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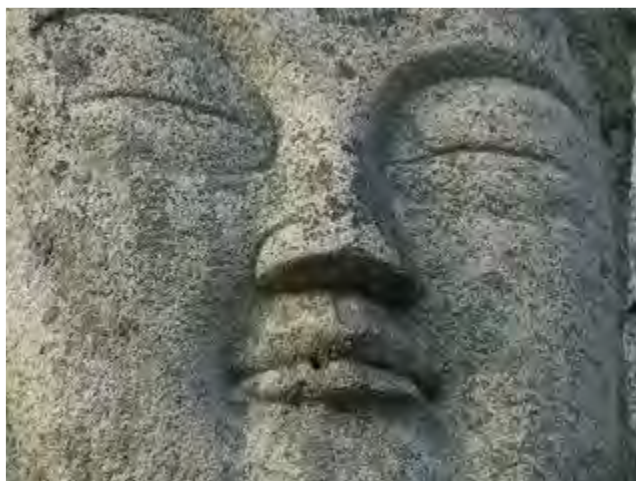
Senior Editors:

Paul Robertson and John Adamson

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July 2020 Foreword

Welcome to the July issue of Asian EFL Journal in 2020. Including six research, this issue explores diverse topics essential to the field of teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL). Specifically, the research articles address critical thinking via a genra-based writing approach, motivation and attitudes of towards learning English language, textbook evaluation of compliments and corresponding responses, L2 motivational self system and willingness to communicate, digital writing and teachers' attitudes, and communication strategies and willingness to communicate.

This issue begins with the study concerning critical thinking via a genra-based writing approach by Aunurrahman, Fuad Abdul Hamied, and Emi Emilia. Aiming to the effects of academic writing activities under a systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach on EFL learners' critical thinking skills, they have observed various linguistic features that reflected critical thinking among the participants and some incidences of improper conventions, grammar, and wording. With limited explicit teaching potentially contributing to the results, the authors thus call for an equal portion of explicit teaching in writing and critical thinking.

Probing into motivation and attitudes of towards learning English language, Sami Al-Mubireek investigated student motivation in terms of three motivational constructs (i.e., instrumental, integrative, and personal) and explored learners' attitudes towards the use of English in a broader scope. As the author noted, instrumental motivation and integrative motivation were key driving forces to English learning. Furthermore, tracks and proficiency levels led to different attitudes toward the use of English. The findings highlight the need for more examinations of motivation and attitude in English learning.

Waliyadin and Eleni Petraki systematically evaluated English Langage Teaching (ELT) textbooks that included teaching compliments and corresponding responses in the Indonesian context. Spefic attention was given to the extent to which Indonesain ELT textbooks offered pragmatic input and practice opportunities for students on giving compliments and compliment responses. The authors found limited linguistic structures of compliment making and

responding as well as insufficient sociopragmatic explanation on factors affecting compliment making and receiving.

In their attempt to examine L2 motivaional self system in in-class and out-of-class willingness to communicate, Noraini Zulkepli, Noor Alhusna Madzlan, Hema Vanita Kesevan, and Siti Nor Amalina Ahmad Tajuddin put the research in a multicultural context. With the ideal L2 self as the stronger predictor of in-class and out-of-class willingness to communicate, the authors directed the readers' attention to issues as identity and solidarity in a multicultural context and the need to provide pre-service teachers with extra emotional support.

As regards the paper addressing digital writing and teachers' attitudes by Leah Gustilo, Maria Isabel Vergel, and Aileen Valle, it helps the readers to understand the nature of digital writing conventions and the attitudes of Internet users towards the non-standard conventions. The analysis of the digital writing features in Internet Philippine English (IPE) revealed 20 digitalk conventions and non-sentence structures used in social networking sites. The attitudes of ESL teachers towards the non-standard usage in digital writing showed the teachers' belief that the digital conventions were confined to informal writing.

Finally, Hossein Vafadar and Thomas Chow Voon Foo investigated the effects of communication strategies (CSs) instruction on Iranian Intermediate EFL students' willingness to communicate. With the explicte instruction of CSs, particularly interactional and indirect CSs, the learners exhibited significant performance in terms of willingness to communicate and turn taking. Facilitative and inhibitive factors affecting learners' willingness to communicate were also discussed.

We sincerely hope that this issue helps provide new insights into the formulation of future research and innovations for EFL/ESL practitioners in cross-border, interdisciplinary, and collaborative manners.

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Teaching critical thinking through academic writing to tertiary EFL Students in Pontianak Indonesia: An utilization of a genre-based approach

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Abstract

This research aims to find out the use of academic writing activities under a systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach to help improve tertiary English as Foreign Language students' critical thinking capacities. The study involved 36 students of a private institute of teacher training and education in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. The data collection utilized a text analysis by using the functional grammar framework to three selected texts produced in an independent construction stage in the second cycle of the course. The findings showed that the students had gained

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control over the genre of an exposition text. The students also employed various linguistic features that reflected their critical thinking capacities. However, the text analysis also showed improper use of conventions, grammar, and lexical choices in the students' texts. Limited explicit teaching applied by the researcher as the lecturer due to a large class issue might cause this. The findings suggest that the lecturer should provide an equal portion of explicit teaching to the students despite their levels of performance in writing and critical thinking, especially, to the students with no prior knowledge in both aspects.

Keywords: genre-based approach, academic writing, critical thinking, character education

Background of the study

Critical thinking (hereafter CT) is considered as a 21st-century skill that should be mastered by students of the tertiary level of education. One way to teach critical thinking is by using writing activities. In this study, academic writing activities were used to teach critical thinking; as academic writing is the main focus of higher education that can reflect the critical thinking capacity of a person or a student (DasBender, 2011; Robinson, 2011).

Eventually, it is a common practice to use reading activities (Husna, 2019; Yumin & Henderson, 2014) and writing activities in many forms to teach CT (Asraf et al., 2018; Novakovich, 2016; Sahoo & Mohammed, 2018). However, earlier studies mainly assessed students' texts quantitatively to show the participants' improvement on critical thinking based on certain indicators and used students' responses to questionnaires as qualitative data to reveal the students' perceptions toward the application of the strategies used in their studies (Husna, 2019; Lu, 2013; Novakovich, 2016; Sahoo & Mohammed, 2018). Yet, Heffernan (2015) used students' texts in the form of qualitative data to examine the students' improvements. However, the study did not show explicitly what kind of improvements the students had made in terms of the generic structure and linguistic features used in their texts.

To fill the gap of the earlier studies, this study would like to use academic writing activities by utilizing the genre-based approach under systemic functional linguistics (hereafter SFL GBA). SFL GBA has been used to teaching academic writing (Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Nagao, 2019; Ueasiriphan & Tangkiengsirisin, 2019) and CT in a collaborative manner in Indonesia (Aunurrahman et al., 2017b). Unlike the earlier studies, this study would like to see the students' individual performance on CT that could be reflected from the students' academic texts.

To provide deeper understanding of the students' capacity in CT, the functional grammar framework would be used to view the generic structure and linguistic features used in the

students' academic texts that could reflect the CT capacity. Eventually, the functional grammar framework has been used in many contexts to analyze academic texts (Aunurrahman et al., 2017a; Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Hyland, 2000; Nagao, 2019).

Accordingly, this study would like to find out how academic writing activities under SFL GBA could help improve CT of the tertiary English Foreign Language (hereafter EFL) students of a private institute of teacher training and education in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. Apparently, little research on critical thinking has been conducted in this context.

