABSTRACT
This study looks at students’ perception towards the Personal Reading Log (PRL) assessment and their interest towards literature in general. English subjects known as ELC are mandatory subjects UiTM students need to take, starting from their first semester. The second ELC subject that they need to take is ELC 151 or in full, Integrated Language Skills II which is catered for reading skills. In this subject, there is one literature component consisting of several short stories given to the students in the forms of written texts for them to read, understand and analyse. For this study, a set of questionnaire is distributed to 30 students of various faculties who took ELC 151 subject for semester September until January 2019 to gather their perceptions towards literature in general and specifically towards its integration in the ELC 151 PRL assessment. The results show that the students were particularly interested in the execution of the PRL assessment especially in the choice of short stories. They also showed high interests in reading the written versions of the short stories as well as literature in general. Improved grammar and enhanced vocabulary were among the students’ most cited pedagogic benefits of having the literature-based assessment while learning moral values from the stories, as agreed by majority of the students, was the PRL’s cognitive and emotional merit. With this positive findings, it is hoped that more literature components will be integrated into English subjects in the future.

KEYWORDS: Short story, students’ perception, students’ interest, ELC151, Literature component

INTRODUCTION
This study examines students’ perception and their interests towards one particular literature component integrated into their English language syllabus. The English subject is known as ELC 151 which is catered for students who are enrolling in their second semester of study in UiTM. It is a compulsory subject which focuses on reading skills. For this study, the method used is qualitative in the form of questionnaire distribution as a main tool of data collection for the purpose of analysis. In particular, this study specifically aims to delve deeper into the minds and thoughts of the students to find out their actual perception and interest towards literature in general because it has been so long believed that literature is a rather difficult topic to be learned outside of Literature course classrooms. One thing that this integration of literature into English subject has been proving is that with the right approach and method, literature knowledge can be taught in language classroom and can even in fact enhance the language learning itself to another level by which cannot be otherwise achieved without its vital integration. The learning is becoming more interesting and dynamic as students get to learn things which are not only language-related and technical. By integrating literature, language learning can prove to be more involving and engaging for students due to various important reasons.

The language learning and literature have always been associated in many studies. They are separate entities by default but can be integrated into one learning platform for students. Literature proves to provide
countless benefits for students in the classroom. Within the proper environment of study with the right method by the teachers or lecturers, literature can be part of or the main tool in delivering language skills-specific subjects or language subjects in general particularly English subjects. In UITM, students enrolling in the university are made compulsory to take the English subjects known as ELC and different codes are assigned for different semesters. Students in Semester 1 take ELC 121 while students in Semester 2, 3 and 4 take ELC 151, ELC 231 and ELC 270 respectively. For ELC 151, the subject specialises in reading skill. In preparing students for exams and encouraging them to read more actively, both intensive and extensive reading approaches are included in the syllabus.

This study is done purely to gather the information regarding the perception of students on the integration of literature in language learning class. These are the objectives this study:

1. To see students’ perceptions toward PRL assessment
2. To look at the students’ interest towards literature in general

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Learning

Learning foreign language poses its own challenges. Abdullah and Abduljabbar (2017) highlighted that learning foreign language can be tiring and complex with just inductive methods of grammar and rules which can affect learners’ motivation to be a proficient user of English. Literature, according to them, on the other hand offers many motivating stories and contexts where students do not necessarily learn through induction. It serves as motivation for the second language learner to be proficient in the language. This shows the benefits literary texts could offer to language learning.

It is best to incorporate literature earlier as possible as it speaks to the heart and mind of the young ones. Barone (2011) in her recent work in school discovered that literature helps in cognitive element where it is believed to be the mean for student to be skillful reader. She then emphasized having literature taught in school, ignites not only basic learning skills but also student’s emotional and intellectual drive. These drives make them curious and eager to read more and more as they would like to find out what is going to happen next. This gives hope for literature to not be excluded in the syllabus as it helps to further learner’s mastery of basic language areas like reading, speaking and so forth.

Moreover, in relation to literature as motivational agent in learning language, Watkins and Coffey (2004), said that even the most able or skillful students may not engage in reading if they lack motivation. Hence, in order to encourage students to read more, providing them with literature-based material might boost their interest in reading. Edmunds and Bauserman (2006) further added that teachers identify motivation to be correlated to the amount and breadth of children’s reading. This also supports the idea that by incorporating literature in the classroom, the sense of motivation to read for students will positively increase.

Next, in a study on the acquisition of literacy through literature, Langer (1997) indicated that the use of literature in the language classroom is very fruitful. “It is because, literature is a particularly inviting context for learning both a second/foreign language and literacy” (Langer, 1997). He further explains that there are three vital elements that students are able to reflect on via literature namely language, learning and their lives. These reflective approaches to teaching and learning of languages indicate that literature plays a pivotal role in helping young people gain insight of social and emotional learning.

Versaci (2001) in his journey to uncover the students’ attitude on literature posted a question of what literature is. He received mixed responses as some students regarded literature as something that makes them think about big ideas while some others took literature as difficult. Students, in this study, also regarded literary component as good and important. The mixed views here show the potential of literature being incorporated in language learning with some challenges present.

Furthermore, choosing literary texts to be used in class can be quite a challenge, but once chosen, such texts can be used to develop understanding and foster students’ insight into human nature. In literature curricula, numerous choices must be made in terms of what kind of texts are read in the classroom, what these texts are about, and to which extent they can be characterized as fictional or literary texts. In addition, genres that are assumed to appeal to adolescent students might also be used to attract them to read, such as song
or graphic novels. Canadian teenagers regarded reading fictional texts as a way of understanding others’ experiences, which made them feel connected to others and offered new possibilities for their own lives (Rothbauer, 2011). One’s own nature and the nature of both fictional and real-world others may be nurtured in literature education.

On the same note, Erkaya (2005, as cited in Subarna, Hairuzila, Bhattacharyya & Shahrina, 2017) noted that through the integration of literature in the syllabus, students will be able to learn reading, writing, speaking and listening skills more effectively due to the motivation, literary, cultural and high-order thinking advantages it supplies. This strengthens the fact that literary texts can produce positive impacts, not only, on students’ language learning, but also on their social and emotional beings, achieved through the reading of multicultural literary products. Literary reading may also help to examine ourselves and to think about how we relate to others and life in general. Plus, one who reads fictional texts perceive connections with their own lives and are able to understand others.

**METHODOLOGY**

This is a qualitative study on the perception of students towards one of the key assessments in the English subject known as ELC 151 taken by Part 2 of UITM students. The study utilises questionnaire as the main tool in data-gathering process. The questionnaire consists of some background questions and 5 main items concerning the topic of this study.

The questionnaire was distributed to 30 respondents from various faculties, involving students doing Diploma in Banking (BA119), Public Administration (AM110) and Office Management and Technology (BA118) of UITM Pahang Raub and Jengka campuses.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Question 1 surveys on whether or not the students liked the short stories they read for PRL assessments. They read Guy de Maupassant’s *The Necklace*, Zuraidah Omar’s *Twelve and Not Stupid*, Reeta Mani’s *Mango Moods*, Amy Tan’s *Two Kinds*, Maheswary Ponnusamy’s *Desperate Measures* and Felisa Daskeo’s *The Mistress*. Overall, the majority of respondents said that these stories were interesting and gave them many life lessons and knowledge. On the minority side, some respondents did express that they did not like the short stories and the reasoning behind this goes back to their understanding and interpretations of the story which was affected by the nature of the short stories selected in the first place. Hence, it is pertinent that the selection of the short stories to be used in PRL is to be done more carefully in the future.

In light with the positive responses from Question 1, most of the respondents agreed that the use of literature should be continued as one of the assessments in the ELC subject in Question 2. The vast majority of 87% or 26 out of 30 respondents supported that the assessment should be continued. The reasons given by the respondents for their agreement include improving students’ language skills such as grammar and vocabulary as well as enhancing knowledge in literature. The minority of 13% or 4 out of 30 respondents who did not agree with this question expressed that the assessments were too difficult and that they personally did not like reading.

Question 3 focuses on students’ preferences to have more assessment using literature component in their studies. 73% of the respondents agreed that more assessments incorporated to literature component should be conducted. The students seemed very interested in literature especially short stories. Based on the survey, majority students (40%) claimed that literature does improve their English. Through literature, they learn new vocabularies and textual interpretation techniques, which also improve their language proficiency (Chapman, 2012). The improvement of students’ proficiency level can be seen in the assessment where they are required to respond to a question based on the texts that they read. From the survey, 33% of the respondents agreed to have more assessment related to literature component because they like literature. These students saw that dealing with literature texts is fun. According to Tevdovska, E. S. (2016), literary texts are highly motivating since they promote the readers to blend the information given in the texts and their real life. Since most of them took literature in secondary schools, they already have the basic idea of how to deal with literary texts. These students do not read literary texts for the assessment only but also to improve their reading skills, literary skills and to learn the values offered from the text. In general, it can be said that the respondents have a very positive attitude toward literary texts and they prefer to have more assessment related to it.
Question 4 deals with the matter on whether or not the students agreed with the fact that there should be a specific subject exclusively on literature. The majority of respondents however did not agree for various reasons. From 63% or 19 respondents who did not agree with this question, 5 of them expressed that a literature subject would be irrelevant to them while another 5 students thought that the existing ELC subject is already enough. The next majority of 4 respondents believed that it will be time consuming to have another subject on literature or that they supposed they would not have much time to read. Moreover, 2 students stated that an exclusive subject on literature may or will be too much or difficult. Lastly, one respondent showed disinterest towards literature subject implementation.

Question 5 gathers students’ responses on whether they find learning literature beneficial. All of them agreed that learning literature is beneficial with an array of reasons given to support their agreement. Majority students (47%) saw learning literature as a way to improve their English skills like grammar, writing and speaking skills. Literature too helps in students’ vocabulary expansion as students admitted that the literature component embedded in ELC151 allows them to learn “more words”. In relation to students’ improvement in language skills, the positive responses shown towards literature component have been well researched as similar findings were recorded in the past studies. In discussing the reasons which led a language teacher’s employment of literature in a classroom, Collie and Slater (1990 as cited in Hişmanoğlu, 2005) listed language enhancement as one of them as literature, claimed by these researchers “provides learners with a wide range of individual lexical or syntactic items” (p.55). On the same note, Hall (2015) claimed that literature is an ideal means for language learning, given its careful selection of language uses and patterns which is significant in students’ learning of form and meaning.

To 13% of the student respondents, learning literature is beneficial as it exposes them to the world of literature itself. The use of literary texts in a language classroom, without doubt, can bring literary world closer to the second or foreign language learners – an experience which is mostly benefitted by the students of English Language and Literature, but not by learners from other fields. In relation to this, a study on the aims and objectives of teaching English literature to Swedish upper-secondary students found that exposing students to literature gives the opportunity for them “to enjoy the world of literature” as well as “to widen their knowledge of literature” itself (Norling, n.d; p.9) This echoes the current study’s finding when the ELC151 students themselves saw the literary component included in the English code gave them the same opportunity – the chance to know more about literature and literary texts of their choice such as Mango Moods by Reeta Mani, Amy Tan’s Two Kinds and The Necklace, authored by Guy de Maupassant.

In addition to language enhancement, students (10%) also saw literary texts as having a lot of “moral values” that people can learn. The cognitive and emotional engagement generated from students’ reading of conflicting relationship between a Chinese immigrant mother and her Asian American daughter in Amy Tan’s ‘Two Kinds’ for instance, proves literature’s capability to infuse students with a variety of things other than the knowledge of language form. Students’ exposure to moral values presented in a literary text here reflects literary writer John Gardner’s claim that “…art should be moral and that the first business of criticism, at least some of the time, should be to judge works of literature (or painting or even music) on the ground of the production’s moral worth” (2005, p.3). In general, our findings here therefore show students’ positive responses toward literary component used in ELC151.

The same responses were gathered when we asked the students if they gained benefits from reading one particular form of literature which is short story. All 30 respondents saw reading short stories as beneficial, with two recurring reasons cited. 47% of them reported language enhancement being the major benefit while 17% reiterated the emotional engagement established through their identification of the moral values found in the texts. 2 respondents found reading short stories was a good way to fill their time with another 2 associated the benefits of reading short stories with their joyful and easy reading experience. The joyful and easy reading experience of short stories as claimed by the respondents here derives from what Lohafer (2003, p. 2) called, its “manageability”, allowing short story to be tucked “into a curriculum, squeezed into a class period and used as a “demo” for the elements of fiction and the issues of the day” Generally, we gathered mostly positive feedbacks from students regarding their perceived benefits of reading short stories.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussions, it can be said that the perceptions of the students vary according to many factors. Generally, they showed some real interests toward a literature-based assessment and the
majority of them also agreed that such assessment of PRL should be continued in the future on top of giving good feedbacks mostly toward the selected materials or the short stories being used for the assessments. Interestingly enough, it can be noted that from the survey done, majority of the respondents showed positively high interest towards the literature itself and believed that it is beneficial for students particularly on reading short stories. After all, as Lantolf & Thorne (2006) put it, “…developmental processes take place through participation in cultural, linguistic, and historically formed settings,” It highlights the importance of learning culture as much as it develops a person. Through literature there are various cultural elements which are involved. Hence, by integrating literature, students’ developmental process and understanding in language learning can occur at a higher and more efficient rate.

REFERENCES
Abdullah H. Alfauzan & Abduljabbar G. Hussain. (2016) Attitude towards and Perception of Literature in EFL Setting: A Case Study on QU Male Undergraduate Students College of Arabic & Social Studies, Qassim University, Buraydah, Saudi Arabia
Self-Efficacy of English Education Students in a Private University in Makassar: A Comparison across Batches

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ABSTRACT
Teacher’s self-efficacy has been linked with their positive performance and it starts developing in their study time at university. Therefore, curriculum at university plays an important role to create a gradual increase of the student teacher’s self-efficacy. So the students with higher academic year should have a better level of self-efficacy. This research aimed at finding out the efficacy for student engagement, instructional strategy, and classroom management of the English Education students in four different years of intake. The study was conducted in one of the reputable private Universities in Makassar, Indonesia. A Short Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) was employed as questionnaire tool to collect data. The data obtained from 122 students was computed using SPSS with non-parametric test. The result indicated that the lowest three aspects of self-efficacy level were found in the last two years of their study whereas the highest self-efficacy level was found in the first two years students. This research suggests the importance of modifying a curriculum which can assure that the self-efficacy increase during their academic study.

KEYWORDS: Self-efficacy, Student teachers, English education, Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy

INTRODUCTION
Self-efficacy is a term coined by Albert Bandura (1977). He defines it as a level of confidence in completing a given task in specific domain. In teaching, self-efficacy means the assessment of teachers’ ability to teach successfully even though they must deal with less motivated students (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 1998). Furthermore, Teachers with high efficacy have the desire to achieve higher, high expectations for their students, a strategy to achieve their goals, responsible for their students, a positive outlook on teaching and they can influence their students' learning (Ashton, 1984). Teachers with high self-efficacy are important to have in schools to have successful teaching and learning.

Research suggest that the education system should improve self-efficacy of student teachers (Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011; Arslan & Karamese, 2018; Wenner, 2001). Furthermore, Teachers’ self-efficacy starts to grow when they start their study in university (Spector, 2004; Wenner, 2001, and Martin 1989) and it is easier to be established when are studying at university (Arslan & Karamese, 2018). Therefore, it is very important to create an educational system or curriculum that also helps students to develop their self-efficacy. The current study aims to find out the student’s self-efficacy in four different batches because if the curriculum is successfully developing the self-efficacy then the higher the student’s academic year the higher their self-efficacy. There are three aspects of self-efficacy that are going to be measured, self-efficacy of classroom management, instruction, and student engagement.

The student’s self-efficacy development is complex because it is linked to many factors. There are nine most influential factors to the their self-efficacy: subject matter comprehension; intrinsic motivation to be successful; working in team; computing skills; student supports and its accessibility; working on assignments issues; problem-solving skills; personal feelings on course and its materials (enjoyment, satisfaction and interest); and grades earned during their study (Hutchison, Follman, Sumpter, and Bodner, 2013). The other things that play an important role in the development of the students’ self-efficacy are family supports (Turner, Chandler, &Heffer, 2009) and mothers, professors, as well as romantic partners (Alfaro, Weimer, and Castillo, 2018). Students in different batch could encounter different factors that
could influence their self-efficacy. This would result in different level of self-efficacy in the different academic year.