Literature Review

In this study, critical thinking consists of three important elements, namely the specialized knowledge, information-organizing skills, and dispositions. The specialized knowledge is about contexts of issues that will be addressed by a critical thinker (McPeck, 1990; Perkins & Salomon, 1989). To address an issue in a certain context, students as critical thinkers need to know the relevant facts and theories that will be organized and cited logically and ethically. To do so, critical thinkers require information-organizing skills and dispositions that will be discussed afterward.

Information-organizing skills are about how to structure ideas into a meaningful text (see Lipman, 2003). Under SFL GBA, one genre that could reflect information-organizing skills is an exposition genre. An exposition genre belongs to the argumentative genre that is considered as an important genre in a tertiary-level education setting (Coffin & Donohue, 2012; Emilia, 2010; Hyland, 1990). Here, the argumentative genre can show "critical thinking and development of an argument within the context of the curriculum" (Nesi & Gardner, 2006, p. 108).

An exposition genre has two important aspects. First, the schematic structure of an exposition genre that consists of three important elements, namely thesis, arguments with their elaborations that are supported by facts or theories, and reinforcement of the thesis that includes a conclusion and a recommendation if needed (see Coffin, 2004 for the schematic structure of an exposition text; see Ennis, 1993 for the elements of critical thinking). Second, the linguistic features of an exposition genre such as present tense to communicate a position and points in an argument, passive forms to show objectivity, conjunctions to help organize ideas and evidence in a logical manner, and modalities to show modesty and honesty of the writers in communicating a message or an argument (Emilia, 2009; Hyland, 2000). Moreover, using these linguistic features are not enough. Students should also understand the dispositions of CT that will be elaborated below.

The last element of CT is dispositions that cover values or intellectual standards that guide a person in communicating CT (Elder & Paul, 2013; Siegel, 2010). The dispositions or intellectual standards used in this study are clarity — clear statements and elaborations; (2) accuracy — valid resources; (3) precision — precise and specific details; (4) relevance — relevancy of the argument to the topic under discussion; (5) depth — addressing complexities of the issue; (6) breadth — arguments from different perspectives; (7) logicalness — logical connection of the issue with the arguments presented; and (8) fairness — presenting viewpoints of others (Elder & Paul, 2013; Paul & Elder, 2008). These dispositions would help this study to assess the students' academic writing capacities that could reflect their CT capacities as well.

Another thing is, this study would also use the ethics of academic writing, which allow students to use facts or evidence ethically by adding relevant citations to support arguments and ideas in an academic text. Here, the ethics of academic writing could reflect accuracy, breadth, and fairness (Jones, 2011; Oshima & Hogue, 2007).

Based on the explanations of the aspects of CT that are in line with the aspects of academic writing, this study proposes the genre-based approach under systemic functional approach (SFL GBA) that has been used worldwide including in Indonesia to teaching writing at many different levels of education (Aunurrahman et al., 2017b; Cahyono, 2018; Hidayat et al., 2018; Kusumaningrum, 2015).

This approach has its own pedagogical concept that consists of explicit teaching, modeling, and collaborations which are used in the teaching of academic writing in one teaching cycle. Apparently, this pedagogical concept has been suggested also to be used in the teaching of CT (see Edwards, 2017; El Soufi & See, 2019; McLaughlin & McGill, 2017; Swartz & McGuinness, 2014).

The explicit teaching is known as a visible pedagogy where "teachers play a crucial role in helping students discern which intertexts are relevant in which contexts" (Macken-Horarik, 1998, p. 82) and "makes clear what is to be learnt to facilitate the acquisition of writing skills" (Hyland, 2007, p. 150). The explicit teaching was used to guide the students in academic writing and CT activities. Collaboration in the form of joint construction helped to engage the students to work together before they could work independently.

Furthermore, the teaching cycle of SFL GBA consists of building knowledge of the field, modeling, joint construction, and independent construction stages. Introductory sessions to SFL and CT were conducted to build the students' understanding of SFL and information-organizing skills and dispositions of CT (the descriptions are provided further in the methodology section).

In brief, this study would like to find out how SFL GBA is used in the academic writing activities that could show the improvement of CT of the tertiary EFL students of a private institute of teacher training and education in West Kalimantan, Indonesia. As explained earlier in the background section, little research on critical thinking has been conducted in this context. The following section will elaborate on the methodology used in this research.

Methodology

Participants

This research aimed to find out how SFL GBA is used in the academic writing activities that could show the improvement of CT of the tertiary EFL students of a private institute of teacher training and education in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. Thirty-six students from the private institute in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia agreed to participate in this research. They consisted of twenty-five female students and eleven male students. The students are from areas in West Kalimantan with the range of ages between eighteen to twenty-three years old.

In terms of the students' English language education, the students had been taught the English language at the secondary level of education for three years. However, they had no experience of living in English-speaking countries. Also, their capacities to write an argumentative text were not satisfying as they had insufficient knowledge and skills of the schematic structure and linguistic features of the particular text. This could reflect the students' limited capacities in CT (Aunurrahman et al., 2017a). Apparently, during their studies as tertiary EFL students, the students had learned sentence and paragraph writing in the first semester. This served as a requirement to take an academic writing course in the second semester making the research possible to be conducted. Here, the researcher acted as a male lecturer aged twenty-nine who taught the academic writing course in the second semester. The researcher is a regular lecturer of the English Education Department of the private institute of teacher training and education in Pontianak, West Kalimantan, Indonesia.

Teaching Procedures

The academic writing course in this research took nineteen meetings. The first meeting was used to introduce the students to the purpose of the course. An introduction to CT skills and dispositions, including the ethics of academic writing that cover quoting, paraphrasing, and summarizing techniques in academic writing was conducted in the second and third meeting (Glaser, 1984; Jones, 2011; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). Another two meetings were used to introduce the students to the systemic functional linguistics and genre-based approach. These

introductory sessions were conducted because the students had no prior knowledge of academic writing and CT at the tertiary level of education.

Two teaching cycles of the SFL GBA were conducted after the introductory sessions. The first cycle of the SFL GBA began with the building knowledge of the field stage for two meetings where the students learned to build knowledge of a topic to write about (Feez, 2002). The researcher acted as the lecturer provided several references and explicit teaching to help them in generating ideas. To ease them working on the task, the researcher assigned the students into several groups that allowed them to build cooperation with their peers.

The second stage was a modeling stage that was conducted in one meeting. The researcher explicitly showed an example of an exposition text, including its schematic structure and linguistic features. The model text was also used to show the students the information-organizing skills and dispositions of CT, including the ethics of academic writing that can build trustworthy of the students' texts as suggested by Hamied (2014). The researcher invited the students in groups to participate in providing arguments that they had generated in the building knowledge of field stage (Emilia, 2012). The next stage was a joint construction stage for three meetings where the students in groups worked together to construct a text and an independent construction stage for four meetings where the students were considered ready to construct a text independently. Peer review sessions were conducted in the joint and independent construction stages.

After completing the first teaching cycle, the students began the second teaching cycle for the last four meetings. The teaching cycle began with the building knowledge of a new topic assigned to the students and followed by an independent construction stage. Modeling and joint construction stages were skipped as the students were considered had good control of the exposition genre, information-organizing skills, and dispositions of CT, including the ethics of academic writing. Completion of the second teaching cycle was followed by a text analysis to answer the research question.

Data collection and Analysis

In terms of data collection, three academic texts were selected from thirty-six texts produced in the independent construction stage of the second teaching cycle. The texts represent the low, medium, and high achievers' performance. The texts were then analyzed textually.

In relation to the data or text analysis, the functional grammar was used to provide descriptions of the schematic structure and linguistic features of the texts in terms of its textual, experiential, and interpersonal metafunctions (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994; Halliday &

Matthiessen, 2014). The analysis was reviewed by Mr. Mahardika, a colleague of the researcher who is considered as an expert in functional grammar. The investigation of information-organizing skills and dispositions of CT, and the application of the ethics of academic writing was conducted as well. The following section will address the findings and discussion of this research.

Findings and Discussion

After the second teaching cycle, this study selected and analyzed three academic texts from three students who had been categorized into low, medium, and high achievers. The students were Sari (low achiever), Elan (medium achiever), and Raka (high achiever). The academic texts are presented in the following table.

Table 1

The Schematic Structure and Linguistic Features of the Students' Texts

Title and sample texts

Online Learning in Indonesia	The Benefit[s] of Online Learning	Online Learning in Indonesia
By Sari (a low achiever)	**By Elan (a medium achiever)**	**By Raka (a high achiever)**
Thesis element	Thesis element	Thesis element
a. Online learning is one of the new teaching **system** [media] in education	a. Nowadays, online learning is becoming more and more popular in some countries around the world.	a. What is online learning?
b. but has disadvantages in **it's** [its] application.	b. It is not only popular**,** but also has some benefits that can bring new and higher education level.	b. What are [the] benefits from it?
c. There are three obstacle[s] [in applying] online learning in **i**ndonesia.	c. There are three benefits of the online learning.	c. It [is a] question for **Indonesia's** [Indonesian] students.
Argument element		d. Many of them **there are** [do] not know online learning and how to use it.
d. First, the main obstacle is when an educator delivering learning **thought** [through] online learning then [the] students should use [the] computers and the internet **to receive** but not all learners have **the proficiency level** [the	Argument element	e. It **are** the ([s a] big problem Indonesia has
	d. First, online learning can save paper uses.	f. and in other [another] aspect, Indonesia**'s** facilities **is** [are] not ready **with it [**for it].
	e. Students need paper to do their school projects or theses for college students.	g. If the government **implied** [apply the] online learning[,]
	f. So much paper wasted by them every single	h. it can be useless.

computers and internet] **in his home** [at home].

e. **Not all space available** internet penetration increasingly growing

f. but [it] **is** still constrained by the **infrasructure** [infrastructure] of the internet in public facilities (Illinois Online Learning, 2015).

g. Second, the students need to **determine** [know] **if** [that] online learning is an option for them because not everyone does well with this type of **study** [learning].

h. Online learning is becoming one of the important media[s] in learning,

i. but still difficult to [be] implement[ed] because of economic limitations

j. [where] this happens in remote areas such as in the village (Snyder, 2013).

k. Third, **in** the implementation of online learning is still **a** lack **in** [lack of] human resources

l. [and] due to the limitations of internet use in the online program will not be equitable for all students in study **(Haythornthwaite &** Ciciora, 2008).

semester.

g. However, with online learning**,** they might cut down the production of the hard copies, turn in digital copies that eliminate paper waste, so**,** it is better for environment**,** because of the less paper, the **less** [fewer] trees cut (Smith, 2014).

h. Second, online learning will enable the learning activity to be done from anywhere.

i. As we know,

j. Indonesia is still using the traditional classroom learning and not all of school or university has a complete course.

k. While**,** so many students in Kalimantan want to take a rare course like fashion,

l. then they have to take the course in Java where some universities **in** there have the course.

m. However, with online learning**,** everyone can study even a rare course from anywhere [[and has **an** instant access to it, so**,** students do not have to move across province even country to study a subject they are interested in (Smith, 2014).

n. Third, online learning can make the teacher interact

i. **Because,** at least there are three reasons why the government cannot **be implied** [apply] online learning.

Argument element

j. First, Indonesia has [a] slow internet speed,

k. in a website[,] Indonesia **cited** [is stated] as [a] country [that] has [a] slow internet **speed only 770 kbps [**connection].

l. It is the problem**,** because online learning need[s] fast internet speed [connection] for [its] user.

m. It is very necessary when we do online learning, if the speed is slow, will result in interference **when learning**

n. and it **would also make no effective [**would make the learning not effective].

o. Second, Indonesia['s] facilitator[s] **has** [are] lack of essential online qualities.

p. Successful **on-ground does not** [cannot] always [be] translate[d] to successful online instruction.

q. If the facilitators are not properly trained in online delivery and methodologies,

r. the success of the online

Reinforcement of the Thesis element

m. In conclusion, online learning is needed in education

n. but there are some obstacles in **i'ts** [its] application.

with his/her students more frequently.

o. Normally**,** in the traditional classroom learning, the meeting of a subject is only once a week for three hours.

p. However, with online learning, the teacher can interact with his/her students more frequently by dropping into asynchronous discussion daily for a half-hour or an hour and if the teacher has a new learning material, he/she can post it and the discussion can begin right away (Haythornthwaite cited in **Haythornthwaite & **Ciciora, 2008).

Reinforcement of the Thesis element

q. In conclusion, conducting online learning will provide advantages in environmental, distance, and teacher-students interaction aspects.

r. No doubt, Indonesia should conduct the online learning.

learning program will be compromised.

s. **An** online learning will be weakened if its facilitators are not adequately prepared to function in the virtual classroom (Illinois, 2015).

t. Third**,**online learning is not appropriate for younger students.

u. Because younger students are dependent learners.

v. Online learning allows **for** flexibility of study schedules

w. and in order to successfully participate in online program a, student(s) must be well organized, self-motivated, and possess a high degree of time management skills in order to keep up with the pace of course (Illinois, 2015).

Reinforcement of the Thesis element

x. In conclusion, Indonesia stills not ready to **implied** [apply] online learning**,** because many problems Indonesia has.

y. The government of Indonesia must **make** [provide] better facilities, well-trained facilitators**,** and the last is**,** make**s** students ready for the change a.

The discussion will begin with the descriptions of the textual metafunction of the students' texts that is realized by the Theme system of the texts. At the text level, Thematic progression indicates how a Theme or a topic of a discussion relates to another Theme, and the following information that comes after the Theme is called Rheme (Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Eggins, 2004). The main Thematic progression of the three texts is called a multiple-Theme pattern (Bloor & Bloor, 2004; Emilia, 2012). An example of the multiple-Theme pattern in the text written by Elan, the medium achiever, is in the following figure:

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macroTheme:
There are three benefits of the online learning

hyperThemes:
First, online learning can save paper uses.

Second, online learning will enable the learning activity to be done from anywhere.

Third, online learning can make the teacher interact with his/her students more frequently.

macroNew:
In conclusion, conducting online learning will provide advantages in environmental, distance, and teacher-students interaction aspects.

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*The *italic* words are logical conjunctions which introduce the hyperThemes or arguments

Figure 1. The Thematic Progression of Elan's Text

The three texts employ logical conjunctions (*First, Second, Third*) that introduce a hyperTheme. A hyperTheme is a topic or argument that will be discussed in a paragraph (Martin & Rose, 2007). The hyperThemes presented in the figure are relevant to the macroTheme, that is, *online learning*. MacroTheme serves as the main idea of the text. These logical conjunctions also realize the logical metafunction of the text (Bloor & Bloor, 2004), and indicate information-organizing skills of the writers (Lipman, 2003). The text ended with a macroNew, which serves as the summary of the text followed by a recommendation if necessary (Coffin, 2004; Ennis, 1993). The macroNew is indicated by a logical conjunction that signals a summary: *In conclusion*. In relation to CT, this logical connection reflects a disposition of CT, that is, relevance.