**MATERIALS AND METHOD**

The research object is the English education students in highly reputable private university in the field in Makassar. For confidentiality reason, we did not mention the university name. There are 122 respondents from 4 different batch, 30 students in 2015, 27 in 2016, 34 students in 2017, and 31 students in 2018.

This study employed a modified questionnaire of Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). This questionnaire was given to one class in each batch. The class was chosen randomly.

A Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschennen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) is one of the most used scales in self-efficacy. It was used to measure the pre-service and in-service teacher’s sense of self-efficacy. Originally the scale consists of 24 questions but it has a short version which consists of 12 questions. The short version was used to measure English teachers’ self-efficacy by Chacon (2005). In the modified scale, there are overall 12 questions. Respondents will answer the questions with 1-nothing, 3-very little, 5-some influence, 7-quite a bit, and 9-a great deal. This scale was translated into Bahasa Indonesia to ensure that all participants understood the questions and responses. Translating the scale into the participant’s language was important to avoid bias due to the cultural differences (King, Murray, Solomon, & Tandon, 2004).

The reliability test result indicated that the Cronbach’s alpha for overall was 0.90. Furthermore, for the self-efficacy in engagement, instruction, and management the Cronbach’s alpha was 0.81, 0.86, and 0.89 respectively (Tschennen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

All the obtained data were analysed using SPSS with independent t-test. The mean scores of all three aspects of self-efficacy then calculated in the basis of academic year. This means each construct would be divided into four groups, the students in batch 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018. Each construct would consist of four means; means in year 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018. The mean in each year would be computed and the result would indicate the mean score in each year. It was expected that the higher the students batch the higher their self-efficacy.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The study used a nonparametric test to be specific Kruskal-Wallis because the normality test for the data was not fulfilled. The consequence of using this statistical test was that the data were compared only every two years (Tables 1-2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Ranks based on the intake year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intake Year N Mean Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015 30 44.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016 27 52.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017 34 72.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018 31 73.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction_Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015 30 54.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016 27 50.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017 34 81.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018 31 55.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom_Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015 30 48.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016 27 46.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017 34 83.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018 31 62.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Kruskal-Wallis test results showed that the data distribution in self-efficacy of engagement, instructional strategy, and classroom management in the 4 year categories are significant because the values are .001, .001, .000 respectively. These are below 0.05 which means that Mann-Whitney can be carried out to find out whether the mean difference between one year and the year after are significant or not.

Interestingly based on the mean, it can be seen that efficacy for engagement is the only one that shows the opposite pattern, the higher the students' academic year the lower their efficacy level. The mean scores in 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018 are 44.87, 52.00, 72.38, and 73.94. While Efficacy for instructional strategy and classroom management tend to fluctuate. Efficacy for instructional strategy shows the mean data in 2015, 2016, 2017, and 2018 are 54.62, 50.13, 81.94, and 55.65 respectively. Similar trend can also be seen in efficacy for classroom management where the mean four years are 48.88, 46.17, 83.74, and 62.68. Both data are similar. The lowest values are in 2016 and followed by 2015. To sum up, year 2015 and 2016 are the lowest self-efficacy values compared to the other two year values (Table 3).

Table 3. Comparison between 2015 and 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intake Year</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27.28</td>
<td>818.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>30.91</td>
<td>834.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction_Strategy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29.97</td>
<td>899.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.93</td>
<td>754.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom_Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.98</td>
<td>869.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29.02</td>
<td>783.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Mann-Whitney test results for 2015 and 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Engagement</th>
<th>Instruction_Strategy</th>
<th>Classroom_Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>353.500</td>
<td>376.000</td>
<td>404.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>818.500</td>
<td>754.000</td>
<td>869.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-.830</td>
<td>-.466</td>
<td>-.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>.994</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results in Table 4, in the three aspects the p-values of the Engagement, Instruction Strategy, and Classroom Management are .407, .641, .994. They are all greater than .05, which means that there are
no significant differences in the three aspects of self-efficacy in 2015 and 2016. Tables 5 and 6 show the results of comparison between the three aspects in 2016-2017.

Table 5. Comparison between 2016 and 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intake Year</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24.98</td>
<td>674.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>35.78</td>
<td>1216.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction_Strategy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21.94</td>
<td>592.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>38.19</td>
<td>1298.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom_Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19.63</td>
<td>530.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40.03</td>
<td>1361.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Mann-Whitney test results for 2016 and 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Engagement</th>
<th>Instruction_Strategy</th>
<th>Classroom_Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>296.500</td>
<td>214.500</td>
<td>152.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>674.500</td>
<td>592.500</td>
<td>530.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-2.388</td>
<td>-3.574</td>
<td>-4.498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Grouping Variable: Intake Year

As shown in Table 6, the p values for all the three aspects in 2016-2017 are significantly different because the values are all below .05.

Tables 7 and 8 show the results of comparison between the three aspects in 2017-2018.

Table 7. Comparison between 2017 and 2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intake Year</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32.29</td>
<td>1098.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33.77</td>
<td>1047.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction_Strategy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>39.49</td>
<td>1342.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25.89</td>
<td>802.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom_Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>38.35</td>
<td>1304.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27.13</td>
<td>841.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the results of Table 8, the efficacy for engagement is not significant because the p value is .750 while in efficacy for instructional strategy and classroom management are significantly different because the values are .004 and .016.

**DISCUSSION**

*Efficacy for Engagement*

The mean scores of the students from year 4 (2015), 3(2016), 2(2017), and 1(2018) were 44.87-52.00-72.38-73.94 respectively. This shows that the higher the student batches the lower their self-efficacy of engagement. This finding is alarming because the lowest self-efficacy of engagement was in the students in the year 4. This means that the higher the students’ batch does not guarantee that their efficacy would be higher even though they have been learning for more years.

*Efficacy for Instructional Strategy*

Efficacy for Instructional strategy indicated a fluctuate trend from 2015 to 2018. The results were 54.62-50.13-81.94-55.65 respectively. The results were also interesting because year 4 was the second lowest self-efficacy for engagement and year 2016 was the lowest. They have been studying for about 4 and 3 years but their efficacy is lower compared to their juniors.

*Efficacy for classroom management*

Efficacy for classroom management had a fluctuate trend. It was similar to the efficacy for instructional strategy. The mean from 2015 students to 2018 students were 48.88-46.17-83.74-62.68. The students from batch 2015 had the second lowest self-efficacy for classroom management and batch 2016 was the second low. The result of the study was shocking because the students in the year 4 and year 3 had the lowest self-efficacy. In year 4, the student’s efficacy for engagement was the lowest whereas self-efficacy for instructional strategy and classroom management were the second lowest. The lowest self-efficacy for instruction strategy and classroom management were in the year 3 and the in that year efficacy for engagement was the second lowest. It can be said that the students in the year 3 and 4 had the lowest self-efficacy level. In fact, they were about to finish their study and enter the profession which according the previous study (Weinstein, 1988) they would decrease because they are shock with the teaching reality.

In the year to year comparison, it can be identified that the year 2 and year 3 were the most significantly different. The students in year 2 had significantly higher self-efficacy in the three aspects that their counterparts in year 3. It is supposed to be reversed where the 3 year students should had higher self-efficacy then the 2 year student.

To sum up, educational system should ensure that the curriculum is developing the students self-efficacy as it is proposed by many experts (e.g. Pendergast, Garvis, & Keogh, 2011; Arslan & Karamese, 2018; Wenner, 2001). So, by the end the student’s academic year their self-efficacy should be the highest so when they encounter reality shock their efficacy would not decrease significantly.

**CONCLUSION**

The student teachers’ study time is crucial moment to develop their self-efficacy gradually. Therefore, curriculum should ensure that the students’ self-efficacy of the senior students is better than their juniors.
However, the present study indicated that the self-efficacy of the students who are about to finish their study are low compared to the students in the year 1 and 2. Therefore, this study concludes that it is highly important to create a curriculum which ensures the student’s self-efficacy development. All the teaching and learning process in earlier year should be the basis to improve the next year self-efficacy. Therefore, the higher the student’s academic year the higher their self-efficacy will be.

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Developing Speaking Skills through Meta-Rings

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ABSTRACT
Speaking is one of the skills tested in Malaysian University English Test (MUET), a proficiency test conducted in Malaysia to qualify a student to enrol in all public universities in Malaysia. A prevalent problem that always arises among our students is the ability to produce salient ideas to respond to the tasks. We use META-RINGS as a tool to assist students in generating ideas for the speaking task. This paper intends to identify students’ ability to generate ideas using META-RINGS and to investigate the effectiveness in expanding ideas. This is to equip students with the skills of expanding ideas in classroom speaking practices. This study focuses on two sample groups of students at pre-tertiary level. There is empirical proof that that students’ ability to speak fluently is the combination of language competency and acquired knowledge. Therefore, we believe that the language competency and the acquired knowledge can be stretched out efficiently with the use of META-RINGS.

KEYWORDS: Meta-Rings, speaking, assessment, MUET, mind maps

INTRODUCTION
Speaking is an act of conveying thoughts and ideas across. It is a crucial and essential skill in the teaching and learning of the English language as it is often seen as a skill that any students should be equipped with as they prepare for future endeavours. In the Malaysian educational context, English Language speaking skill has been tested in accordance to its status as a second language and has undergone a multitude of changes in terms of syllabus to suit the needs of the times. The MUET is a test which acquires the candidates to demonstrate their proficiency across four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. In the MUET University English Speaking Test, the candidates are assessed based on their ability to give individual presentations and take part in group discussion. This assessment covers accuracy, fluency, appropriacy, coherence and cohesion, use of language functions, ability to manage discussion and task fulfillment (The MUET booklet of Regulations, Test Specifications, Test Specifications, Test Format and Sample Questions, 1999).

The objective of the MUET is “to measure the English Language proficiency of pre-university students for entry into tertiary education” (1999:6). Therefore, the MUET Speaking Test requires the students to demonstrate their ability to give salient point of views when they respond to the tasks given. Being a test that requires the candidates to respond to the tasks in a limited time frame, the MUET has turned out to be a challenging feat for students as they are not familiar with such tests at primary and secondary levels. The candidates are given two minutes each to prepare for the individual presentation and group discussion. The candidates have the liberty to prepare their points in any way they deemed fit. Therefore the two minutes which are given should be utilised fully in order to perform well in the task. Candidates need to brainstorm ideas in order to generate salient points. With this in mind, this paper intends to find out about students types of responses and also to find out about the effectiveness of Meta- Rings as a mind mapping method for generating ideas by association. Mind-mapping, after all, is an ideal thinking strategy as it can be used for generating, visualising, organising, note-taking, problem-solving, decision-making, revising and clarifying(Writing Centre Learning Guide, University of Adelaide, 2014). Herein lies the main intent of this study, which is to identify students’ types of responses and to identify the effectiveness of using Meta-rings as a means of brainstorming ideas.
The effectiveness of these thinking strategies is essential, as in the Malaysian educational context, the Ministry of Education Malaysia and Agensi Inovasi Malaysia (AIM) have also introduced i-Think programme which promotes critical, analytical and creative thinking in the learning process by using eight thinking maps (circle map, bubble map, double bubble map, tree map, flow map, multi-flow map, brace map, and bridge map) that could be applied in virtually any lesson as an initiative to transform the culture of current education (Yunus & Chien, 2016). The two minutes given to prepare for the presentations in the Speaking task should be utilised to the maximum and it is paramount that students should be equipped with the necessary tools. Thus, brainstorming ideas should be taken as an initiative. Thus, the paper is set to find answers to these questions:

1. What are the ways students use to brainstorm ideas?
2. What are the effects of using Meta-rings in brainstorming ideas?

MATERIALS AND METHOD

The test material consisted of one guided mind-map (Meta-Rings) which was an adaptation from a circle map where it most commonly used in defining a concept. Meta-Rings is consist of three layers of rings which labelled accordingly Refer to Appendix 1. The first circle of Meta-Rings is label as Personal, the second ring Local and the third ring is label as Global. Meta-Rings was created as it is believed that it can help students to generate more varieties and matured ideas. These labelled rings are believed to be to assist students in brainstorming multi-level responses. The smallest ring was designed for Personal responses as according to Cambridge Dictionary Personal is defined as relating or belonging to a single or particular person rather than to a group or organization. This is why the ring was small as we want the students to challenge their mind in producing better, matured ideas. Local is defined as from, existing in, serving, or responsible for a small area, especially of a country. As the ring is expanding this somehow indicating to the students that more ideas or responses may/can be produced here. Lastly, the bigger ring; Global. According to the Cambridge Dictionary, it is defined as relating to the whole world: a global catastrophe/problem. When students are able to brainstorm for ideas/responses in this ring, it definitely shows that they are students who are knowledgeable and up-to-date.

Fifteen students of the Two-Year Programme of Melaka Matriculation College were involved in this research all had completed their first year and have been exposed to MUET Speaking Test. To prove that Meta-Rings able to assist students in brainstorming for better and matured ideas, a series of classes have been arranged. In this first class, the teacher has given students the general instructions for speaking practice; where the students received a question and they have two minutes to prepare for ideas/content. The teacher reminded students to use their preferred brainstorming style in preparing for the ideas. Once the time was up, the teacher discussed with the students on what they have brainstormed. This practice was done twice in an hour meeting. In the next meeting, the teacher introduced Meta-Rings to the students and explained how to use it in their speaking practices. After the intervention some improvement in the students' category of responses detected.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Before Meta-Rings is introduced</th>
<th>After Meta-Rings is introduced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 clearly shows that before the introduction of Meta-Rings students managed to at least present 1 point and the most were 2 points. Sample A shows, only 1 point while the rest of samples B, C and D, 2 points were presented. In contrast, after the introduction of Meta-Rings, all samples A, B, C and D managed to present 3 points. Just like Videl and Gomez-Senent (2004) stated quantity breeds quality as the greater the number of ideas generated, the greater the possibility of getting the best idea. Therefore, Meta-Ring helped the students to generate more ideas in speaking. Not only that, Meta-Ring helped students to diversify the type of their points to local and global points.

Table 2. Type of Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Response</th>
<th>Before using META-RINGS</th>
<th>After using META-RINGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal (P)</td>
<td>Local (L)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant B</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant D</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, we can see the types of responses produced by Participant A, B, C and D. Firstly, Participant A was only able to come up with 1 Personal point before using Meta-Rings and after using Meta-Rings, Participant A was able to come up with 2 Personal and 1 Local points. Secondly, for Participant B, before using Meta-Rings were able to come up with 2 Local points and after using Meta-Rings Participant B was able to up with 1 Personal, 1 Local and 1 Global points. Participant C was able to come up with 2 Personal points before using Meta-Rings and after using Meta-Rings, was able to produce 2 Local and 1 Global points. Finally, Participant D was able to come up with 1 Local and 1 Global points and after using Meta-Rings, Participant D was able to come up with 1 Personal, 1 Local and Global points.

Based on Table 2, all samples managed to produce a variety of responses using Meta-Rings compared before it was introduced to them. Albeit using their preferred brainstorming styles allow them to produce relevant responses, Meta-rings gives the opportunity to be more structured. According to Deshatty & Mokashi (2013) a mind map is considered a diagram used to represent the relationship of words, ideas, tasks, or other items connected to and arranged around a central key word or idea. The embedded circles designed in Meta-Rings assist learners to produce multi-level responses. This is how Meta-rings guides learners to produce ideas that is related to them personally and eventually branch out to bigger areas; locally and globally.

The result also shows that B, C and D were able to produce Global responses as we considered more matured and quality responses. They were able to give examples of international icon and give quotes that is relevant to the topic. This also allows learners to monitor their presentation as they could avoid redundancy. Besides, learners could develop their point maturely by showing a transition of ideas using
Meta-Rings. This is by sharing their responses starting from something that is closely related to them personally and later local examples and finally something on global level. Omar & AlBakri (2016) mention in Sovakendan, Jaganathan & Husain (2017) that mind map promotes the generation of ideas and helps students to improve both oral and written language. This is because, the mind map allows them to be more confident in presenting their ideas; a core component in communicating thoughts via visuals.

In the self-determination theory proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 1995) mentioned in Kim (2014), learners’ motivation can be classified into three different categories: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. There are many examples or factors that fall into these categories. Learners’ will to perform better in given task and achieve desired result are among them. By using Meta-Rings, learners are motivated to use the ‘given’ space in the mind map and either consciously or subconsciously, they feel the need to fill all the spaces as they are aware that in order to perform better, they have to produce relevant and matured responses by filling the space. This is also stated in a study by Adanez (2005) who found that some students were able to generate more ideas compared to others even though same amount of time were allocated either because they do not put in enough effort or they lack of motivation. So, this clearly shows that Meta-Rings could be a tool that motivates students to produce a variety of ideas.