At the paragraph level, an elaboration is expected to support an argument. From the three texts, only Elan's arguments that can show certain dispositions of CT. Meanwhile, Sari and

Raka's arguments are limited as their texts have grammatical mistakes; missing or incorrect information; improper punctuations, spellings, and lexical choices that interfere with the meaning of their texts. Examples of the arguments from the three texts are in the following table.

Table 2

Argument Elements of the Students' Texts

Students	Argument elements
Sari	1. *First*, the main obstacle is when an educator delivering learning **thought** [through] online learning then [the] students should use [the] computers and the internet **to receive** but not all learners have **the proficiency level** [the computers and internet] **in his home** [at home]. 2. **Not all space available** internet penetration increasingly growing 3. but [it] **is** still constrained by the **infrasructure** [infrastructure] of the internet in public facilities (Illinois Online Learning, 2015).
Elan	4. *First*, online learning can save paper uses. 5. Students need paper to do their school projects or theses for college students. 6. So much paper wasted by them every single semester. 7. However, with online learning**,** they might cut down the production of the hard copies, turn in digital copies that eliminate paper waste, so**,** it is better for environment**,** because of the less paper, the **less** [fewer] trees cut (Smith, 2014).
Raka	8. *First*, Indonesia has [a] slow internet speed, 9. in a website[,] Indonesia **cited** [is stated] as [a] country [that] has [a] slow internet **speed only 770 kbps [**connection]. 10. It is the problem**,** because online learning need[s] fast internet speed [connection] for [its] user. 11. It is very necessary when we do online learning, if the speed is slow, will result in interference **when learning** 12. and it **would also make no effective [**would make the learning not effective].

*The *italic* words are logical conjunctions that introduce the hyperThemes or arguments

Sari's argument (see clause no. 1) is very long and seems already to include a specific illustration of the main obstacle in online learning. The following sentence (see clause no. 2) ideally should be an elaboration. Unfortunately, a marked topical Theme, which serves as a signal of an elaboration of the argument, is not clear and relevant. This is affected by improper lexical choices, such as *the proficiency level* and *not all space available*, which sound inappropriate in that context.

A similar issue was identified in Raka's argument element. Raka's argument (see clause no. 8) is also very long and seems already provide a piece of specific information. The sentence (see clause no. 10) that follows the argument begins with a Topical Theme: It that refers to the argument. The elaboration, then, attempts to provide a relevant elaboration. However, missing punctuations and improper lexical choices interfere with the attempt.

Elan's argument element, on the other hand, shows a good flow of information from the argument to its elaboration. The elaboration (see clause no. 5) is signposted by a Topical Theme: Students. This indicates a logical connection. Then, the Topical Theme leads to a

discussion in the form of an illustration of how online learning can save paper uses. The illustration itself reflects dispositions of CT, namely, clarity, accuracy, precision, and depth, that are supported by a citation at the end of the paragraph (see clause no. 7). A citation can reflect an objective statement and an appreciation of the writer to the references that contribute to his text. A citation is also a form of the ethics of academic writing that can build trustworthy of the text (Jones, 2011). A citation was identified in Sari's argument element (see clause no. 3) as well. Unfortunately, Raka's argument element has no citation to support its argument, and this signals a personal comment. Still, there is an attempt to provide a reference as indicated in clause no. 9 where Raka points out a circumstance that functions as a location: in a website.

In accordance with the references, the following figure will show the reference list of each text. The reference lists are required to follow APA style (2010). With identifiable limitations, the reference lists of the texts are shown below.

Table 3
Reference Lists of the Students' Texts

Students	Reference Lists
Sari	References **Illionis** Online Network**.(**2015,April 6)**.W**eaknesses of Online Learning. Re**a**trieved April 5,2015,from http://www.ion.uilllinois.edu/resouces/tutorials/overview/weaknesses.asp [http://www.ion.uillinois.edu/resources/tutorials/overview/weaknesses.asp] Synder, T**.(**2013,January 30). The Benefits of Online Learning . *[The Huffington Post]* . Retrieved April 5,**2**015,**f**rom http://www.huffingtonpost.com/tom-synder/the-benefits-of-online-le_b_2573991.html **Haythornthwaite, C.,&** Ciciora , P. (2008**,**November 26). E-Learning can have positive effect on classroom learning, scholar says. *[Illinois News Bureau]***.** Retrieved April 5**,**2015**,**from http://www.ion.uilllinois.edu/resources/tutorials/overview/weakness.asp [https://news.illinois.edu/blog/view/6367/206104]
Elan	References **Haythornthwaite, C., &** Ciciora, P. (2008, November 26). E-Learning can have positive effect on classroom learning, scholar says. *[Illinois News Bureau]* . Retrieved April 5, 2015, from http://www.news.illinois.edu/news/08/1126elearn.html Smith, M. (2014, July 10). How Online Learning Can Positively Impact the Earth. *[Iversity]* . Retrieved from https://iversity.org/blog/smith-learning-positive-impact-earth/
Raka	References **Syafrizal Setia Budi**. (2013). Indonesia Has Slow Internet Connection Speed in ASEAN. *[Devinteech]***.** Retrieved from http://devinteech.blogspot.com/2012/10/indonesia-has-slow-internet-connection.html Illinois Online Network. (2015, April 6) Weaknesses of Online Learning. Retrieved April 5, 2015, from http://www.ion.uillinois.edu/resources/tutorials/overview/weaknesses.asp

*****Bold** words or expressions indicate missing or incorrect information, improper formats, punctuations, and spellings.
**Words or expression in square brackets [] indicate suggested spellings, punctuations, and information.

The reference lists of the texts, to some extent, follow APA style (2010). However, the reference list has a few issues that need to be addressed. For example, the three texts cite **Haythornthwaite, C., &** *Ciciora, P.* The citation is an online article written by Ciciora with Haythornthwaite as the subject of the article who was asked about the effects of online learning (see Ciciora, 2008). Another issue is missing information that is indicated by a suggestion provided in square brackets. For example, a missing title of a website: *[Illinois News Bureau]*. The title of the website can help the text to gain credibility. Another thing is, the reference list must show it explicitly following APA style (2010).

Sari's reference list has an incorrect hyperlink of an online article. The researcher provides the correct hyperlink in the square brackets. An incorrect hyperlink can lead a reader to doubt the credibility of the reference. Then, the improper use of formats, punctuations, and spellings may not interfere with the purpose of the reference list, but it may make the reference list uncomfortable to be read. In Raka's reference list, a name of an author is not properly formatted: **Syafrizal Setia Budi**. It should be formatted to last name followed by initials: Budi, S. S. Moreover, even though the author is listed in the reference list, no citation in the text that refers to the author. This can lower the credibility of the text itself.

In relation to experiential metafunctions, the three texts employ various process types along with their participants and circumstances. In every element, material processes are dominating the texts. These build the aspects of the field of the texts. An example taken from Elan's argument element is: *First, online learning [Actor] can save [Pr: Material] paper uses [Goal]*. A possessive relational process is used to present an argument. The example taken from Raka's argument element is: *First, Indonesia [Possessor] has [Pr: Possessive] (a) slow internet speed [Possession]*. In the thesis element, an existential process introduces a thesis statement. An example taken from Elan's thesis element is: *There are [Pr: Existential] three benefits of the online learning [Existent]*.

An attempt to use verbal process was identified in Raka's argument element. An example in the following projected clause is: *in a website(,) [Circ: Place: Location] Indonesia [Target]* ***cited*** *as (stated as) [Pr: Verbal] (a) country [Verbiage] (that) has (a) slow internet* ***speed only 770 kbps*** *(connection)*. The verbal process is using a circumstance: *in a website* to refer to a reference. However, the reference stated is not specific.

A mental process that signals a sense of thinking was also identified. It is also a form of cautious language that can convey a message modestly, honestly, and responsibly if it is structured properly (Emilia, 2009; Hyland, 2000). An example of a mental process taken from Elan's argument element is: *As we [Senser] know [Pr: Cognitive], Indonesia [Actor] is still*

using [Pr: Material] the traditional classroom learning [Goal]. The mental process is followed by a material process. Unfortunately, the personal pronoun *we* even though it attempts to build engagement with the readers, it generalizes the material process that follows. This indicates a fallacy in CT where a writer generalizes information without proper reasoning (Kurfiss, 1997). A similar fallacy was also identified in Raka's text. Nevertheless, participants with its assigned roles (Actor, Goal, Senser, Sayer) are used effectively to some extent.

Circumstances indicate several functions, such as location as described in the earlier paragraph. A circumstance is helpful to indicate the depth of an argument. An example from Elan's text is: *because of the less paper, the less (fewer) trees cut (Smith, 2014)*. Then, a circumstance functions as an angle that provides a specific field of discussion. This reflects accuracy and precision as dispositions of CT. An example from Elan's text is: *conducting online learning will provide advantages in environmental, distance, and teacher-students interaction aspects*.

In relation to interpersonal metafunctions, modalities are used effectively in terms of probability (modalization) and obligation (modulation). The probabilities are realized by modalities such as *can, will,* and *might*. An example of the probability of modality *can* from Elan's text is: *online learning can save paper uses*. *Can* signals a median modality with high certainty as the elaboration of the sentence and is supported by an illustration and a citation at the end of the paragraph. An obligation is signaled by modalities such as *have to* and *need*. An example of the modality *have to* from Elan's text is: *students do not have to move across province even country to study a subject they are interested in (Smith, 2014)*.

Another feature in the texts is an impersonal passive voice that makes the texts focus on the abstract issue under discussion and indicate an objective opinion (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). The examples from Raka and Elan's texts are: <u>*It* **are** *the (is a) big problem Indonesia has*</u> and <u>*online learning*</u> *can save paper uses*. Then, an interrogative form is used that allows the text to engage with the readers to follow a discussion (Hyland, 2002). An example from Raka's text is: *What is online learning?* Surely, the interrogative clause does not require any answer from the readers.

The examples from Elan and Raka's texts provide varieties of linguistic features compared to Sari's text. On the other hand, Raka and Sari's texts could be considered limited due to some grammatical mistakes; missing or incorrect information; improper punctuations, spellings, and lexical choices that interfere with the meaning of their texts. The students also had weaknesses in constructing an argument and citing a reference, including writing a reference list properly. A similar issue was identified in Elan's text even though the issue does not interfere with the

meaning of the text. These are common issues for students as the students were new to the concept of academic writing and critical thinking at the tertiary level of education context.

Up to this point, the students' texts, to some extent, show that the students had gained control over the schematic structure of an exposition genre with its linguistic features. This can reflect information-organizing skills and dispositions of CT. The texts also show the applications of the ethics of academic writing and linguistic features of academic writing. These could be achieved due to the applications of the explicit teaching, group discussions, and teaching stages of the SFL GBA that were conducted in two teaching cycles.

The findings support the previous studies, specifically, in Indonesia's tertiary-level education settings, that academic writing activities by using the SFL GBA with its teaching stages, collaborations in the form of joint construction, modeling, and explicit teaching is useful to help improve the critical thinking capacities of the tertiary EFL students (Aunurrahman et al., 2017b; Emilia, 2005; Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Nagao, 2019; Ueasiriphan & Tangkiengsirisin, 2019). Not to mention, this study used introductory sessions to SFL and CT before entering the teaching cycle to build the students' understanding of SFL and information-organizing skills and dispositions of CT.

Nevertheless, some limitations and weaknesses in the findings were identified as shown above. This indicates that the joint construction, explicit teaching, and teaching stages of the SFL GBA need to be provided equally to the students. This will help the students to construct academic texts under the guidance of a lecturer before the students work in an independent setting. To be noted, the activities under the SFL GBA should be applied cautiously especially when it comes to teaching a large class.

Conclusions and Suggestions

This paper shows that the academic writing activities by using the genre-based approach under the systemic functional linguistics are useful to help improve the tertiary EFL student's critical thinking capacities. This is supported by the results of the text analysis. The text analysis has revealed that the students had good control over the genre of academic writing, specifically, the exposition genre. The students also used various linguistic features that can reflect their information-organizing skills and dispositions of CT. The ethics of academic writing and linguistic features of academic writing such as modalities and mental processes were identified in the students' texts that could build trustworthy of the students' academic texts (Emilia, 2012; Jones, 2011).

However, some students still had limitations in realizing the aspects as required in the course. Their limitations covered conventions, grammar, and lexical choice aspects, which are the important aspects of writing an academic text. Limited applications of the explicit teaching, joint construction, and teaching stages of the SFL GBA to engage them in the teaching and learning activities might affect the results, especially when it comes to teaching a large class. The findings suggest that an academic writing course should maximize its explicit teaching in the four stages of the genre-based approach under the systemic functional linguistics, specifically, when dealing with students who have no prior knowledge in academic writing and critical thinking despite their levels of performance. Further research can focus on multiple cases and practice the genre-based approach to writing across the curriculum that is still limited in Indonesia's tertiary-level education settings.

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An Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) of English language learning among students across genders, tracks and proficiency levels at a leading Saudi university

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Abstract

Motivation and positive attitude play a decisive and essential role in learning English as a foreign language where it can ultimately define and determine success or failure in English language learning. The aim of this study was to explore the motivation and attitudes of preparatory year students towards learning English language at a leading Saudi university. The study investigated student motivation in terms of three motivational constructs: instrumental, integrative, and personal. It also explored learners´ attitudes towards the use of English language in Saudi educational and social contexts, the English language itself, and the culture of the English-speaking world. An attitude/motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was administered to 403 students enrolled in mandatory English classes during the 2016-17 academic year, and the study revealed a high level of motivation, particularly with regard to instrumental and integrative motivation. Learning English for career purposes and communication with English-speaking people were key motivating factors. Female students presented higher levels of motivation in comparison with their male counterparts, and science track students

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presented lower levels of motivation in comparison with health majors. Results further present positive attitudes towards English at the individual level, within the university context, in education in general and at the national level. Data revealed significant effects across tracks and proficiency levels with regard to attitude. Overall, results suggest that particular learners in different majors and at different levels of proficiency may benefit from a greater focus on internal factors such as attitude and motivation.

Introduction

English is used to communicate across a multitude of different linguistic and cultural boundaries (Alsagoff, McKay, Hu & Renandya, 2012), and is not only learnt as a foreign language but has become the medium of instruction in most Saudi universities. At the tertiary level, in particular, it is essential that students have in-depth, relevant knowledge of not only general English, but also English for academic and specific purposes (Moskovsky & Picard, 2018) - all of which require hours of intensive study and scholarship and a substantial degree of motivation and determination.

Certainly, two key variables that greatly affect second language learning, both positively and negatively, are motivation and attitude. In general, attitude, as a construct, refers to a set of beliefs whereas motivation is defined as a reason for doing something (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011). Attitude is a predisposition or a tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain idea, object, person, or situation. It may further be defined as a learner's persistence in striving to attain a goal (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). A learner's attitude will, in turn, influence an individual's stimuli, i.e. choice of action and response to challenges, incentives, and rewards (Renninger & Hidi, 2019). In comparison, Brown (2007) defines motivation as the extent to which individuals make choices about (a) goals that they wish to attain and (b) the amount of effort they invest in that pursuit (Brown, 2007). It may be manifested in terms of personal success and/or in cognitive, emotional, and behavioral participation in different school or college activities (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004). Dörnyei further defines motivation as a learner's "enthusiasm, commitment, and persistence" (Dörnyei, 2001, p.5).