Apart from that, all participants were able to give a variety of responses ranging from personal experience to local and global knowledge by using Meta-Rings. Compared to before Meta-Rings was introduced, their responses were limited in the sense that only mentioned points that were closely related to them or personal experience and local references. This is paralleled with the study conducted by Yunus and Chien (2016) where 92% respondents generally have positive responses to the use of mind mapping strategy in their MUET writing and they claimed that mind mapping does help them in writing. This is relevant with this study as participants also produced better points when using Meta-Rings as shown in Table 1.

CONCLUSION

Based on the research findings and discussion above, it can be generally concluded that, there is no one way to help students enhance their speaking skills. Some strategies might work for some students, some might not. Using Meta-Rings is one of the ways to help students develop their speaking skills by helping them expanding their ideas. By expanding their ideas from personal idea, to the local idea and moving on to the global idea, hopefully, it will show maturity in the contents when students do their classroom speaking activities and prepare them for the speaking assessment. Although the aims of the study have been achieved, due to time limitation, only a number of students were involved in the study. It was done on a small scale but for future studies, it can be done on a bigger scale to see whether Meta-Rings really helps students in improving their speaking skills. This study should be extended to involve more students from different institutions in order to make generalization over a larger group. Some beneficial implications of this study are, to encourage students to use Meta-Rings in expanding ideas for speaking task as it helps students to organise their ideas better and to show maturity in the ideas. Teachers and lecturers could benefit using Meta-Rings as it could assist in their teaching and learning process especially in improving their students’ speaking skills.
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Understanding Literacy and Content Learning in English: The Experience of EFL Students in Higher Education

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ABSTRACT
This paper presents a study that seeks to investigate the patterns of academic literacy practices of a group of multilingual EFL undergraduate students learning to acquire dominant academic literacies in English. The study uses social learning theory which recognises literacy as social practice and sees learning primarily in terms of collaboration in Communities of Practice (CoP). Data collection methods involved classroom observation, semi-structured focus group interview and document analysis. The findings of the study centred on the socialisation and enculturation of students’ academic literacies through two key literacy events namely the lecture and project work. The study established the significant contribution of the interactive lecture as the main contact zone in the students’ socialisation process into dominant academic literacies. It was found that teacher talk and dialogues around the pedagogic texts, typified by translating, paraphrasing, and multilingual language use, were crucial in the learning of target academic literacies in English. This study calls for a more grounded policy and pedagogic interventions that focus on applied and critical aspects of academic literacies which will bring students closer to target academic literacies in higher education.

KEYWORDS: Content area learning, English language, Communities of Practice, EFL, Higher Education

INTRODUCTION
The use of English language in Higher Education context is predominant across the academic domain. Majority of the textbooks, reference materials, and journal articles are written in English. At higher education levels, teaching content subjects in English has become a current trend worldwide (Crystal 2003; Coleman 2006; Graddol 2007). This is also happening in Malaysia. The undergraduate students at the tertiary level in Malaysia are expected to read books and references that are written in English. This creates problems to students whose first language is not English. In fact, research on English language learning in Malaysia suggests that English is not the second language to most Malaysians (Normazidah et al. 2012).

Academic learning in content areas requires learners to become proficient readers—they must be able to comprehend the texts they read, determine the meanings of unfamiliar words, make connections between ideas, draw conclusions based on the text and read closely to make informed inferences (Brenner 2015). Learners must do all these things even when the subject is unfamiliar and the text is difficult. Unfortunately, many learners are unable to read with the proficiency necessary for success in content area learning.

This study on academic literacy practices of multilingual EFL undergraduate students is undertaken to investigate the construction of situated literacy practices of a multilingual academic community. The underlying aim is to understand and illuminate the learners’ ways of doing and participating in that community. This study attempts to narrow the gap between the learners’ extant literacy practices in the English language and the demand placed by the academic community. Central to the theoretical framings of this study is the concept of literacy practices and literacy events (Barton & Hamilton 1998). Literacy practices do not only mean reading and writing habits but the broader social and cultural context (Street 1993) that provides for such habits to develop, to be sustained, and to flourish even in a new linguistic environment (Purcell-Gates 2007). This body of literature views literacy as ‘multiple’ and ‘social’, and best understood in its contexts of use.
This paper is a part of a larger study that investigates the ways multilingual/bilingual English language learners perceive and respond to literacy practices in English language in their content area learning. The aim of this paper is to discuss and elaborate on the significant contribution of the interactive lecture as the main contact zone in the students’ socialisation process into dominant academic literacies. This paper will deliberate on how teacher talk and dialogues around the pedagogic texts, typified by translating, paraphrasing, and multilingual language use, are crucial in the learning of target academic literacies in English.

**Academic Literacies**

This study is also informed by the notion of academic literacies that is developed within the work of New Literacy Studies (Lea 2008). An academic literacies perspective provides a way of understanding students’ reading and writing practices by highlighting the relationship between language and literacy learning in an academic context.

Leki (2007) defines academic literacies as “membership in[to] communities of academic readers and writers” (p.1). She relates academic literacy to the activity of interpretation and production of academic and discipline-based text often within important social contexts such as group-work project or written report, and relies profoundly on students’ experience with text. Street & Lefstein (2007) restate this assumption on academic literacies as “becoming academically literate involves learning to read, write and think in an academic way, which includes language and interaction amongst members of the institution” (p.211). Inherent in these definitions is the assumption that there are certain skills and level of ‘standard’ to be acquired before a person becomes academically literate and that an academic community has its own culture and discourse.

Becoming academically literate involves being able to read, write and respond to the text for their academic needs. Academic literacy practices is seen as *membershhipping* into specific discourse communities of readers and writers (Leki 2007; Purcell-Gates 2007). In sum, this study refers to academic literacies as being institutionalized into the discourse communities, of being able to read, write, and interact with text appropriate to the community.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study is framed within the qualitative research design (Leavy, 2018). The study uses multiple sources of data. The diagram below presents the instruments used for data collection.

![Diagram showing the methodology of the study](image)

**Figure 1. Summary of sources of data**
Twelve Year 2 students from the Faculty of Business in one public university were involved in this study. They were selected using purposive sampling. The rationale for using purposive sampling is to choose participants that are ‘information rich’ (Patton 2002) that can best help understand the phenomenon in hand.

Two content courses that were selected as the site for this study were Business Communication course and International Business course. The selection made was based on two criterions:

i. English language was used as the main medium of instruction for the course; teaching, assignments and class presentations were carried out in the English language.

ii. The course was a generic course for the faculty undergraduate students. The courses were faculty requirements (‘wajib fakulti’); which denoted that all faculty undergraduates must sit for the courses and obtain a pass. Failure to get a pass means the student has to re-sit for the courses.

These courses were compulsory courses for students in the second year of their study. During the first year of the study, these students had completed a number of basic and introductory courses such as Accounting for Management, Business Law, Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility, International Business and Organizational Behaviour.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

Two theories that fundamentally guide the study and inform the analysis of the study are the theories of literacy as social practice (Barton & Hamilton 2000) and Communities of Practice (Wenger 1998). The findings of the study revealed that the socialisation and acculturation processes into academic literacies in English among the EFL multilingual students were encapsulated in the interactions and socialisation that evolved around literacy events and practices in this CoP. Four key events were found to be central to the acquisition and socialisation into academic literacies among the undergraduate students in this study. These four events were:

1. class lecture,
2. tests, quizzes and written examinations,
3. assignments and project work,
4. oral presentations.

Figure 2 illustrates the relationship among the four events.
Through these four literacy events, learning takes place as students interact, participate and make meanings through interaction and engagement with the texts, the experts and content knowledge. Formal and informal interactions with the lecturers as well as the peers through these four events provide important brokering and socialisation elements in the students’ acquisition process. The findings of this study show that these four key events regulate the process of decoding, participating, experiencing and engaging with the content knowledge. These processes are instrumental to the acquisition of academic literacies in this academic setting. The findings of this study also demonstrate the centrality of socialisation and engagement in the process of acquiring, or membership into, academic literacies.

**Acquiring Academic Literacies through Interactive Lecture**

The class lecture was the most important event in this academic setting. It connected and anchored all four literacy events in the setting. Lectures were carried out once a week in the Dewan Kuliah (Figure 3).

Comments gathered from the students showed that lectures were an important event in their learning.

“*Lectures are important. I come to class because I want to listen to lectures*,

*Farhan*
“Coming to class] is more important [then reading on my own]. To me, whether I can fully understand or do not understand the lecture is not an issue ..but I have to come to class because there is always a new lesson we can learn”, Salleh

The lecture style used in this academic event depicts interactive lecture style. This is revealed through data on classrooms observations as well as students’ interview data. The lecturers posted short questions from time to time and students were expected to respond to ‘the prompt’. The students reported that they enjoyed the opportunity to orally interact with the teacher when the teacher asked questions.

The lecturers employed interactive delivery style, depicted by short, impromptu interactions and multilingual texts. The lecturer’s oral discourse was typified by short dialogues, short, straightforward vocabulary and multilingual language use. These characteristics were important and helpful as the students found the textbook texts as ‘long and used difficult vocabularies’. Below is an example of the lecturers’ oral texts.

Table 1: Characteristics of teacher’s discourse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speakers</th>
<th>Dialogues</th>
<th>Discourse characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>Ok, how about yang lain, how about the rest, how about this group, what proposal do you have, back behind this, how about behind there, the two guy there, white shirt another one with yellow t-shirt tu.</td>
<td>Short dialogues, less domain specific vocabulary, Inclusion of students’ L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Ss answered in group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>No? No proposal? Marriage proposal..? Not yet? Yes how about [you sitting] in front? You don’t involve in any student club (1) ? Do you involve in any club? Ok, recently you have done some proposal right, proposal you want to open what booth (2), or to get finance, conduct some functions, yes.. ok, anyone have prepared a proposal and your proposal have been rejected?</td>
<td>Yes/no question aimed to engage students into the lecture Activating students’ background knowledge by referring to common activities (1) and words found in students’ social domain (2).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, in this academic site, the lecturer’s oral text was very important to ensure comprehension and learning take place. The oral texts helped to translate and structure the content knowledge into meaningful input. One of the feature of the lecture’s oral text was the use of code-switching. Code-switching and code-mixing frequently emerged in the lecturers’ oral discourse. The lecturer deliberately used the students’ first language to explain the learning input. The extract below illustrates the case in point.

“Ok, once you graduated, you start working ok, definitely you‘d be doing a proposal, kalau paling simple pun, maybe proposal on what? Increase your budget for your pantry, ya, duit dapur, untuk you punya department, ok, as simple as thatlah, you may involve in doing a proposal,” Dr. Azlina.

The use of Malay structure such as ‘kalau paling simple pun’ was meant to ease students’ comprehension. In the same vein, words such as ‘duit dapur’ were carefully chosen from the students’ linguistics
background to ensure intelligibility and clarity. Similarly, the words ‘bangunan berparking’ in the example below would constructively yield good comprehension.

“The solution should be innovative and convincing. How you think you can reduce parking lots problem? What solution you may suggest to your university? Bangunan berparking? You have allocated a specific building, a building specifically for parking...”, Dr. Azlina

According to Dr. Nani, there were cases when they would resort to use Malay in their teaching, especially when they had to explain a difficult concept.

“Although I conduct my class in English but we also use the Malay language, when I have to. And when the examples in Malay can clearly convey a certain intended meaning, I use Malay. It’s more effective,” Dr. Nani.

The findings also suggest that students depended on the interactive lecture to help them in their learning. They commented that the textbooks were challenging in the sense that there were a lot to read and to comprehend. The chapters are divided into sections and sub-sections, and each section is deliberated extensively. As a result, the students, in most of the time, tend to memorize and ‘recite’ important points which they would restate in their written examinations. ‘Hafal saja lah’ clearly expressed the disappointment these students felt as they struggled to read the textbooks. The findings also revealed that there were inadequate opportunities for the students to have sufficient or lengthy discussion on the content knowledge especially during the class lecture. There was a limited opportunity for the students to discuss or talked about the input given by the class lecturer. In fact, the discussion was only in the form of short questions and Yes-No questions. The data also indicated that there was a narrow degree of extended, engaged interaction with the content knowledge in their classroom. To a certain extent, it was observed that students’ participation was on the periphery. Besides giving short answers and responses to the lecturers’ prompts, they were not able to fully engage in the discussion of the content.

CONCLUSION
In summation, the findings discussed in this section put forward another dimension of acquiring academic literacies in higher education. The findings highlight the pivotal role of the disciplinary experts in helping students to comprehend and respond to the specific genre used in the text as well as the content knowledge presented in the text. Lave and Wenger’s COP framework claims that newcomers learn by actively participating in the community’s activities and with experts’ assistance – a process called legitimate peripheral participation (LPP) (Lave & Wenger 1991).
REFERENCES
Students’ Perceptions toward Gamification in ESL Classroom: KAHOOT!

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ABSTRACT
The introduction of Information Communication and Technologies to the educational field has been supporting the fact that it could not only just a tool for learning but also new pedagogy of teaching and learning process. Gamification, a non-gaming software incorporated with game elements, has been utilized as a way to engage and involve users actively, such as to enhance their potential to improve learning. However, previous researches focused more on the outcome of gamification in education rather than students’ perspectives especially secondary students in Malaysia context. In this paper, the aim of the study is to identify the general perspectives of students in using gamification in ESL classroom on effectiveness as well as perception towards the use of Kahoot! in learning English language. Besides, this study is to investigate whether there were differences in opinions of male and female students toward gamification in ESL classroom. This study involved 70 students from three classes in a secondary school of Batu Pahat who require to attend a 10-week of 3 hours weekly English lesson and answer questionnaires. The findings showed that majority of respondents perceive positively regarding the implementation of gamification in learning English and also the use of Kahoot! in ESL classroom. Besides, both gender perceived highly similarly toward gamification in ESL classroom. The findings also revealed Kahoot! seemed to have beneficial outcomes for students.

KEYWORDS: Gamification, education, English learning, perception, Kahoot!

INTRODUCTION
The rapid growth in Information Communication and Technologies (ICT) have brought remarkable changes in the twenty-first century and affected the demands of modern societies. Learning experiences have expanded to a greater state where technology has created latest opportunities for students to practice what are there for them in the 21st century classroom (Thieman, 2008). The Malaysia Government has developed the Education Blueprint 2013-2025 which specifies a comprehensive plan for a rapid transformation of Malaysia’s education system. A maximize use of ICT for distance and self-paced learning to expand capacity and allow for more customized learning is one of the strategy to scale up quality learning across Malaysia (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2013).

Gamification has been applied to a broad variety of settings and context including education because of its perceived potential to make learning more motivating and engaging (Caponetto, Earp & Ott, 2014). Understanding targeted learners’ perceptions on using this could help policy makers make informed decisions based on experiences. Research has shown the positivity of gamification in education, but there is limited research on gamification from the student’s perspective especially secondary students in Malaysia context. Therefore, it is important to understand how they perceive gamified activities namely Kahoot!. The purpose of the study is to identify the general perspectives of students in using gamification in ESL classroom, how useful it is as compared to conventional learning. It is also to explore the students’ perception towards the use of Kahoot! in learning English language and compare genders’ perceptions. The following are the three main research questions of the study:

1. What are students’ perceptions of gamification in learning English language?
2. What are students’ perceptions of using Kahoot! in learning English language?
3. Is there a significant difference in students’ perceptions of using Kahoot! in learning English language according to gender?
MATERIALS AND METHODS

This research employed the survey design in data collection which allowed the researcher to carry out an in-depth investigation into students’ perception towards the use of gamification and Kahoot! in learning English language in Batu Pahat, Johor. The population included 85 Form Two students from three classes in SMK Banang Jaya, Batu Pahat. Purposive sampling method was used, involving 70 students of equal gender based on Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) sample size table. All respondents were to attend English lesson for 3 hours weekly for 10 weeks with integrated gamification technique and Kahoot!. Each Kahoot! session was conducted with post Lesson comprises 10 multiple choice questions regarding the lesson taught.