Learner motivation and attitudes recurrently transform and adapt, particularly in response to the rapidly changing demands and challenges of the 21st century - an era of inordinate advanced technology. Therefore, contemporary research into learner motivation and attitudes,

across different populations is paramount to developing a deeper understanding of how these constructs may influence English language learning. Certainly, with enhanced knowledge of how motivation and attitude vary across different groups, educators, stakeholders and policy makers may more consciously allocate and manage funds, design learner-centered programs and positively impact language learning outcomes. The aim of this paper is to determine the role that motivation and attitude play in English language learning at a leading University in Saudi Arabia. It compares motivation and attitudes across Saudi gender groups, major tracks and proficiency levels. In addition, it raises important implications with regard to how different types of students' motivation and attitude may be exploited and enhanced as a means of improving English language learning at the tertiary level. Motivation, for example, might be influenced by the "students' desire of getting a career" or, "jobs in foreign countries" which might trigger "a positive attitude of learning a foreign language" (Ditual, 2012, p.9; Liu, 2007).

Motivation and Attitudes in the ESL/EFL Classroom

Academic research on foreign language learning has long placed great emphasis on questions related to student motivation (Liu, 2007) and attitude toward language learning (Ditual, 2012). Tung and Chang (2014) argue that Taiwanese learners are instrumentally motivated to learn English because they are required to pass certain exams to increase their chances of getting a better education and for enhancing their performance at work. Certainly, a complex and diverse understanding of these factors in second language learning and acquisition can lead to the identification and construction of effective learning strategies, curriculum development, and for predicting the future academic performance and achievement of students. Existing studies have drawn most heavily on socio-educational perspectives, socio-psychological statistical methodologies, neurobiological analysis, and case study methodology and what these studies commonly seek to assess, whether they are statistically-oriented or anecdotal in nature, is the effect of student motivation and attitude on achievement and proficiency in second language (see Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001, Dörnyei & Csizér, 2006, Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Genc & Aydin 2017; Lin 2019; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Rahman, 2005; Schumann, 1997; Sharma, 2018, Tung & Chang, 2014).

Schumann (1997) identified five categories of student response in language learning, including novelty, pleasantness, goal or need significance, coping potential, and self- and social image, and suggested that these constructs could be used to assess 'stimulus appraisal'. He further provided a method of neurobiological analysis for affect in ESL research (Schumann, 1978, 1986 &1997). His research was important to the field of motivation in that he examined

linguistic and extralinguistic factors which lead to second language acquisition, exemplified by his experiment with Alberto. In his study, Schumann identified that a lack of acculturation to the target group was a key reason why Alberto did not show development in learning a second language, i.e. Alberto was not motivated to acculturate with the target group of the L2. The degree of acculturation and motivation are correlated with the development of L2.

Oxford extensively researched second language learning strategies and influencing factors including motivation (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). She found that second language students had "greater motivation" to use various strategies for 'instrumental purposes' than foreign language students (Oxford,1990, p.35). Although both groups may have needed to use the target language; the need among L2 learners was more evident than that identified among FL learners. Thus, the level of motivation was higher for L2 learners than FL learners leading the former group to practice more strategies. Oxford's finding was statistically significant (Oxford, 1990) and highlights how the use of language learning strategies may be influenced by motivating factors such as immediate language needs.

Oxford's work led to further research into motivation and second language acquisition by Dörnyei who further expanded and developed her views on the role of motivation in second and foreign language acquisition. Zoltan Dörnyei (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2006) markedly explored motivation and attitude and their relationship to language choice and effort toward language learning. He posited that integrativeness is the sole salient factor that influences the L2 learner motivation complex which, in return influences motivational behavior. Essentially, Dörnyei's work refined the concept of student motivation based on the work of other researchers, most notably that of Robert Gardner (2004) whose body of research has also been foundational in the field of motivation and learner affect.

Early on, Gardner divided individual learner differences into two sets of measurable variables: motivation, attitude, and language aptitude as one set, and motivational variables as the second set (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). In later studies, focusing specifically on motivation and situational anxiety, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993 & 1994) identified four basic categories relevant to socio-educational analysis in foreign language learning: integrativeness, language aptitude, motivation and anxiety (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). First, integerativeness is associated with the learner's willingness to interact with members of the target group. It includes three scales of assessment, namely, "attitudes toward the language group, interest in foreign languages, and an integrative orientation to language study" (Gardener & MacIntlre, 1993, p.159). Second, attitude toward the learning situation is linked to students' reactions to instructions i.e. any item related to assessing the respective learning situation. An example of a

learning situation could be an evaluation of a textbook by learners. Third, motivation "refers to a combination of the learner's attitudes, aspirations, and effort with respect to learning the language" (Gardener & Maclntlre, 1993, p.159). This construct is measured by attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language, and motivational intensity. Fourth, anxiety, refers to apprehension experienced by the individual when the language is in use (Gardener & Maclntlre, 1993).

Gardner (2004) was also instrumental in creating the attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) – a survey given to teachers and students to assess student motivation and attitudes toward language learning. The survey has been used and adapted by a number of researchers (König, 2006; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010), including Gardner & MacIntyre (1991), and was further adapted to meet the purposes of the present study. Essentially, the AMTB is used to measure (a) integrativeness, (b) attitudes toward the learning situation, and (c) motivation of second-language learners. Taken together, these three categories form a measure of a student's "integrative motivation", where the overall purpose is to assess a student's ability to integrate the specified characteristics mentioned above (Gardener, 2001, p.1).

In more detail, Gardner (2003) defines imperativeness as a student's openness to identify or desire to be part of the L2 community. It includes: (a) attitudes toward the target language group (b) integrative orientation (i.e. the degree to which the student considers it useful "to interact, meet, socialize, become friends" with members of the other group (Gardener, 2003, p.172), and (c) interest in foreign languages. "Attitudes towards the learning situation" is measured using two scales: evaluation of the course by students, and evaluation of the teacher by students. Gardner further defines motivation, often linked to definitions of successful and unsuccessful language learners (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), as "goal-directed behavior" - an affective variable influencing language learning, (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p.173).

A further category, instrumentality, was later added in follow-up studies to assess adult students' motivation to study English, such as in the case of monetary incentives by employers (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). Specifically, instrumentality refers to the practical value and advantages of learning a new language (Lambert, 1974, p.98) i.e. providing an incentive besides other socio-educational factors that enhances the student's performance in learning a foreign language.

Drawing on the work of Gardner, this study aims to explore the motivation of students at one of the largest universities in Saudi Arabia — an area that is under-researched in the Saudi EFL context. With recent economic and social changes in Saudi Arabia, English has become the medium of instruction in most public and private universities. Although most students

participate in standardized preparatory year programs within various tracks, they can demonstrate vastly different levels of English proficiency by the end of the academic year. Learners in some tracks, in particular, often achieve better scores in English than other tracks and instrumental motivation may be key factor behind these differences, as established in previous studies and explored in this paper.

The Saudi Context

There are a number of influential barriers that may inhibit the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. Among several factors, Khan (2011) posits that motivation is the most significant variable in determining positive language output. Educators, accordingly, as Kahn suggests, should shape their "instructional materials to catch learners' attention." (Khan, 2011, p. 245). A greater understanding of motivation in the Saudi context is, no doubt, key to improving pedagogic practices and English language learning within the kingdom. As it stands, however, motivating students to learn English in Saudi Arabia is somewhat of a challenge due to what many perceive as a general lack of interest and ambivalence toward English (Alfawzan, 2012).