Questionnaire designed by Tan, Ganapathy and Singh (2018) which focused on students’ perception of the use of gamification and Kahoot! in learning English language in the ESL classroom was adopted. The questionnaire is organised into two sections. The first section of the questionnaire elicits information about the demographic background. The second section consists of two parts which are based on a Likert-type scale (1-5) and were used to extract information on two correlated areas. First part consisted of 8 items regarding students’ perception towards the use of gamification in learning English language. For second part, there are 17 items which measured on the students’ perception towards the use of Kahoot! in learning English language.

The data gathered through the questionnaire was analysed by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in order to get the accurate tabulation. Descriptive analysis was conducted on answering Research Question 1 to 2 while inferential analysis, i.e. independent t-test was used to answer Research Question 3 in order to see if there is difference in perception among genders.

RESULTS

Descriptive analysis about demographic information showed that overall, both Malay and Chinese races had equal number of respondents (34 students) while only two Indian students (minority race) involved in this study. Besides, the respondents were chosen from these three classes with almost equal number.

RQ1: What are students’ perceptions of gamification in learning English language?

Descriptive analysis from the survey showed clearly that majority of the respondents responded positively toward the use of Kahoot! during the teaching and learning of English language. Data showed that inclusion of a gamification method increased the interest of students in the lesson with the highest mean score (M=4.56, SD=0.555). The second highest mean score was followed by item that students admitted gamification method made learning English more fun (M=4.50, SD=0.504). There were two items sharing the same mean score whereby the students felt gamification increased engagement with the class and it was suitable for language class. Gamification also enabled students to learn better in the target language (M=4.21, SD=0.720). Moreover, students’ motivation level to learn English increased through gamification method (M=4.19, SD=0.644). The competitive environment was created through the inclusion of gamification in the classroom increased students’ desire to win (M=4.10, SD=0.617). The students also felt that the application of gamification could be similarly successfully utilized in other class (M=4.09, SD=0.631).

RQ2: What are students’ perceptions of using Kahoot! in learning English language?

The results analysis showed that among the respondents’ perceptions toward using Kahoot! in ESL classroom are positive. Most items were agreed by the respondents concerning their perceptions toward the use of Kahoot! in learning English language. The highest mean score of 4.50 was illustrated by the item that Kahoot! is interesting. Many respondents stated that they felt excited when playing Kahoot! (M=4.39, SD=0.546) and they truly enjoyed playing Kahoot! (M=4.36, SD=0.634). The data also showed the same mean score of 4.33 by item that most students enjoyed playing Kahoot! and that they believed Kahoot! sessions helped them to learn English better. However, some respondents felt annoyed when they could not connect to Kahoot! Poor internet connection has been a drawback for teachers to implement gamification in classroom.

130
Furthermore, the data demonstrated the second lowest mean score of 3.74 that 8.6% of the respondents disagree that they could respond as accurately as possible to each item or questions in each Kahoot! session. Overall, all respondents perceived positively about utilising Kahoot! in learning English.

**RQ3: Is there a significant difference in students’ perceptions of using Kahoot! in learning English language according to gender?**

Inferential analysis on the comparison of perceptions towards Kahoot! between male and female students showed that out of 17 items, only two items showed significant p-value less than 0.05, with p-value = 0.030 and 0.009. This indicated that there is significant difference of perceptions towards Kahoot! between male and female students from these two aspects. Descriptive analysis on the perceptions towards Kahoot! between male and female students also significantly found that female students showed higher perceptions in looking forward to play Kahoot! (M = 4.4571) compared to male students (M = 4.1714). Besides, female students were also more agreed that they are motivated by the prospect of winning in these Kahoot! sessions (M = 4.3714) compared to male students (M = 4.0286).

**DISCUSSION**

Results from this study illustrated a positive perception of gamification in learning English. 97.2% of the students perceived that gamification approach increased their interest in the lesson. This proved that gamification has an active role in learning process. Motivation is one of the most important factors that can influence the success of gamification (Sailer, Hense, Mandl & Klevers, 2017). Besides, it enhances students’ engagement in learning and through this students’ motivation levels in learning English are increased.

From the findings, the respondents perceived Kahoot! as an interesting and motivating activity for their learning of English language. They perceived Kahoot! has made their learning enjoyable, user-friendly, and improved understanding. Another important finding was that Kahoot! is able to engage students during class because they hope to win in the Kahoot! sessions.

Some similarities in our findings and past research findings showed no significant differences of perceptions on the Kahoot! in other aspects. For example, both genders agreed that learning with Kahoot! is fun and able to make their understanding better in English lesson (Ismail & Mohammad, 2017) Besides, both male and female students were enjoyed in playing Kahoot! so much that they wanted to know more.

**CONCLUSION**

The present study has studied a Batu Pahat secondary school students’ perceptions on whether gamification and Kahoot! are beneficial for their English language learning. It has also observed certain distinctions between male and female students’ perceptions towards gamification and Kahoot! as well as the learning experiences. Generally, this study gives strong proof on the connection between gamification and Kahoot! in learning English language. Respondents strongly suggest Kahoot! to be taken into account in the field of language teaching and also other subjects. It is important to discuss how the ESL classroom could benefit from the motivation and willingness of students’ participation in the language learning through the incorporation of Kahoot! approach. However, it is important to acknowledge that the integration of gamification and Kahoot! should not be seen as the ultimate method to replace but to support the entire teaching and learning sessions.
REFERENCES


Learning Style Preferences on Foreign Language Performance among Iraqi postgraduate EFL Students

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ABSTRACT
The way people process information varies from one to another. This incorporates the different Learning style preference of the people in any learning practice, including English as a Foreign Language (EFL). In this study, learning style preferences of EFL students are more emphasized, additionally, intending to investigate the learning approaches —which estimated by the Kolb (2005) learning style stock, to see if they affect the learners' foreign language performance. Numerous investigations are there, directed on preferences of styles of learning and scholarly research at the university level as well as school level, there are restricted late examinations made among Iraqi postgraduate students (In UPM university) learning style preferences. The participants of the examination are Iraqi Male and female EFL students in UPM who study at the faculty of modern languages and communication. They were chosen by employing random sampling technique. The outcomes showed that the students' predominant learning style preference will be converging, trailed by assimilating.

Keywords: Learning style preferences, Language achievement, Foreign language

Introduction
At present, one of the modern matters in settings where a foreign language is learned, is to bring issues to light about the learners' personal contrasts along with the anticipated effects on the procedures of learning and their results as an attempt to touch base at indisputable clarification of the differences regarding advancement (Sadeghi, Kasim, Tan & Abdullah, 2012). What is more, as a result of the various student factors that seem to violate the procedure of attaining languages (Blair, 1982), the individual contrasts among students is emphasized and for sure is appropriate in present-day language instructing. Additionally, it is related to learning situations.

Besides, most instructors still link their students' handicaps as well as poor performance during the time spent on Second language acquisition to the learner's measures of cognition (for example insight and mental capacities), lack of vocabulary, poor abilities in reading and issues related to listening. While the students' individual differences have been ignored vastly. Various past investigations have explored the connection between undergrads' styles of earning with regard to their scholarly activity.

Many research has shown the relation between learning styles and academic performance (AP) in university settings. (Gohar, 2015) In a study, in which they utilized the survey of Productivity Environmental Preference (PEPS). They researched the learning styles of 100 college understudies taken on either French or Spanish first and second semester courses; the consequence of the investigation demonstrated that that three learning style factors in particular structure, inspiration, and sensation inclination associated altogether with unknown language accomplishment (Bailey, 2000).

Williams, Brown, and Etherington (2013) in their study, they relied on three inventories of learning styles: The Kolb Learning Style Inventory, Learning Styles Index, and the Indicator of Success of Types of Learning Style. The researchers went out to examine 240 degree students studying Pharmaceutics at The University of Monash to discover if there a connection between those students' preferences of learning style and how they perform in school, the exploration results showed that the Assimilator is preferred by pharmacy undergraduate students.
Instructors can help the students by planning guidance plans that address the issues of learners with distinctive stylistic performance and by showing those students procedures of how to enhance their learning processes (Oxford, 1990). With regard to investigations, a great part of this examination has demonstrated a connection within styles of learning and educational performance in college environments (Williams, 2013).

Additionally, new research has seen school-matured students’ activity and the extent to which preferences of learning styles foresee scholarly accomplishment (for example Rahmani, 2012; Tabatabaei and Mashayekhi, 2012). Nevertheless, in view of the present literature and data that are published, few investigations have utilized an extensive implements styles of learning as an attempt to decide success indicators within institutes of foreign language teaching classes with an assorted gathering of learners that have fluctuated demographics and originating from various environments of education.

Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning hypothesis (ELT), was utilized as a directing hypothesis of the present investigation. It provides a comprehensive framework to the procedure of learning and a multi-direct framework of grown-up improvement, both of which are solid with what is believed about how individuals acquire, progress, and produce (Sternberg and Zhang, 2000). For Kolb (2015):

(ELT) IS a Holistic model that describe Experiential Learning in detail and it’s based on six proportions Learning is best conceived as a process, All learning is relearning, Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world, Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world, Learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment and Learning is the process of creating knowledge.

The present study plans to recognize and feature the favored learning styles of EFL students among postgraduate student in (UPM) so as to raise the attention to students to their own favored learning styles and instructors to those inclinations.

METHODOLOGY

The design used in this study is descriptive. The statistical method used to analyze data is one way Anova. Iraqi postgraduate students (n = 30) were selected from a public university in Malaysia. The participants were chosen randomly; their average age was 26. They learned the English language for academic purposes.

The tool utilized for the survey in this piece of work was the Kolb Inventory of Learning Styles (2005). It has been chosen because its Kolb’s most recent amendment. It consist of 12 components. Subjects’ — by utilizing the numbers from 1 to 4— classify four sentence endings comparing to the four learning modes for concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE). At that point, in view of the favorite for each of the previously mentioned modes (controlled by the absolute score for every one of the four modes over the twelve components), four particular learning styles (for example Converger, Diverger, Assimilator, and Accommodator) will be recognized.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study recognized the favored learning styles of Iraqi EFL students in University Putra Malaysia. Further, the examination was conducted to detect a change in participants' last term grades as to the four learning style classifications, in particular, diversers, convergers, assimilators, and accommodators. The results are relied upon to demonstrate that converger learning style speaks to the most elevated extent to prevailing 4-classification learning styles preferences (62%), trailed by assimilator learning style (17%), accommodator learning styles (11%), and diverger learning styles (8%). The students' tendency towards joining and acclimatizing learning styles infers that they incline toward the useful use of conclusions with little feeling, judgment, and improvement of hypotheses and theoretical ideas... Discussion and Conclusion

The students' tendency towards combining and acclimatizing learning styles infers that they lean toward the viable utilization of suppositions with little feeling, judgment, and advancement of hypotheses and theoretical ideas. Converges are regularly alluded to as in the advocate novices' (and adapt best by the commonsense use of assessments, liking to handle with specialized issues instead of individuals (Williams, 2013). The outcomes are steady with the discoveries of different investigations (Ehrman,1995) (as referred
to in Tabatabaei, 2012), which kept up that learning style or potentially character factors were just feebly or in a roundabout way identified with unknown dialect achievement. What's more, comparable discoveries were accounted for in readings directed by Deniz (2011), Bahar and Sülün (2011) (as referred to in Okay, 2012). They didn't locate any noteworthy contrast in their subjects' scholastic execution with respect to the favored learning styles of the investigation members.

CONCLUSION

Taking everything into account, the discoveries of this investigation show the requirement for instructors and teachers to prepare the mindset of current students' learning style inclinations so as to energize the improvement of a decent learning style as featured in (Kolb's ELT). Be that as it may, regarding genuine EFL classes, it is fairly hard to consider every one of the students' learning style inclinations. Besides, a trying for the instructors to continually remind how every learners adapts best so coordinate their encouraging styles with the students’ differing learning styles. Moreover, learning style is only one of the numerous elements (for example character, inspiration, disposition, knowledge, and so forth) which effect the education procedure and results. This examination would be of an incentive to other English foundations and institutes both in Malaysia and somewhere else in structuring second language learning (SLA) schedule and educational plans that suit diverse learning style inclinations. Further research is prescribed on finding the impact of EFL students' style of learning on their scholarly fulfillment.

REFERENCE


ABSTRACT
Reading a comprehension passage and comprehending the meaning of it is to acquire the information from the text and to construct the meaning in the mind. This paper aims to find out the reading strategies used by the good readers and the poor readers. The participants of this study were 80 fifth-formers of a secondary school in Kedah, Malaysia. Participants were chosen based on their results in the comprehension section of a trial examination paper. 40 good readers and 40 poor readers were chosen for this study. Qualitative analysis of the students’ answers and responses to the interviews revealed that good readers used a wider range of reading strategies compared to poor readers. The good readers’ responses to the interviews demonstrated that the readers have a greater understanding of the text and text structure. The poor readers who used a number of reading strategies scored better in the comprehension tests compared to the remaining poor readers who did not employ any reading strategies while reading. The findings of this study will be able to guide students to use good reading strategies when answering comprehension questions and be useful for pedagogical purposes.

KEYWORDS: Reading strategies, Good readers, Poor readers, Comprehension

INTRODUCTION
Reading is a dynamic cognitive process. It is a continuously developing ability and as students reading abilities develop, students are able to read materials that are more complex (Smith, 2003). Reading ability has always been associated with age. Secondary school students should have developed some comprehension skills (Khemlani, 2002).

Reading a comprehension passage and comprehending the meaning of it is a parallel process which is to acquire the information from the text and to construct the meaning in the mind (Irwin, 2007). Students need to comprehend what they are reading. For some students, good reading comprehension skills come with ease. However, for other students it is a demanding and often perplexing process (Block, Gambrell & Pressley, 2002).

As studies regarding comprehension continue, other relevant findings have emerged. One consistent conclusion is that some comprehension strategies are more effective than others (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Harvey & Goudvis, 2000). Researchers have been able to identify strategies that represent the essence of reading comprehension by thoroughly studying the reading strategies that proficient readers use to understand what they are reading (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000).

Good and high achieving learners use strategies for reading which are more effective than those used by their counterparts (Khemlani, 2002). One important aspect of reading processes that has evolved as a subject of particular interest to reading and practitioners alike is the self-regulated reading process (Walker, 2002). These include self-evaluation, goal-setting, self-reinforcement and self-efficacy (Palinscar & Brown, 2001). Effective readers constantly regulate their learning activity consciously and have the motivation to be responsible for their learning (Zimmerman, 2000). Good readers monitor their reading comprehension and adjustments are made to reading rates when reading an expository text (Hall, 2012).

In Malaysia, reading skills in English are valued. English is one of the subjects where students are required to sit for in the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia Examination (SPME). The English Language Paper in the SPME has Paper 1 and Paper 2. Paper 2 focuses on Comprehension and includes the following types of
comprehension questions:

**Section A (15 marks):**
Comprehension of short texts.

**Section B (10 marks):**
Comprehension of short texts with information transfer – type questions.

**Section C (25 marks):**
Comprehension of a longer text with “free response” type questions and summary.

**Section D (25 marks):**
This section tests the texts listed in the Literature Component.

The researchers have chosen to use comprehension questions from section C as the topic for study for this research because this is the only part in the paper where candidates are required to find their answers from the text provided

The research questions for this study are:

1. What are the reading strategies used by the good readers?
2. What are the reading strategies used by the poor readers?

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

The study was conducted in a rural school in Kedah. The subjects were chosen based on their performance in Section C of their trial examination. This section consists of 2 components: comprehension questions (10 marks) and summary (15 marks). The samples were chosen based on their marks for comprehension questions. 40 students who scored between 7 – 10 marks (high scorers/good readers) and another 40 students who scored between 3 – 4 marks (low scorers/poor readers) were chosen for this study. The researchers decided to take the Kedah trial examination result as the data because of its reliability. Interviews were carried out to identify the strategies used by the high scorers and the low scorers.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

RQ 1 – What are the strategies used by the good readers?

The good readers in this study used 13 reading strategies when attempting the comprehension questions. These strategies are given in Table 1.0

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Strategies</th>
<th>Number of good readers (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Rereading</td>
<td>40/40(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Highlighting/underlining important points</td>
<td>40/40(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Visualizing</td>
<td>40/40(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Predicting</td>
<td>36/40(90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Using contextual clues</td>
<td>40/40(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Skimming</td>
<td>40/40(100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Note-taking</td>
<td>36/40(90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Assimilating the text with personal experience</td>
<td>32/40(80%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Self-monitoring</td>
<td>40/40(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. Distinguishing relevant and non-relevant information 33/40(82.5%)
11. Summarizing 38/40(95%)
12. Paraphrasing 40/40(100%)
13. Creating associations among ideas in a text 33/40(82.5%)

As shown in Table 1, the reading strategies used by all the 40 good readers were rereading, highlighting/underlining important points, visualizing, using contextual clues, skimming, self-monitoring and paraphrasing. A majority of the good readers also used predicting, note-taking, assimilating the text with personal experience, distinguishing relevant and non-relevant information, summarizing and creating associations among ideas in a text.

RQ 2 – What are the strategies used by the poor readers?

The interviews that were held with the poor readers showed that a number of students do to a certain extent use 6 strategies while reading. However a majority of them have no strategies at all. These strategies are given in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Strategies</th>
<th>Number of poor readers(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Highlighting/underlining</td>
<td>8/40(20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Using key words</td>
<td>8/40(20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Underlining difficult words and phrases</td>
<td>10/40(25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Skimming</td>
<td>14/40(35%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Using contextual clues</td>
<td>10/40(25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Visualization</td>
<td>13/40(32.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows only a small number of the poor readers used reading strategies when reading. The findings from this study indicate that good readers use a wider range of strategies compared to poor readers. Good readers employ effective reading strategies such as self-monitoring and self-testing on whether or not what they read makes sense. A research by Hall (2012) specified that good readers always monitor their reading comprehension and adjust their reading rates when reading an expository text. Likewise, from the interview, the good readers of this study have orchestrated efforts in using the strategies as mentioned in Hall (2012). The findings indicate that good readers have a good understanding of the text and the textual features.

A number of poor readers had to a certain extent used a number of strategies while reading. These students scored better in the comprehension tests compared to the remaining poor readers. The strategies used were highlighting or underlining main points, using key words and contextual clues, underlining unfamiliar words and phrases, skimming and visualization. The remaining poor readers of this study are quite limited in their knowledge of reading. As stated by Harvey and Goudvis (2000), the poor readers do little monitoring of their comprehension and tend to focus on decoding the words rather than the meaning.

CONCLUSION

It is important that reading strategies are to be taught explicitly to students. Teachers should teach these strategies to students as early as possible.
REFERENCES


Attitudes and Motivation of Secondary Students in Learning English

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ABSTRACT
A collaboration between teacher and students in the twenty-first century learning nurtures the idea of progressing and achieving the goals of Malaysian Education Blueprint (2013-2025). In order to promote twenty-first century learning, the problems in attitudes and motivation which occur in the learning need to be overcome. The students are having difficulties in learning English due to their negative attitudes and low motivational level. Hence, this study was carried out. This paper presents the attitudes and motivational level of form four students in learning English. The aim of this study is to investigate the attitudes and motivational level of form four students in learning English. The participants of the study comprises of 150 form four students in Jengka, Pahang. Data was collected using quantitative method which was questionnaire. The questionnaire was redesigned from Gardner’s Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). It was supervised in both languages, English and Bahasa Malaysia. The data was analysed using frequency and percentage. Findings showed that students with good attitudes had high motivational level in learning the language. Thus, some recommendations have been highlighted.

KEYWORDS: Twenty-first century, Attitudes, Motivation, Secondary students

INTRODUCTION
According to Tajularipin Sulaiman, Ahmad Fauzi Mohd Ayub, & Suriati Sulaiman (2015), The new curriculum for English demands the teacher to plan suitable activities and assessments in which requires the students to comprehend the language input and answer questions with high cognitive level. However, the proficiency level of the students is still at subpar. The key factors contributing to mastering English are attitudes and motivation. Gardner (1985) believes that students with good attitudes and high motivation will be more successful compared to those with negative attitudes and no motivation. The main reason of this research is to determine the attitudes and motivational level of form four students in Jengka, Pahang in learning English. The main questions consist of what are the attitudes and motivational level of form four secondary students in learning English. The objectives of the research are to examine the attitudes of form four secondary students in learning English and to identify the motivational level of form four secondary students in learning English.

English is instructed as a second language (ESL) in Malaysia schools apart from the national language, Bahasa Malaysia. Students acquire their first language in which is their mother tongues; Bahasa Malaysia, Mandarin, and Tamil. The users are being referred to as second language learners (SLL) as stated by (Tajularipin Sulaiman et al., 2015). Gardner (1985) somehow believes that students with good attitudes and high motivation will be more successful towards language learning compared to those with negative attitudes and no motivation. Positive attitudes and high motivational level leads to a better achievement. It is supported by (Hussien Islam Abdullah & Parilah 2014 & Harjander Kaur Santa Singh 2014). The term of attitudes and motivation aligned with each other so well thus, Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Lightbown and Spada (1999) are known for using these two terms simultaneously. There are many factors influencing the process of learning which includes attitudes and motivation. According to Latchanna, Gara and Dagnew, Asrat (2009) motivation, attitudes and beliefs about learning a language are among the determining factors that influence a student’s efficiency and must be taken into account when understanding second language learning processes. Without any motivating force, the rate of success in the learning of English is low.
MATERIALS AND METHODS
This study undertook the research design of a survey design which utilized a quantitative method and conducted at a secondary school located in rural area of Pahang. The students had negative attitudes and low motivational level in learning English. The technique used was purposive sampling, consisted of 150 students from form 4 students. The school had 800 students and 78 teachers. There were 30 classes in the school which consisted of 5 classes for each year. The medium of instructions used in the school were Bahasa Melayu, English, and Arabic language. This was an adapted version of questionnaire by Gardner’s (2004) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB): International AMTB Research Project and Zainol Abidin, M. J., Pour-Mohammadi, M., & Alzwari, H. (2012). The questionnaire was administered in English and Bahasa Malaysia. It had 3 different sections. The first section was biography, section A emphasizes on the attitudes in learning English and section B is the motivation in learning English. Therefore, the data collection procedure was conducted in the class. The respondents were allocated about 30 minutes to fill the survey form. The researcher guided the respondents by explaining each of the questionnaires and were assured about their confidentiality. The questionnaire was designed using five-point Likert scale where 5 indicated strongly agree, 4 agree, 3 neutral, 2 disagree, and 1 strongly disagree to induce their level of approval with each item stated. The data collected for this study was analysed by using descriptive statistics in order to identify the scoring items in the questionnaire through frequency and percentage. The results and discussions of this study enabled researcher to make a generalization which represents the whole population of the form four students.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The findings of this research were tabulated and analysed based on the frequency and percentages. The items on attitudes and motivational level of students in learning English are discussed in two parts.

Table 1. Students’ attitudes in learning English (n=150)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel awkward using English outside of the classroom.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel confident to convey using English in my class.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I love learning English.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My parents encourage me to read more English books at home.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I enjoy the projects in English class more than other subjects.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I question my teacher when I do not understand.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I give up easily and do not concentrate when I don’t apprehend my teacher’s explanation of something.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I hope to study more about English in the future.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I enjoy being in English class.

I think my English class is boring.

Table 1 demonstrated the discovery of the results on the students’ attitudes in learning English. It shown that the respondents had low self-confidence in the learning of English language. This had been portrayed in the results whereby 44 respondents (29.3%) had strongly agreed that they would feel awkward speaking English outside of the classroom. Due to their low esteem, 36 respondents (24%) tend to give up and do not concentrate when they do not apprehend their English teacher’s explanation of something. However, majority of the respondents (27.3%), had agreed that they hope to study more about English in the future. The respondents also expressed that they love learning English which showed in 39 respondents (23.8%) strongly agreeing to the statement. In addition, the 38 respondents (25.3%) had agreed that they feel confident to convey using English in their class.

Table 2. Motivational level in learning English (n=150)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I listen to English songs at home.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I want to be better in my English language.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I work hard to learn English in class and at home.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Studying English is vital for my career.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My parents are interested with what I’m learning in my English class.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My parents attempt to assist me to learn English by providing me a dictionary.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My parents persuade me to read more English books at home.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. My parents help me to practise my English to the max.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. My parents urge me to obtain help from my teacher if I am having difficulties in English.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. My English teacher inspires me to learn better.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The learning of English came mostly from their intrinsic motivation. Thus, resulting in 36 respondents (24%) which had strongly agreed that they wanted to do better in their English. Therefore, 37 respondents (24.7%) had agreed that they were willing to work hard to learn English. The support of the parents also played a role in the students’ life. 44 respondents (29.3%) had strongly agreed that their parents urged them to seek help from the teacher. 38 respondents (25.3%) had agreed in listening to English songs in pertaining to learn more English. Moreover, 40 respondents (26.7%) had strongly agreed that their English teacher inspired them to learn better in English.
Based on the results obtained, overall findings reflected on good attitudes and high motivational level in learning English. It was supported by Gardner (1985) that students with good attitudes and high motivation will be more successful compared to those with negative attitudes and no motivation. Thus, according to (Latchanna, Gara and Dagnew, Asrat 2009) motivation, attitudes and beliefs about learning a language are among the determining factors that influence a student’s efficiency and must be taken into account when understanding second language learning processes. The students were focusing more on the writing skills instead of speaking skills. Hence, leading to the deterioration of self-esteem among the students. Students should be encouraged to be an active learner and more autocratic in their learning thus, improving their speaking skills. For future research, the researcher recommends gender differences are taken into consideration to determine the attitudes and motivational level in learning English.

CONCLUSION
The research showed that good attitudes led to high motivation in learning English. The intrinsic motive was without a doubt, the main motivation in pushing students in the learning of English. Thus, attitudes and motivation influenced in learning English.

REFERENCES
Assessing Students’ Translation Result

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ABSTRACT
A common problem in teaching translation is assessing students’ translation result. This is caused by the standard of translation competence and instruments for assessing translation result. This study is aimed at presenting a method for assessing students’ translation result by reconstruct the translation competence criteria then relate it with two assessment methods; rubric and assessment grading. These methods have been applied to university students of English education department when they take to Translation subject. In doing so, the peer assessment is devised to help the students see the results of other students’ translation result and find out the feedback.

KEYWORDS: assessment, translation result, translation competence, rubric, assessment grading

INTRODUCTION
As a skill that functions as an intermediary in the use of two languages, learners should perform qualified translation. The basic concept of Translation is to change the word from the source language to the target language. In addition, translation activities are more complex, because they not only to imply the meaning of language but also to preserve the original meaning without adding or distorting the meaning in the source language. In Teaching Translation for learners of English as foreign language, evaluation and assessment should have been done for a numerous of purposes; among others are to know the quality of the acquired knowledge of translation.

As Translation as part of pedagogy, there is an ordinary problem which seemed to be a general problem. This is seen that translation evaluation and assessment are done on a-systematic basis (Colina, 2003, p. 128) in which that there are few studies recently regarded error evaluation and grading assessment. Like other evaluation and assessment, the problem is still evolved in validity and reliability of assessing translation result. Since translation pedagogy has a role as a process and outcome (Cao, 1996), therefore both are assessed. To carry out valid and reliable procedures for measuring translation can be started by asking important questions about the procedure (Cohen 1994: 6) such as: for whom the test is written, what are the test steps, who receives the test results, how the results are used. The answer to the question about the test procedure becomes a clear guide to what should be measured. This is reflected in the construction of the test. Angelelli (2009) mentions that there are several steps to defining the translation test construct, namely by asking some relevant questions to investigate the construct of "translation ability" and the use of rubrics to measure this construct. This construct will be a guide to measuring the translation skills of EFL learners. However, defining the construct must also begin with what must be achieved in translation competence. There are several model regarding translation competence. Among them are those directed by Cao (1996) and Hatim and Mason (1997). Model of translation competence by Cao (1996) is applicable to this study in that it reflects the component of communicative language as described by Bachman (1990) which covers language competence, strategic competence, and knowledge structures. In more detail, Cao (1996) directs translational language competence that consisted of organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence includes grammatical competence (the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and grapheme) and textual competence (the knowledge of cohesive and rhetorical organization). While, pragmatic competence includes illocutionary competence (the knowledge of idealistic, manipulative heuristic and imaginative functions) and sociolinguistic competence (the knowledge of dialectal, regional, and national varieties and also cultural references and figures of speech).
A construct can be defined as a clear picture of what the test maker must understand which includes evaluated capabilities (Angelelli, 2009, p. 22). It is meant that if you are going to test your ability to translate, it is important to define exactly what must be measured. To bear in mind that for students of English as foreign language learners, translation competence should cover aspects as mentioned by Cao. However, for those students, its aspect coverage is more specific to capabilities that are focused on student operational tasks in the English department. Therefore, to cover those operational task the defined construct for translation competence covers grammatical competence, textual competence and pragmatic competence. In the next discussion, details of each construct will be presented according to their respective competencies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Subjects in this study were undergraduate students, 8th semester English language education study programs who were taking courses in Translation and Interpretation. The number of students is 115 from 4 classes. After participating in learning 6 times (6 weeks), a learning outcome test was conducted. The test conducted is a test of translating English text into Indonesian and translating Indonesian into English. The test instrument is one paragraph of text in English consisting of 186 words and 1 paragraph of Indonesian text consisting of 134 words. The total words translated each into these two languages are 320 words. The time provided is 60 minutes. Translation tools are only manual dictionaries. Electronic dictionaries and machine translators are not allowed to use. The technique of evaluating the results of translation is done in a peer assessment where each student becomes an assessor to assess the work of other students. If there are doubts about the assessment, always consult with the researcher. While the assessment validation was carried out by the second assessor. To determine the evaluation, the researcher prepare assessment rubric based on the construct taken from translational competence which is adopted from Angelelli (2009) as described below.

Table 1. Construct based on grammatical competence (Angelelli, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>T shows mastery of TL in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Very few or no error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>T shows proficiency of TL in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Occasional errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>T shows weak of TL in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Frequent errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>T shows lack of TL in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Numerous errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>T shows poor of TL in grammar, spelling, and punctuation. Serious and frequent errors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T: translation result, TL: target language

Table 2. Construct based on textual competence (Angelelli, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>T is very well organized into paragraphs and consistent to TL texts. It flows together flawlessly and forms a natural whole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>T is very well organized into paragraphs and consistent to TL texts. It flows together well and forms a coherent whole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>T is organized into paragraphs and consistent to TL texts. T style maybe inconsistent. There are occasional awkward or oddly placed elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>T is disorganized and lack divisions into coherent style. It does not flow together. It is frequent awkward and oddly placed statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>T is disorganized and lack of divisions into coherent paragraph. T does not flow together. It is awkward. Sentences and ideas seem unrelated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T: translation result, TL: target language
Table 3. Construct based on pragmatic competence (Angelelli, 2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Competence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>T shows a masterful ability to the intended TL audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>T shows a proficiency ability to the intended TL audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>T shows good ability to the intended TL audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>T shows weak ability to the intended TL audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>T shows inability to the intended TL audience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T: translation result, TL: target language

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The assessment that has been carried out on the results of student translation by using rubric can be seen from Table 4 below.

Table 4. Rubric for Translational Competence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grading</th>
<th>Grammatical</th>
<th>Textual</th>
<th>Pragmatic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Σ</td>
<td>Percent age</td>
<td>Σ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the aspect of grammatical competence, as many as 44% of the students in the translation reached Grade 3, as many as 13% of students reached Grade 5 and there were still 3% of students having the lowest grade. If students’ translation competency shows mostly in Grade 3, this means that students have average competence, in particular that the students shows average in controlling vocabularies (the words of a language), morphology (the way that smaller parts combine to form words), syntax (the way that words combine to form phrases and sentences).

When viewed from the aspect of textual competence, there are almost the same numbers in Grades 2, 3 and 4, which are 24%, 27% and 23% of students show the results of the translation. In this textual competency, it turns out that as many as 19% of students are at the lowest level. This means that students have a low ability on textual competence for translation competencies. This competence is important in that it relies on the understanding the rules of rhetoric and cohesion in both source language and target language well enough to know what meanings are conveyed (Angelelli, 2009). As translation is important intermediary for EFL learners, the low mastery of textual competence affects in interpreting the language that is translated. In practice, the textual competence of the students usually come along with their grammatical competence since both are close connection. From the percentage result for grammatical competence and textual competence, the percentage shows common similarity in that the students’ high percentage for both competence is on Grade 3.
For pragmatic competence, the ability of students is shown in the highest percentage in Grade 3 which is 37%. There are still many students who show the lowest pragmatic abilities, namely those who occupy Grade 1 by 11%. For this competence, the students show common achievement as in previous competences. Pragmatic competence, in this sense, is important that it relates the translation result to its readers. It communicates the meaning from the source text to its target readers. If the students’ translator has low pragmatic competence, the interpretation of the meaning from the source text to the target readers might not be successfully transferred.