A lack of interest and ambivalence toward English as a global language among Saudi students may be surprising given that English is spoken across a wide range of contexts in Saudi Arabia. Such ambivalence may be linked to a number of interrelated factors including: personal, professional, socio-economic, historical, and psychological factors (Alfawzan, 2012) - factors that are affected by cultural and political changes that occur at both a national and global level. One possible explanation of ambivalence toward English in the Saudi context is a lack of political and economic pressure on students to develop a competitive command of English as a foreign language. According to Burton and his colleagues (2012), in many circumstances, "situations of language context involve complex situations of language use" (p. 154). For example, as is often the case of Saudi Arabia, different varieties may be used for different purposes, i.e. one language may be used for administration, another in schools or on the streets, and yet another at home. However, as the authors note, the dominant language will ultimately be the one used by the government. Therefore, although English is used in many contexts, Saudi students consciously or subconsciously may react to the fact that Arabic remains the dominant and official language of Saudi Arabia, and that English is not essential in order to obtain a job or survive in a workplace or professional environment.

No doubt, the ubiquitous use of the Internet and smartphones has added a sense of urgency and convenience to the process of learning and using English, yet communication is not

centrally dependent on English. Burton and his colleagues (2012) note that speakers belong to speech communities, i.e. a group of people "who use language with each other in a unique and mutually accepted way"; and a speech community "consists of the social networks that tie together individual members of the community and affect the speech patterns of community members" (p.156). If social groups that communicate in a variety of languages are in contact over a considerable length of time, they will struggle over which language or language variety is used in public or social communication (Burton et al., 2012; Gumperz, 2009; Labov, 1989). As it stands, Saudi students do not appear to engage in any active struggle to learn English in order to meet the needs and challenges of communicating in their multiplex network (Burton et. al., 2012).

Of the few studies that have addressed student motivation and attitude towards English language learning in the Saudi context, many have drawn on the conceptual frameworks of Dornyei (1994), Gardner (1985), Oxford & Shearin (1994), and Schumann (1986). Alhuqbani (2008), for example, explored the English language needs of Saudi police officers and found that motivation to learn English was both instrumental and integrative. The author also found significant effects on the motivation and attitudes of officers towards English learning and English-speaking cultures across different ranks and security sectors. For example, Alhuqbani (2008) discovered that motivation was higher when language materials were "in line with the discourse of police work" and had "information content suitable to the level of officers and their target situations of English use" (Alhuqbani, 2008, p.82).

This study adapted Al-Tamimi's and Shuib's (2009) questionnaire which includes three motivational constructs i.e., instrumental, integrative and personal. They investigated learners' attitude on "the use of English in the Yemni social context", "the use of English in the Yemni educational context", "English language and the culture of the English-speaking world" (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009, p. 29). The authors found that instrumental reasons for learning English outweighed the other constructs. Personal motivation came second followed by integrative which had the least impact on students' English language motivation. The authors also found that most of the learners had a positive orientation toward English language and the culture of the target language. Yet an interesting finding was that the Yemeni learners were demotivated by some aspects of English language e.g., vocabulary, spelling and structures. Due to similarities between the context of this study and the present study, Al-Tamimi and Shuib's AMBT survey was adopted and adapted to explore the motivation of Saudi students at the tertiary level.

The Study

The context of this study is Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (IAU) - one of the oldest universities in the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia. To meet the specific English language requirements of the different colleges represented in the institution, the university launched a Preparatory English Language Program in 2010, and despite the provision of immense resources for the academic, technical and educational support across various English programs, the ensuing results did not appear to reflect the appropriation of such resources. No doubt, several factors may be attributed to unsatisfactory outcomes including: inadequate curriculum design, insufficient planning and management, and varying educational backgrounds among students prior to admission to the program. Moreover, as shown, motivation and attitude can play an essential role in the overall success of learning English as a foreign language. Focusing on these areas in particular, and adapting Al-Tamimi's and Shuib (2009) questionnaire based on Gardner's (2004) attitude/motivation test battery, the aim of this study is to investigate the motivation and attitudes of male and female preparatory year students at IAU based on the following questions:

1. Which type of motivation (i.e. instrumental, personal or integrative) is the most influential form of motivation among preparatory year students?
2. What attitudes do preparatory students have towards English and learning English?
3. Does student motivation differ across gender, major tracks and/or proficiency levels?
4. Do student attitudes differ across gender, major tracks and/or proficiency levels?

Preparatory year students refer to students enrolled in a foundational two-semester preparatory year program (PYP) prior to being formally accepted into an undergraduate program of their choice. The aim of the preparatory year is to build a strong academic foundation for students to later succeed across medical, engineering, science and humanities degrees. It includes English for general, academic and specific purposes, and other general academic competencies, and is divided into three major tracks: Health, Engineering and Science. Students are assigned to tracks in accordance with their educational interest, background, and abilities. An English placement test is delivered in the first week of the semester. This test is designed and delivered by the National Center for Assessment, namely, Qiyas. The center provides a standardized test of English proficiency called STEP. Overall, the test consists of the four main components: (1) reading comprehension, (2) sentence structure, (3) listening comprehension, and (4) composition analysis. It is typically proctored by the IAU English department and conducted after enrollment into the preparatory year and supporting

studies deanship. Based on the results provided by the Qiyas center, students are placed into three levels of English: beginner, intermediate, and advanced.

Participants were recruited in the first semester of the 2016-17 academic year. A non-probability judgment sampling technique was used to select a representative sample of the total population (n = 4514). Table 1 provides a summary of the population of the study. A sample of 403 students was chosen randomly from this population (Table 2). The average age of the participants was 17-20 years: 49% were male, and 51% were female. In total, 55% of the participants were from the health track, 20% from the engineering track, and 24% from the science track. The participants also represented three English language proficiency levels: beginner (23%), intermediate (40%), and advanced (37%).

Table 1
Population of the study

	Health			Engineering			Science			Total
	Beg.	Int.	Adv.	Beg.	Int.	Adv.	Beg.	Int.	Adv.	
Male	182	349	148	204	236	72	204	237	204	1836
Female	108	232	274	25	36	85	771	888	259	2678
Total	290	581	422	229	272	157	975	1125	463	4514

Beg. = Beginners, Int. = Intermediate, Adv. = Advanced

Table 2
Sample of the stud

	Health			Engineering			Science			Total
	Beg.	Int.	Adv.	Beg.	Int.	Adv.	Beg.	Int.	Adv.	
Male	39	32	17	13	41	15	11	18	12	198
Female	4	44	88	0	2	11	27	25	4	205
Total	43	76	105	13	43	26	38	43	16	403

Beg. = Beginners, Int. = Intermediate, Adv. = Advanced

Data were collected using a confidential AMTB questionnaire adapted from Al-Tamimi & Shuaib (2009) and Gardner (2004). Since one of the aims of the present study was to explore whether a student's track has a role to play in learner motivation, a further question was added to the background information to include the participants' respective tracks.

The survey was presented in English with Arabic translation. For purposes of validity, the questionnaire was cross-checked by professors in the field who provided feedback on the validity of the items. The purpose was to not only evaluate the clarity of the questions but also assess the relevance of the items in terms of construct validity. Based on piloting, translation checking and reviews by these professors, the author integrated the following necessary amendments:

1. Include a definition of "integrative motivation" in Arabic as the beginner level participants did not seem to understand the meaning in Arabic or English.
2. Expand the Likert scale from three points (as it was in Al-Tamimi and Shuaib's study) to five points to keep it closer to Gardner's questionnaire which implemented a six-point Likert scale for some questions and a seven-point Likert scale for other questions.

With regard to reliability, as shown in Table 3, Cronbach's alphas for 'overall motivation' (9 items) was .82 with a skewness value of .67, and overall, the results of all questions were found to be reliable for the purpose of the study (19 items; $\alpha= .70$).

Table 3
Internal consistency of Cronbach's Alpha test

Field	Number of Questions	Internal Consistency
Instrumental Motivation	4	0.773
Personal Motivation	3	0.688
Integrative Motivation	2	0.717
Overall Motivation	9	0.822
Skewness	10	0.674
All questions	19	0.695

The final questionnaire consisted of three major sections. The first section recorded bio data, including: age, gender, track and English proficiency level. The second section explored two key areas: student motivation towards English language learning (questions 1-9), and desire for learning the English language (question 10) - a major component of language learning motivation (Gardner, 2006). Questions 1-9 were scored on a five-point Likert scale and represented three motivational constructs for learning English: instrumental motivation (items 1, 2, 3, 4), personal motivation (items 5, 6, 7), and integrative motivation (items 8, 9). The higher scores on the Likert scale indicated a stronger motivation than lower scores. Question 10 was answered by choosing either: Yes or No.

The third section of the questionnaire explored student attitudes towards English language. In this case, students were given 10 statements regarding their attitudes: attitudes towards the use of English in the Saudi social context (items 1-2), attitudes towards the use of English in the Saudi educational context (items 3-6), attitudes towards the English language (items 7-8), and attitudes towards the culture of the English-Speaking World (items 9-10). For these items, participants were requested to indicate their level of agreement according to one of the following five responses: Agree (5), Partly Agree (4), Do Not Know (3), Partly Disagree (2) or Disagree (1).

The data were analyzed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to calculate means & standard deviations, and a Univariate (ANOVA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the effect of gender, track, and proficiency level on student motivation and attitudes.

Results and Discussion
Motivation and Attitude in General
Research question one set out to explore which type of motivation (i.e. instrumental, personal or integrative) may be most influential toward learning English for male and female students in the preparatory English program. Table 4 presents a summary of the mean scores and standard deviations of student responses. Overall, the results of the survey show that students were highly motivated to learn English. In particular, instrumental motivation ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.09$) had the greatest influence among Saudi university students, followed by integrative ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 4.12$) and personal *($M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.29$)* motivation.

Table 4

Means & Standard Deviations of Students' Responses on Students' Motivation to Learning the English Language

Motivation	Items		Mean	SD
Instrumental	To do my current/future tasks more efficiently		4.55	0.89
	To get a job easily.		4.50	0.82
	To further my education		4.48	0.90
	To fulfill a university requirement.		4.12	1.09
		total	4.41	0.93
Personal	For personal development (i.e., to communicate and understand others)		4.34	0.97
	To improve my status among my friends		3.37	1.41
	Because it is interesting		3.00	1.49
		total	3.57	1.29
Integrative	To integrate with international people or cultures.		4.17	1.15
	To be able to go abroad		4.06	1.23
		total	4.12	1.19
			4.01	0.74

The highest scoring responses overall (each relating to instrumental motivation) were linked to: doing current/future tasks more efficiently ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 0.89$), getting a job ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 0.82$) and to furthering education ($M = 4.48$, $SD = 0.90$). Although the prompt "fulfilling university requirements" also indicated an area of high motivation, it was the lowest scoring form of instrumental motivation overall ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 1.09$). The integrative motivation of "integrating with international people or cultures" ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 1.15$) scored slightly higher than "fulfilling university requirements". Studying abroad ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.23$) was the least motivating factor for students across both instrumental and integrative forms of motivation.

Although the category of personal motivation (including the desire for status and interest in the language) had the lowest overall mean score ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 1.29$), the item of "personal development" (e.g. in order to be able to communicate and understand others) had a mean score of 4.34 ($SD = 0.97$) – higher than any item related to integrative motivation.

Overall, the results are consistent with Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2009) who also found instrumental motivation to have a greater influence on learners than integrative and personal motivation. In their study, English proficiency was a decisive component of the course and

essential in terms of preparing students to function appropriately in their field. In a similar way, the EFL students in the preparatory year at IAU were aware that the English course was worth 7 credits and that they required a high score to enroll in the college of their choice. In other words, the higher their English scores were, the more chance they had to be accepted into their desired major.

The results also provide an indication of the important role English language plays in the respondents' personal, social, educational and professional lives. Not only did they acknowledge the need for English as a necessary skill for success within the preparatory year (as demonstrated by the item "To fulfill a university requirement"), but they also identified the importance of English as a way of furthering their education in general. This outcome is further supported by the results of question 10 which explored "Desire for learning English language". For example, where the participants were asked if they would like to attend more English language training courses after the preparatory year to improve their proficiency in the language, 71% of the respondents said "Yes". Motivation toward English, for many of the respondents, therefore, appeared to move beyond short term educational goals, and reflected long term motivation outside the context of the university.

Table 5
Students' Desire for learning the English language

Yes		No		Total	
Number of students	%	Number of students	%	Number of students	%
286	71%	117	29%	403	100%

Student motivation to learn English also appeared to center more on the importance of authentic communication in a highly digital and global world, i.e. integrating with international people or cultures, and communicating and understanding others as opposed to affective factors such as gaining recognition or status from peers and interest in the language. It is important to note that although instrumental motivation scored higher than integrative and personal motivation, they should not be viewed as mutually exclusive constructs. A combination of different forms of motivation encourages the successful learning of a foreign language.

In addition to reporting high levels of motivation, the respondents indicated positive *attitudes* toward English language and learning, as explored in the second research question and summarized in Table 6. The results show that the highest levels of agreement (partly agree to agree) were linked to prompts about attitudes to English language in general: "I think that

English is a necessary international language or a language of international people" ($M = 4.54$, $SD = 0.94$), and "When I hear someone who speaks in English well, I wish I could speak like him/her" ($M = 4.47$, $SD = 0.99$).

Positive attitudes toward the learning and use of English in the Saudi educational context were also relatively high. On average, students partly agreed that the teaching of English should start as early as the first grade in Saudi Arabia ($M = 4.48$, $SD = 1.06$). They also partly disagreed to disagreed that English should not be a compulsory subject in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia ($M = 1.94$, $SD = 1.46$). On average, students came close to agreeing to the suggestion that English should be the medium of instruction at high school for specific subjects, like chemistry ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.32$); however, on the suggestion that English be the primary medium of instruction, the respondents showed slightly less agreement ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.54$).

The results also showed neutral to partial agreement to the idea that the development of Saudi Arabia is possible mainly because "of educated people who know English well" ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.16$), and that English films are more enjoyable than films in any other language ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.33$). However, mean scores fell closer to neutral agreement in the case of the prompt: "I usually search or read articles on the Internet in English" ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.44$), and the lowest scoring item was, "The use of English in government and business offices helps in getting things done easily" ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.39$).

Table 6

Means & standard deviations of students' responses on attitudes to learning English language

Items	Mean	SD
Attitudes towards the use of English in the Saudi social context		
The development of our country is possible mainly because of educated people who know English well.	3.86	1.16
The use of English in government and business offices helps in getting things done easily.	2.96	1.39
Total	3.41	1.10
Attitudes towards the use of English in the Saudi educational context		
English should not be a compulsory (required) subject in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia.	1.94	1.46
English should be the medium of instruction in the secondary schools in Saudi Arabia.	3.58	1.54
At least some subjects like