CONCLUSION

In assessing translation result for the students of English as foreign language, a systematic evaluation using standard is needed. Using standard for assessment can be specified as a construct. For specific subject like Translation, defining construct can be started by defining the competence in translation. Translation competence covers many aspects such as language competence, strategic competence, and knowledge structures. Translation test may not cover them all. It should be directed to the level of competence of the students.

REFERENCES


Rethinking Learning Space: Impact of Learning Spaces in English Classrooms on Pupils from Urban School and Rural School

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ABSTRACT
As the education transformation was again discussed and dialogued nationwide, the ministry has introduced the 21st Learning Classroom and The Frog Classroom which should have provided various learning spaces in national schools. This study was conducted in two schools. The data is collected through questionnaires and interviews by the researcher. The results for both, urban and rural school, indicate pupils are more engaged with others and their tasks. They are also more creative this system caters to different learning styles, thus leading to a slight increase in academic achievement in both schools. As such, there are no significant differences when it comes to physical learning platforms for both of these schools. The results from the data collected, however, show a significant difference when it comes to the virtual learning environment. The results indicate that most urban school pupils have actively used the Frog Classroom and have a collaborative network among themselves and their teachers. On the other hand, rural school pupils are reluctant to use the Frog Classroom and usually don’t have many interactions with other pupils in the virtual environment as they are often passive and use it only to complete their tasks.

KEYWORDS: Practices in school, urban school, rural school, physical learning space, virtual learning space

INTRODUCTION
What we think of as cutting-edge learning technologies today differ significantly from just a decade ago. Pupils themselves are evolving, as well, as their practices are formed by the innovative environment. Environmental psychology accentuates the collaboration among individual and condition and advises us that understudies and instructors assume a functioning job in cooperating with their condition, as opposed to being inactively followed up on. Schools ought to think about improvement to help the teachers to see and follow up on the scope of chances offered by the learning condition. Cook (2010) characterized learning space as a physical setting for learning, a spot in which educating and learning happen. Generally learning space is alluded to as the customary ‘classrooms’ however it additionally incorporates different spaces either physical or virtual, inside or outside. The physical learning space of the school speaks to the contribution that safe, clean, and comfortable surroundings make to a positive school climate in which pupils can learn (Brooks, 2012). Traditional learning spaces regularly utilize fixed work areas that face the front of the classroom (Dori & Belcher, 2005 and Jankowska, 2007). Virtual Learning Space or virtual learning environment is a complete set of educating and learning instruments intended to upgrade a pupils’ learning experience by including technological tools such as computers and the Internet in the learning process. In Malaysia, Frog VLE was introduced to all the schools through the 1BestariNet venture which allows a formal virtual learning space.

The purpose of this study is to find out the differences in the impact of virtual and various physical learning spaces on pupils from the urban school and rural school. In a micro level, the author will be looking at the pupil’s behaviour change toward learning, collaborative work, pupil’s creativity, implementation of active
physical learning space thus intends to use and virtual learning space thus intention to use. This study is
done to find out if the difference in demographics has an effect on all the factors above. The limitation of
this study is that the data collected to be analysed and triangulated is from only one school of each kind.
This is because of the time constraints and difficulty of finding suitable schools to form a homogeneous

group.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study was conducted at two national schools in Negeri Sembilan which was chosen by the researcher
as the academic achievement of these schools are almost similar. The demographic varies however as one
school s located in urban are and another in rural area. Participants of this study are the sixty Year 3 pupils
and two teachers from each school. All of their information on the participants have been kept privates as
they do not which their identity to be revealed if there are any names exist in this writing, it is a pseudonym.
This study adopts a qualitative research method where it is a scientific method of observation to gather non-
numerical data (Babbie, 2014). This study adopted this research method to seek an in-depth understanding
of pupil’s behaviour change and to reason why such behaviour change exists (Given, 2008). The
instruments used in this study are interviews, observations and documents such as pupils’ handouts, notes,
project papers and more. The purpose of using these many instruments is to collect raw data as much as
possible to be processed, interpreted, analysed and triangulated.

**The Intervention**

This study was conducted as the researcher decided on two schools from the urban and rural area. Pupils’
previous academic achievements were analysed. Then the teachers and the school administration were
contacted to gain permission to conduct this study. Once both the schools have given their permission. Both
the school administration and the teacher have been briefed on detail the purpose of this study. Current
situation then have been evaluated and followed by the process of creating active physical learning space
aligning the lessons with the 21st-century learning practices. The intervention take place as teacher use the
learning space in English Language Classrooms. At the same time, these teachers also used the Frog VLE
Platform to deliver the lesson especially those with listening exercises. They also use this platform to give
homework and other exercises. They also incorporate learning English with Frog VLE. The intervention
was carried on for 4 weeks during English Language lessons. Figure 2 below shows the flow of events
before the intervention, during the intervention and after the intervention.

![Figure 1: Pupils’ Academic Achievement](image-url)
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physical Learning Space

After the implementation of i-THINK and 21st Century Learning Classrooms in Malaysian schools, collaborative learning is a must in every lesson. This allows the teacher to create rich environments and exercises for connecting new information to prior knowledge, and offering pupils a variety of valid learning task. This may initially include attention to the physical space. Through collaborative learning is very familiar to the teachers, it is difficult for them to implement it in the classroom because the classrooms are small for the number of pupils in it as Teacher B mentioned. As such to control the big class teachers often give collaborative work that pupils can do from the comfort of their desk. There are minimal movements but there are elements of collaborative work. Figure 3 shows how different is the traditional physical learning space and the active physical learning space.

![Figure 3: Learning in Traditional Physical Learning Space and Active Physical Learning Space](image)

Using active physical learning space as in Figure 3, teachers allow pupils to learn in their own preferred space where pupils are not confined to the comfort of their desk. It is a huge success as pupils loved to do their work in the desired space. Teachers also restructure the resources in the classroom to provide a diversity of genres and perspectives. Thus, these collaborative classrooms have a multiplicity of projects or movement which allow students to experience and use diverse media for communicating ideas. Teachers have stated that pupils create more productive and creative artworks and projects. They are also more

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**Figure 2: Flow of events before, during and after the intervention.**
creative as this system caters to different learning styles, thus leading to a slight increase in academic achievement in both schools. There are few minor setbacks that have been brought to attention by the teachers on the in the interview sessions and the observation logs. When catering for a big class with many students will have three main issues which are noise level, complaints and pupils’ disruptive behaviour. In conclusion, yes, both urban and rural school have benefited greatly for the usage of various physical learning space during the lesson. As pupils are more engaged in their task and creating creative projects and artwork thus slightly increasing the academic achievement ad when it comes to formative assessment. Though there are few setbacks there teachers agree that it would “get better in time”. As such, there are no significant differences when it comes to physical learning space for both of these schools.

**Virtual Learning Space**

Virtual learning space is used Malaysian classroom as a result of attempts of technological savvy teachers trying to cooperate technology in their lessons but there were no uniformed method or tool used. After the introduction of the Frog VLE platform in the year 2011 thereon, both teachers and pupils have systematic learning platform in which formal learning can occur. Frog VLE platforms are used to teach one or two lessons out of five lessons throughout the 4 weeks of intervention period. Most of the lesson conducted with Frog VLE platform is on listening skill and speaking skill as audio recordings are used in the lesson. Unlike physical learning space, the results of the intervention varied for both urban school and rural school. To understand the scenario better a summary of observation log, Table 1, has been made with the teacher’s entry. This issue is discussed in terms of pupils’ readiness, technological proficiency, completion of task given, online community, external support. Both teachers from the urban school, have stated in their interview and observation log that they are able to carry out the lesson successfully with minimal disruptions. Unfortunately, the situation is very different in rural school where pupils have minimal technological competency, they platform as a mode of communication and network building but they are more task oriented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Urban School</th>
<th>Rural School</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher A</td>
<td>Teacher B</td>
<td>Teacher C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils’ Readiness</td>
<td>Pupils have prior knowledge of using Frog VLE platform and computers. They are able to process the information given and carry out the task.</td>
<td>Most pupils are not ready at all when it comes to usage of Frog VLE platform. They are unable to carry out or slow to carry out the task.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological Competency</td>
<td>Moderate competency as pupils are able to carry out the task given to them with teacher’s guidance.</td>
<td>Very low technological competency where pupils depend on the teacher to teach them the next step. Teacher has to take full control of the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completion of Task Given</td>
<td>Completion rate for assignments, homework and quizzes are about 85%.</td>
<td>Completion rate for assignments, homework and quizzes are about 24%.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Community</td>
<td>Pupils are comfortably talking with each other via chat room online. Collaborative learning is possible under guidance of the teacher.</td>
<td>Collaborative learning is not possible as pupils’ attention and time are more focused to completing a task. They don’t use the platform as a mode of communication.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Support</td>
<td>Parents were supportive and since they have access to technological tool outside of classroom, they are able to complete the task given.</td>
<td>Some parents are supportive are very supportive of the intervention. Most of them have very little access or no access to technological tool outside of classroom. Most of them only use Frog VLE in the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Physical Learning Space vs. Virtual Learning Space

Table 2: Intention to Use Before and After Intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Teacher A</th>
<th>Teacher B</th>
<th>Teacher C</th>
<th>Teacher D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>How do you rate your pupils’ behavior toward your lesson?</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Based on your observation how do you rate your pupils in terms of collaboration work?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Based on your observation how do you rate your pupils in terms of creativity?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>Did you use active physical learning space before this?</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would you use active physical learning space?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>Did you use virtual learning space before this?</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would you use virtual learning space again?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To understand this study deeper, let's take a closer look at a few of the questions asked and the response given by the teachers before and after the study has taken place. There are 5 questions asked regarding pupils’ behaviour toward teacher’s lesson; rating pupils in terms of collaboration work; rating pupils in terms of creativity; usage of active physical learning space and intention to use; finally, usage of virtual learning space and the intention to use. Summary of the answers given by the teachers are in Table 2. All four teachers from both urban school and rural school agreed that there are positive responses when it behaviour toward the lesson, collaboration among pupils and creativity. All four teacher would love to continue using the physical learning space created in future lessons however after the intervention teachers from the urban school wanted to continue using Frog VLE learning platform but teachers from the rural school have a different opinion. The teachers from rural school would not want to use this platform until their pupils have mastered the basic knowledge and are competent enough.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, learning space a physical setting for learning, a spot in which educating and learning happen. The idea that all pupils must be sited and be remain sited at their desks and quietly acquiring information given to them by the teacher has now become archaic. Parallel to the ministry’s efforts to cooperate with technology and collaborative work environments, the design of learning spaces is changing. This study shows that there are no significant differences when it comes to physical learning platforms for both of these schools. The results from the data collected, however, show a significant difference when it comes to the virtual learning environment. The results indicate that most urban school pupils have actively used the Frog Classroom and have a collaborative network among themselves and their teachers. On the other hand, rural school pupils are reluctant to use the Frog Classroom and usually don’t have many interactions with other pupils in the virtual environment. Nevertheless, there changes in pupil’s behaviour towards the lesson where pupils become more engaged. They are also more collaborative and more creative. As a result of this study, using multiple learning spaces are possible and are recommended.
REFERENCE


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The Use of Youtube in Developing Speaking Skill among ESL Learners in Malaysia

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ABSTRACT
Speaking skill is one of the four skills that are equally important especially for ESL learners. There are four components of speaking ability: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and fluency. There are also various methods and strategies to teach the four skills especially speaking skills and one of them is by utilising Web 2.0. 21st century learning revolves around the use of social media. Previous researches have proven that the use of social media in language learning will develop students’ speaking skill and other skills as well. YouTube is a go-to resource for viewing videos streaming or offline and one of those platforms that assimilate language learning in the videos. This study is meant to explore students’ perception on the use of YouTube in developing speaking skill among ESL learners. The study involves 14 Form 3 students in Jerantut District, a suburban area in Pahang, Malaysia. Questionnaire and interview were used as instruments in the study. The data from the survey was analysed using descriptive frequencies and the interview responses from the participants were analysed using thematic analysis. The data gathered suggested that students had developed their speaking after they had finished uploading the videos on YouTube. In addition, the majority of the students showed improvement in fluency in their speaking. To conclude, more actions should be taken to encourage wider usage of YouTube in the teaching and learning of speaking skills.

KEYWORDS: ESL learners, YouTube, speaking skill, technology, videos

INTRODUCTION
English is a language that transcend barrier between different races all over the globe. It is also considered as the ‘global spread’ that led to the emergence of second language speakers and non-native varieties of English in the world (Seyyed, 2018). Speaking is a mammoth task for ESL learners who have fear and incompetence of the language itself. In Malaysia, most of the children are taught the English language from the age of six. However, this does not guarantee the competent acquisition of the language as they grow older. Nor Hani et al. (2017) stressed that one major problem that causes the difficulties to speak among ESL learners is they do not use the language in their daily life and only encounter the language at school and within the classroom atmosphere in which the target language is utilised.

Social media is a medium that connects learners with the knowledge around the globe. YouTube is one of the social media platforms that is widely used in education. In fact, YouTube is a Web 2.0 tool that can be used for knowledge generation through observation and social interactions (DeWitt et al, 2013). Even though the social interaction via social media is virtual, it is without any doubt, ultimately engaging and fun. The use of technology in the classroom is considered as ‘a must have’ tool in the teaching and facilitating processes. Asri and Santiana (2017) agreed that the use of technology in the classroom helps learners to acquire new authentic and meaningful learning experiences as well as providing them with fun and effective learning environment.

Recent developments in education and learning through technology and multimedia have heightened the need for education field to assimilate YouTube into teaching. YouTube is a go-to resource for viewing videos. Launched in 2005, and according to Domocos (2018) it is the second most visited website in the world after Google. YouTube is an educational tool and the videos act as an instructional tool that are proven useful because it is more interesting for students and it appeals to learners with different learning styles. So, it is possible to select the best ones that suit the students’ needs. This is aligned with a statement
made by Almurashi (2016) that claimed, YouTube videos have become a standard means of communication with information that is available only in video and is not found in printed form.

On the other hand, speaking is an important language skill that has to be understood perfectly by the learners so they are able to communicate effectively in their daily lives. Speaking skill is perceived as a basic skill that learners are expected to master well to communicate with others (Dewi, 2016). Brown (2007) stated that there are six types of speaking performance that can help students to improve their speaking skill; (i) Imitation, (ii) Responsive, (iii) Intensive, (iv) Transactional Dialogue, (v) Interpersonal Dialogue and (vi) Extensive. In addition, there are four main components in developing students’ speaking skills and there are; (i) grammar, (ii) vocabulary, (iii) pronunciation and (iv) fluency. These four components are equally important for ESL learners because it helps them to use and understand English language structures accurately and immediately (Abbaspour, 2016). Hence, speaking performance and speaking component are absolutely necessary as they provide ESL learners with situations that allow for well-rounded development and progress in all areas of speaking development.

Therefore, it is important to develop the pupils’ communicative competence especially in speaking by adopting Web 2.0 (Youtube) in teaching and facilitating processes. This paper hence explored speaking skills as an absolutely necessary element in communication skills through the use of YouTube that complement the Form 1 and Form 2 KSSM textbook (Pulse 2) and non-text book based. Thus, this study aimed to address the following research question:

- What are pupils’ perception on the use of the audio visual aids in developing their speaking skills?

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study applies mix method approach, whereby the researcher concurrently gathers both quantitative and qualitative data. The data collection is based on the questionnaire distributed to the participants. Then, the semi-structured focus group interview is conducted after the questionnaires are distributed. This study was carried out in Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Pusat Penyelidikan Pertanian Tun Razak, Jerantut Pahang. A quantitative and qualitative (mixed method) survey study exploring the students’ perceptions in developing their speaking skill would be beneficial in identifying the fundamental issues that are of concern to the students by integrating YouTube in their learning. For this purpose, 14 Form 3 students from the Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Pusat Penyelidikan Pertanian Tun Razak in which all of them are in the same class (Dual Language Programme Class), 3 Bijaksana, and the PT3 candidates were selected as participants to this survey.

The 16 questions in the questionnaire and eight interview questions for the semi-structured focus interview aim to explore participants’ perceptions on the use of YouTube in developing their speaking skills in terms of the overall impact of using the YouTube in some stages of the speaking process; 1) Grammar, 2) Vocabulary, 3) Pronunciation, and 4) Fluency. The questionnaire that researchers have constructed consisted of two parts; solicited demographic information and speaking skills after uploading videos on YouTube. The demographic information collected were age, gender and students’ overall end-of year examination grades in Form 2. The data analysis utilised was the Statistical Package Social Science (SPSS) Version 20. The information gathered from the interview was used to provide in-depth information and support the findings from the questionnaires.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There were 12 female (86%) and 2 male (14%) participants that took part in answering the questionnaires. All participants are in the same age group which is 14-year-old. Table 1 depicts the distribution of frequency of each item on the students’ self-assessment on their own development of speaking skill after uploading the videos on YouTube. In general, the findings from the study revealed that, grammar-wise, three of the students knew how to arrange a correct sentence in the conversation (17.6%). The interview with the students also revealed that students had improved their grammar in term of arranging some correct sentences in a conversation with their peers as seen from this extract “I know how to put the words in order after several practices... I also pay a very close attention so I can correct myself whenever I make a mistake” (a female student). This implies that students had developed their speaking skill in term of grammar especially in the process of making the videos with their peers.
Under the theme of vocabulary, 41.2% of the students agreed that their vocabulary range had gradually increased when and after producing they were videos. In addition, the interview also disclosed that students speaking skill had developed in term of their vocabulary. The students’ vocabulary range had definitely increased and they knew how to use appropriate words when they were having conversation in the process of making the videos. An extract which is quoted from a female student revealed that “I know and learn a lot of new words like tangy and leafy” and another extract instanced this situation is “…now I know how to use ‘nevertheless’ and ‘despite’ when I speak” (a female student). From the given extract, this entails that students had developed their speaking skill in term of their vocabulary.

Furthermore, the students also stated that their pronunciation had improved when and after producing the videos (29.4%). The interview with the students also revealed that there was an improvement on their pronunciation and they knew how to pronounce new difficult words. Some of the positive remarks mentioned by the participants include “I only use a small number of pauses and small number of “ums” or “ers.” (a male student) and “my friend likes to correct my mistake immediately if I say some words wrong… I feel shy to make mistake again to I immediately learn and correct it” (a female student). These implies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaking component</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree f(%)</th>
<th>Disagree f(%)</th>
<th>Neutral f(%)</th>
<th>Agree f(%)</th>
<th>Strongly agree f(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>I know how to arrange a correct sentence in conversation.</td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td>10 (58.8)</td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can easily notice my mistakes in my speaking when making the video.</td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td>10 (58.8)</td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>My vocabulary range has gradually increased when and after producing the videos.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>7 (41.2)</td>
<td>4 (23.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know how to use appropriate vocabulary in the conversation when producing the videos.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td>6 (35.3)</td>
<td>7 (41.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>My pronunciation is improved when and after producing the videos.</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>6 (35.5)</td>
<td>5 (29.4)</td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I know how to pronounce new words after producing the videos.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8 (47.1)</td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>4 (23.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>I only use a small number of pauses and small number of “ums” or “ers.”</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td>6 (35.5)</td>
<td>7 (41.2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I have the ability to reasonably speak in appropriate speed when I’m having a conversation.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>10 (58.8)</td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under the theme of vocabulary, 41.2% of the students agreed that their vocabulary range had gradually increased when and after producing they were videos. In addition, the interview also disclosed that students speaking skill had developed in term of their vocabulary. The students’ vocabulary range had definitely increased and they knew how to use appropriate words when they were having conversation in the process of making the videos. An extract which is quoted from a female student revealed that “I know and learn a lot of new words like tangy and leafy” and another extract instanced this situation is “…now I know how to use ‘nevertheless’ and ‘despite’ when I speak” (a female student). From the given extract, this entails that students had developed their speaking skill in term of their vocabulary.

Furthermore, the students also stated that their pronunciation had improved when and after producing the videos (29.4%). The interview with the students also revealed that there was an improvement on their pronunciation and they knew how to pronounce new difficult words. Some of the positive remarks mentioned by the participants include “I have no idea how to say ‘thoroughly’ and ‘designated’, but now I do” (a male student) and “my friend likes to correct my mistake immediately if I say some words wrong… I feel shy to make mistake again to I immediately learn and correct it” (a female student). These implies
that by producing the videos and uploaded it on YouTube, the students developed certain knowledge and
from the practices and advice given by their peers.

Moreover, 41.2% of the students agreed that their fluency had developed in which they only used a small
number of pauses. This is supported from the interview where the students commented “During the first
take I speak too fast. After watching again the video, I recorded again and I believe I improved” (a female
student) and “My friends always say ums and repeat the words ‘I know’. So I give them warning not to do
that again” (a female student). From the interview, it implies that students had developed their fluency
when they speak.

Table 2 revealed that 47.1% of students agreed that their peers were good at arranging correct
sentences after finished uploading it on YouTube. The interview with the students revealed that students had improved
their grammar in term of observing their peers and recognising at how well he or she at arranging some
correct sentences in a conversation. This can be seen in the extract “She knows how to put the exact words
in order after several practices... and at some points, my friends corrected the way I speak.” (a female
student). This implies that students had developed their speaking skill in term of grammar especially in the
process of making the videos with their peers.

In term of the vocabulary in their speaking skill, 52.9% of the students agreed to the fact that their partners’
vocabulary range had gradually increased when and after they produced and uploaded the videos. The
students’ vocabulary range had definitely increased and they were able to use appropriate words when they
were having conversation with their partners. An extract which is quoted from a female student commented
on her peers revealed that “I definitely learned new words from my friends because when she said a new
word, I picked it up and use it in sentence” (a female student). From the given extract, this entails that
students had developed their speaking skill in term of their vocabulary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Strongly disagree f(%)</th>
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<th>Agree f(%)</th>
<th>Strongly agree f(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>My partner is good at arranging correct sentences when he/she speaks.</td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td>8 (47.1)</td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My partner can easily notice my mistakes when I speak.</td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td>7 (41.2)</td>
<td>4 (23.5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>My partner’s vocabulary range has gradually increased when and after he/she produces the videos</td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>9 (52.9)</td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My partner knows how to use appropriate vocabulary in the conversation when producing the videos</td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>9 (52.9)</td>
<td>3 (17.6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My partner’s pronunciation is improved when and after producing the videos.</td>
<td>1 (5.9)</td>
<td>9 (52.9)</td>
<td>4 (23.5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Moreover, a high percentage of 52.9% students stated that they agreed to the fact that the production of the videos had improved their partners’ pronunciation. In term of fluency, a high percentage of 41.2% students could recognise their partners’ usage on the numbers of pauses and fillers in the conversation when making the videos. In addition, 29.5% of the students claimed that they strongly agreed that their partners had the ability to reasonably speak in appropriate speed when they were having a conversation.

From the survey and the interview done, it could be concluded that the use of YouTube has developed the students’ speaking skill. The assessment given by the teacher in which to make videos and upload it on YouTube has given an impact to them. After the completion of the task, teacher rechecked students’ progressions to make sure the development that they achieved were aligned with the speaking components rubric. This can be further supported by Crowther et al. (2015) in which performance is the assessment of grammatical accuracy given was made to check that not only did the learners improve their rapid speech production but they also improved comprehensibility.

In addition, there were also a small number of students that uncertain whether their grammar had developed or not. Moreover, in the interview the students stated that they were afraid to make mistake. This is in par with Akhia, Mydian and Adi Kesuma (2017) stated that many Malaysian students were over-concerned with their grammar mistakes. Thus, this may cause the students to have a slow progression in developing their speaking skill and students must be reminded that English language learning is not all about grammar and only when they start using it that they will develop their skills as well as confidence.

Regarding the students development in their increasing range of vocabulary, the findings revealed that high percentage of the students knew how to use appropriate vocabulary in the conversation when they were producing the videos. This is agreed by Khan, Muhammad and Muhammad (2016) that claimed social media plays a dominant role in English language learning because it provides opportunities to the English language learners to improve their writing, reading, speaking and listening to improve their vocabulary.

Moreover, pronunciation is another important component in speaking skill and students demonstrated high percentage in pronouncing new words. The findings showed that students developed the speaking skill by increasing their ability to speak correctly and only used a small number of pauses and fillers. Students is believed to be fluent when they produced the video with a speech production that was rapid and comprehensible (Crowther et al., 2015). From the survey and the interview done, we can conclude that the use of YouTube has developed the students’ speaking skill. This whole process or the journey towards the production stage had given an impact to the students to better themselves especially in the speaking skill.

**CONCLUSION**

The feedback from the majority of the students indicated that they had developed their speaking skills in term of the usage of appropriate grammar, their range of vocabulary, clearer and understandable pronunciation and ability to speak fluently and correctly according to the themes given. By using YouTube in the classroom, barriers of time and place are broken down, it can give learners a window out of the classroom into a real- English speaking environment which makes the second/foreign language classroom...
a better place to learn. Thus, the dimension of the society institutions in education especially and anything related framework needs to take place simultaneously in conjunction with the various stakeholders involving policy makers, schools, and teacher, to encourage the practice of 21st century education that applies the use of technology in teaching. A painstaking process but one that holds much promises.

REFERENCES


Shifts in Translation of Political Discourse/Text: A Case Study on Conceptual Manipulations in Persian Translation of Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action (JCPOA) in English

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ABSTRACT
Language use is not a simple act of utilization of words and linguistic elements. As such, meanings of words are always presuppositions of the load of embedded goals that are acquired through the chain interaction of word play. Political discourse gain the most influence concerning issues like, shifts in translation (meanings, concepts), politics, ideology, socio-cultural trends and power. As such, the purpose of the present study was to specify types of existing shifts in Persian translation of English political text – including the whole textual material of the international agreements i.e. Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action (JCPOA) in English and its Persian translation - and explain the outcomes of the manipulation affecting both national and international levels of global interaction between involved countries. The results indicated that manipulations and shifts in original English meaning as reflected in the Persian translation skew the siding of audience; bring about new concepts and impact the overall understanding of the receiver of the translated textual material.

KEYWORDS: Translation, Meaning, Shifts, Manipulation, Political Discourse

INTRODUCTION
Political discourse is among the most outstanding verbal interaction of which different social, cultural and political elements intervene to process a production that is predefined rather only produced. As Zheng (2000) argues language is a weapon and a powerful tool in winning public support especially during current information revolution period. The act of translation is the vehicle for meaning shift in the way that becomes appropriate for the taste of probable audience. The conduit of which translation has been processed to produce its final textual/verbal outcome involves various factors of ideological, cultural, social, historical and power related backgrounds. As such the following objectives are to be pursue in the current study; 1) Deep attention to the true meaning of source text (here English) and its corresponding translation (here Persian as target text); 2) Finding out any possible shifts taken place in target text content with due attention to the source text to reveal the manipulations in target text; and 3) Scrutinizing and determining the most influential shifts in Persian translation of the English source text.

METHODOLOGY
The present study is conducted on the basis of Qualitative-Interpretive method with Critical Discourse Analysis approach in order to shed light on the issues of translation shifts in Persian translation of English political discourses/texts. Therefore, the researcher will make use of the categories of shifts in translation introduce by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000), Catford (1978), Malone (1988), Baker (1992) in translation in which different types of shifts resulting from translation strategies used. For the research focus is on translation of political discourses from English into Persian the selected corpus of the study encompasses an international agreement i.e. the whole textual material of the international agreements i.e. Joint Comprehensive Plan of Action (JCPOA) in English and its Persian translation retrieved from www.zamannews.ir on 14/07/2015. To clarify the imposed changes in the form of translation/meaning shifts occurred in the target text the researcher back translated the Persian translation. As far as the research is of interpretive nature related analysis was done by the researcher and validity of data remains tentative. However, understanding the proposed analysis needs further interpretations and scrutiny of the possible reader(s).
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Source Text in English:
Iran will permit the IAEA to monitor, through agreed measures that will include containment and surveillance measures, for 25 years, that all uranium ore concentrate produced in Iran or obtained from any other source, is transferred to the uranium conversion facility (UCF) in Esfahan or to any other future uranium conversion facility which Iran might decide to build in Iran within this period (Annex I – Nuclear-related Measures; O: Transparency Related to Uranium Ore Concentrate (UOC), NO. 68).

Persian Translation:
ایران به آژانس اجازه خواهد داد تا برای 52 سال از طریق اقدامات تفاهم شده که شامل اقدامات محدود سازی و مراقبت خواهد بود، پایش کند که همه کنسانتره سنگ اورانیوم تولید شده در ایران یا بدست آمده از هر منبع دیگر به تاسیسات دیگر در اصفهان یا به هر تاسیسات دیگری که ایران در آینده در این دوره زمانی ممکن است بسازد، منتقل نماید.

Back Translation in English:
Iran will permit the IAEA, for 25 years, through agreed measures that will include containment and surveillance measures, to monitor that all uranium ore concentrate produced in Iran or obtained from any other source, transfers to any other facilities in Esfahan or to any other future facilities which Iran might build within this period.

Table 1: Scope of translation shifts in Persian translated text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT</th>
<th>Back Translation</th>
<th>Area of Manipulation</th>
<th>Imposed Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>for 25 years</td>
<td>به مدت 25 سال</td>
<td>for 25 years</td>
<td>Unit/Rank Shift</td>
<td>Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to monitor</td>
<td>برای نظارت</td>
<td>to monitor</td>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is transferred</td>
<td>منتقل می‌کند</td>
<td>Transfers</td>
<td>Level Shift/Transposition</td>
<td>Ideology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uranium</td>
<td>سایر تاسیسات</td>
<td>Other facilities</td>
<td>Category Shift/Recrescence</td>
<td>Power &amp; Language Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conversion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decide to</td>
<td>تصمیم بگیرد</td>
<td>May be</td>
<td>Unit/Rank Shift/Transposition</td>
<td>Power &amp; Ideology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By prioritization of the agreed period of the established measured in the agreement – 25 years- the time period for fulfilling the commitment by Iranian party is emphasized to show that the limitations will come to an end in a certain time laps. The passive verb ‘is transferred’ has been translated into an active form in target text i.e. transfers. This in turn means that the agency of decision making and proceeding to take an action is in the domain of Iranian Party’s authority. The noun clause ‘uranium conversion facilities’ is translated into ‘the other facilities’ in Persian text. As the Iranian government has always declared to have limited nuclear facilities in this way the Persian translator in line with the ideological trend and power system’s favorable suppositions is inducing that there are no other uranium conversion facilities but just other facilities that may be only used as storing sites for the material in question. The verbs ‘decide to’ in the source text that is translated into ‘may be’ in target text. Deciding indicates a strong will to make choice and shows the tendency in taking any required actions.

From among those studies applying translation shifts’ model Suzani (2018) found out that shifts were inevitable because of different natures of languages and variations among them. Vossoughi and Pourebrahim (2010) showed that all types of shifts were used while structural shifts were the most frequently ones. Dorri (2016) found out that structure shift was the essence of translation and without it children's translation would be ambiguous and unusual. In these studies the researchers paid attention to linguistic aspect of the shifts in translation while utilizing only one translation shifts model i.e. Catford’s model. Assumptions of social, cultural, political and ideological consequences and/or interference were not considered and applied in related analysis and conclusions. Some other studies in the domain of political discourse and translation (Azodi & Salmani, 2015; Sarozi-Mardirosz, 2014; v & Nakamura, 2005) relied
on applying critical discourse analysis lenses to elaborate of any possible problematic parts in translated text under the scrutiny. They did not analyze deep linguistic changes and translation shifts according to recognized models. Generally, above mentioned studies could not pay attention and take into account a holistic view and collective method of analysis thoroughly.

CONCLUSION
The origin of the shifts/manipulations in the target text does not only refer to translator’s lack of knowledge or irresponsibility, the issue is strongly linked to power relations in the receiving context and ideological bias where the government and translator impose their suppositions to create anew and acceptable textual material in the favor of their predefined goals. As such, the Persian translator follows a clear path of translation where some concepts are allowed to be transferred and some other must face manipulations to serve the favor of power holders and ideological desires in Iranian society. The results of the current study reveals that in addition to the inevitable nature of shifts in translation of English texts into Persian, such shifts impose very influential consequences on the possible audience siding in socio-political stance according to perception of differed concepts inserted by the Persian translation. The present study can be a good example of considering cross-sectional nature of translation activity and inform the readers to pay attention not only to the textual representation of translated text, but also to embedded motifs and suppositions by ruling systems in the translation contexts. Further, it can help novice translators to be familiar with translation strategies used in related process and analyzing the consequent product not only based on linguistic correspondence, but also other possible interfering non-linguistic factors. The same research can be conducted on different types of texts being translated from English into Persian (e.g. literary works, economic reports, speeches in various domains, and etc.) with considering the same or somehow different factors.

REFERENCES
Types and Mechanisms of Humor in Jason Leong’s Stand-Up Comedies

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ABSTRACT
Written jokes and verbal jokes although similar in nature, are very different from one another. While written jokes often toys with the linguistic devices, verbal jokes however require much more than linguistic devices to produce humorous effects. Therefore, this study aimed to try and understand and hopefully explain what are the mechanism of humor that are used by English-speaking Malaysian comedian, Jason Leong. In order to analyze the mechanism of humorous elements applied by the comic, the study investigated four different sketches by the comic as the sample for this study. The analysis was conducted qualitatively and was based on a textual based analysis. The analysis of these samples was aided by the Taxonomy of Jokes and General Theory of Verbal Humor to help the researcher determine and explain the different types and the mechanism of humor used by the comic in his skits. After conducting the analysis, the study found out that the comic used different types of jokes according to the demographic of his audience and the context where the skits were performed and the comic utilizes elements from GTVH to contruct the humor.

KEYWORDS: Types of Humor, Mechanism of Humor, Malaysian comedian, General Theory of Verbal Humor, Stand-up Comedy

INTRODUCTION
Humor are often used as a medium of entertainment. This could be executed through several strategies as humor also comes in variety of forms such as written, verbal or illustration. A stand-up comedy is one of the example of humor performed verbally. A stand-up comedy is a comic act in which a stand-up comedian or comic, will perform his act in front of a live audience. In a stand-up comedy, the instantaneous feedback from the audience is crucial as the audience expect a steady stream of laughter from the act with the reason being, laughter is often but not always, correlated with something humorous. To answer the question “what makes something humorous?” correlating it to only Linguistics, insufficient. While written jokes and verbal jokes might be similar to a certain degree, however should verbal jokes were to be transcribed into text, the humorous nuance from the stand-up comedy could not transferred. This is because a verbal humor in a stand-up performance utilizes more than just the language to create humor.

This brings us to the problem that this research wishes to highlight on which is to further analyze how, manipulation of certain strategies, humorous effect can be formed. This research will be looking specifically in some of the possible ways on how humor is formed in stand-up comedies performed by Malaysian comedian (which will be referred to as comic throughout the study). The issue that can be highlighted from this study is to analyze how humor is created in Malaysian stand-up comedy and the different forms of humor that is usually used by the Malaysian comic. The objectives of this research are keen to identify the forms of humor used by Jason Leong in his stand-up comedy and to discover the mechanism in which humor is created in the comic’s skits. In order to achieve the proposed objectives, the following research questions were formed.

The first research question being concerned with what are the forms of humor used by Jason Leong in his stand-up comedy? And how is humor created through in the comic’s skit?

Past researchers have investigated the ideologies perpetuated in a stand-up comedy (Jakoaho 2012), while other have looked into how the violation of Gricean maxim helped in production of humor in a stand-up sketch (Syauqillah, 2016). Another notable research have also looked into the interactional value formed by the language used in a stand up comedy. (Adetunji,2013). In the research conducted by Jakoaho (2012),
one of the most prominent findings was the type of humor used by the comic are directly proportional to the demographic of the comic’s audience in which the comic performed jokes that is more tailored to the audience through the use of theme and language used. Adetunji (2013) had found that the usage of code switches in the comic performance serves as a medium of interaction for the comic to communicate with the audience.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

In order to answer the research questions which are interested in analyzing the types of humor that are frequently used by Jason Leong in his comic and the mechanism used by the comic to create a humorous effect, a descriptive qualitative analysis will be used in order to analyze and describe the sample which consisted of several clips of stand-up comedies available on a free video sharing website. The duration of these clips on average are 2 minutes per clips. This study will be guided by theory introduced by Attardo and Raskin (1991) which is also known as General Theory of Verbal Humor (GTVH). This theory contains six levels of independent Knowledge Resources which are Script Opposition (SO), Logical Mechanism (LM), Situation (SI), Target (TA), Narrative strategy (NS), and Language (LA). This theory was chosen due to the inclusivity of the theory in explaining the mechanics of humor in verbal humor which does not focus only on the Linguistics aspect, but it also focuses on other aspect such as audience demographic and settings. GTVH will also be aided by the taxonomy of jokes and wit adapted from Taxonomy of jokes by Graesser (1988), in order to answer the question regarding the types of humor that’s used by Malaysian comedian, Jason Leong. This study will only be covering stand-up comedies performed by Jason Leong, a Malaysian comedian, in English. Instances of code mixing and code switching will also be considered. The research began with the process of collecting the sample after the case subject have been chosen. This research utilized the convenient sampling method in which the case subject was chosen from a list of English-speaking Malaysian comic. The subject’s sketch was then looked up from a video streaming site and for each clip, they are then divided into different segment according to their themes and transcribed. The transcription included both the verbal cues and the non-verbal cues that are present throughout the chosen video. The non-verbal cues and responses from the audience was also be considered during the analysis process. The completed transcription was analyzed according to the frameworks which was divided into two section which looked into the different forms of humor and the mechanic of humor that was utilized by the comic to create a humorous effect which also looked into the verbal aspects, linguistics such as semantics and phonology and other non-verbal aspects which includes the context, situation, audience responses and setting. These two aspects were analyzed simultaneously using their respective frameworks.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

After conducting the analysis of the four sketches, it can be observed that the comic utilizes different types of jokes in his sketch depending on the demographic of his audience, the context, and motive of the sketch. The usage of KRs in the comic’s sketches does not exist independantly but often they work together. The main theme of SO that can be observed is grouped under the positive/negative pairs. The positive/negative pair refers to the semantic values a particular word carries such as beautiful/violence, united/not united, non-sex/sex, etcetera.

Some scripts sets the context for the whole sketch while others operates only in specific theme in the sketch. The study also observed the existence of Logical Mechanism in the sketches. This element were aided by the usage of the other KRs such as situation, target narrative strategy and language. In order to misleads the audiences’ logical mechanism, the SI, TA, NS and LA worked together to achieve the said effect. The comic determined of his SI and TA for the joke joke which become the context of the sketch. Next, the Narrative strategies were realized by the usage of Language and arrangement which consist of Introduction, climax and punchline. The LA helped to execute the humor production through usage of ambiguous languages, double entendre, euphemism and code-switching. These instances of code mixing and switching according to Auer (Auer, 2005) shows that it acts as a sign of identity which they claimed to be a member of. Siegel, (1995) claimed that the usage of different codes are often used to convey social meaning and it also acts as a ‘framing device’ to contextualize how a certain utterance need to be interpreted as. Taking the instances of code mixing and switching employed by the comic who is Malaysian Chinese, it can be deduced that the comic was trying to show his sense of identity with the first being a Chinese, and secondly a Malaysian. This is because the comic is trying to connect to his audience which, in this particular sample
is majorly Malaysian Chinese, and to include the audience as a member in his sketch. In short, the language was used by the comic to include the audience in his sketch and it also acts a medium to give signal to the audience regarding on how the joke is conceptualized in. (Siegel J, 1995). This is because the comic is trying to connect to his audience which, in this particular sample is majorly Malaysian Chinese, and to include the audience as a member in his sketch. These linguistic devices helps aid the creation of punch-line and it helps set the necessary condition for the sketch to become humorous. By establishing the connection between the comic and the audience, the comic were able to anchor the interpretation of the audience through the usage of these different strategies. To conclude, the comic took into consideration the demographic of his audience, and utilized different strategies and structure fitting to his audience to produce humor.

CONCLUSION
This research wishes to highlight upon two matter in which to discover the types of jokes and how the jokes were created by a Malaysian stand-up comedian. The study then found out that the comic utilizes different types of jokes depending on the demographic of his audience. The use of specific strategies implemented by the comic helped the skit to be understood by the comic’s audience and one of this strategy lies in the usage of code switches and mixing by the comic.

The limitations of this study lie on the small sample size which is insufficient to further elaborate on how the comic’s approach in his skits. This study also did not look the underlying ideologies present in the comic act. The context of the skit was only touched briefly as this study only focuses in identifying the different elements in the comic’s skit.

Therefore, the gaps that were not covered by this study can be further investigated. Future studies could investigate how the comic’s ideologies were presented in his skits. The data sample can also be broadened by comparing other Malaysian stand-up comedian who performs their skits in English.
REFERENCES


ABSTRACT
This article aims at reporting the study on the forms of students’ critical thinking and creativity in developing instructional materials through Discovery Learning Model in the course of Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development. The study was of a descriptive qualitative type with the subjects of thirty seven students of batch 2017 in the English Language Education Department in University of Adi Buana Surabaya-Indonesia. The data was students group activities and ideas reflected in their assignments. They were collected through non-participant observation, documentation, note taking and recording, as well as interviews, which was then analysed through separation and connection techniques. The result showed that the implementation of Discovery Learning Model in the course of Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development enhanced the students’ critical thinking and creativity in developing instructional materials.

KEYWORDS: Discovery Learning Model, Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development, Students’ Critical Thinking, Creativity.

INTRODUCTION
The creative way requiring critical thinking skills is a new learning model for the 21st century. Nurturing curiosity and inspiring students to explore various applications for the knowledge and skills they have learned demand their creativity and critical thinking skills. However, as a matter of fact, based on some observations and preliminary evaluations, about 60 % of the students in the English Language Education Department taking Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development still face difficulties to analyse the existing curriculum (The Curriculum of 2013 ) to develop instructional materials to become teaching-learning devices. To overcome the problems, Discovery Learning Models can be a solution, since it develops ways of active learning through which students learn analytical thinking, investigate and solve problems themselves, then the results obtained will be durable in memory (Bruner, 1961). (Sanchez & Facione, 2010)

Solving the problems faced by students by following the 21st century learning patterns requires more personalized learning to support creativity. According to (Redecker & all, 2011), personalization has implications about what, how and where a teacher prepares learning devices. It can occur through collaboration which allows the process of sharing innovations to occur faster and information about the talents and progress of students is more quickly known. Learning in the 21st century is expected to foster curiosity and inspire students to explore various applications for the knowledge and skills they have learned.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
In line with the results of a study conducted by Johnson (Sanchez & Facione, 2010), students who have adequate critical thinking skills are likely to be able to study problems systematically, face millions of challenges in an organized manner, formulate innovative questions, and design solutions that are seen as relatively new. This is also supported by (Wina, 2008) who states that, “learning to think emphasizes the process of finding and finding knowledge through interactions between individuals and the environment”. Creativity activity is a cognitive activity that produces a new view of a form of the problem and is not limited to pragmatic results (Solso & Maclin, 2007). According to (Suharman, 2011) creativity can be understood as a thought process to produce new ideas, new approaches, or new works that are useful for
solving problems or the environment. These new things can be seen both from an idea or a work. Based on the findings of an expert namely Guilford (Suharman, 2011), creative thinking skills consist of fluency, flexibility, detail (elaboration) and originality.

According to (Sinambela, 2017) the implementation of Discovery Learning is: First, Stimulation (giving stimulation). Students are given problems in the beginning so that they are confused which then raises the desire to investigate it. At that time the lecturer as a facilitator by giving questions, reading text direction, and learning activities related to discovery. Second, problem statement (statement / problem identification). The second stage of this learning is that the lecturer gives the opportunity for students to identify as many events as possible from problems that are relevant to the subject matter, then one of them is chosen and formulated in the form of a hypothesis (temporary answers to problem questions) Third, data collection (data collection), functions to prove related statements so that students have the opportunity to collect various appropriate information, read appropriate learning resources, observe objects related to the problem, interview with informants related to the problem, conduct independent trials. Fourth, data processing (data processing), is an activity to process data and information previously obtained by students. All information obtained are all processed at a certain level of trust. Fifth, verification (proof), namely an activity to prove the true or failure of an existing statement, which is already known, and is associated with the results of existing data. Sixth, generalization (drawing conclusions / generalizations). This stage is to draw conclusions that will be used as a general principle for all the same problems. Based on the results, the principles underlying the generalization is formulated.

This study used a qualitative descriptive research design. This was chosen, because it was able to fully describe the process of students’ critical and creative thinking skills in learning using Discovery Learning Model in the Course of Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development. The subjects in this study were 37 students of English Language Education Department. The object of this research was to describe the ability to think critically and creatively in learning that used the Discovery Learning Model in Curriculum and Instructional Materials Development Course.

Data collection methods used in this study were observations while making field notes of the students’ group activities, documentation of students’ tasks in developing teaching-learning devices, and interview concerning students’ analytical as well as critical thinking process, to obtain students’ opinions and reasons in the use of communication strategies. In this study the researchers used nonparticipatory observation methods (Bogdan & SK, 1992) (Mahsun, 2013). When making observations, specific things or extraordinary things occurring in the classroom during learning process were recorded, such as class conditions, speech situations, and speaker expressions. The analysis of this study was presented in a qualitative descriptive manner. The entire data was analysed based on the guidelines used and classified according to the research problem

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

By using cooperative learning strategies the class was divided into several groups to conduct following activities:

A. STAGE OF STIMULATION
   1. Analyzing basic curriculum competencies to determine learning indicators and objectives.
   2. Formulating indicators and objectives using operational and specific verbs.
   The results obtained using the stages of stimulation at the beginning of the learning activities were that students were able to think critically in analyzing basic competencies into indicators and objectives using the guide questions asked by the lecturer.
   The results of critical thinking of students in the group produced a creativity to develop learning activities.

B. STAGE OF PROBLEM STATEMENT
   The next stage, the lecturer gave directions to students to be able to:
   1. link indicators and objectives that had been determined with the materials to be discussed (Redecker & all, 2011).
   2. organize learning activities in accordance with predetermined indicators and objectives.
3. review assessment tools to measure the success rate of indicator achievement.

The results of identifying problems critically, caused the students to think creatively and flexibly. Which made them to:

1. provide various interpretations of a materials
2. apply a concept in different ways in understanding materials
3. give consideration to the level of ability of students who will study the materials.
4. think of various ways to achieve learning indicators and objectives.

C. STAGE OF DATA COLLECTION

In the data collection stage, students
1. interpreted information about indicators, objectives and materials to be developed in learning-teaching materials.
2. made notes about the similarities and differences in indicators, objectives, and materials that would be developed in learning-teaching materials.

The results of this stage were that students were able to think original thought, e.g
1. thought of problems that others had never thought of that would be contained in learning- teaching materials.
2. provided new ideas in solving problems (problem training) as outlined in learning-teaching materials.

D. STAGE OF DATA PROCESSING

At the stage of data processing students thought critically for:
1. test indicators and objectives determined using relevant criteria and standards.
2. open thinking by using a variety of alternative systems of thought, by recognizing, evaluating, and looking for relationships between all indicators and objectives with the materials that would be contained in learning-teaching materials.

The results of critical thinking enabled students to think elaboratively for:
1. looking for meaning or solving deep problems of errors in determining indicators and objectives relevant to the learning-teaching materials.
2. enriching ideas in developing various alternative indicators and objectives.
3. building linkages between indicators, objectives and materials.

E. STAGE OF VERIFICATION

At the stage of proofing the results of previous critical thinking, students were able to
1. distinguish between facts and theories about the materials that would be contained in learning-teaching materials according to indicators and objectives.
2. find solutions to complex problems about the topic in question.

The ability of students to think evaluatively was shown by the capability to:
1. give consideration if the additions to the incompatibility between indicators, objectives, materials and practice questions were outlined in learning-teaching materials.
2. analyze the problem critically if there was a match between indicators, objectives and materials and practiced questions in learning-teaching materials.

F. STAGE OF GENERALIZATION

At the end of the activity in learning that used the Discovery Learning Model, students drew conclusions and solutions with reasons and evidence, then tested them using relevant criteria and standards.
Students were able to use failure as a means for learning and had the ability to create renewal based on their initial knowledge.

**CONCLUSION**

1. Learning activities using Discovery Learning Model are in accordance with the development of critical thinking in problem solving towards understanding the demands of basic competencies in the curriculum. The learning activities mentioned above also train students to learn to find out and apply interconnections between concepts in Curriculum and Instructional Materials development and everyday life (critical thinking).

2. Learning activities using Discovery Learning model can develop students’ creativity and innovation in developing basic competencies into indicators and objectives in accordance with the materials to be contained in learning-teaching materials. These activities can also develop the talents and careers of students in achieving their desired objectives through the development of assigned creativity (learning to be), as well as working on a work related to the concept obtained (learning to do).

**References**


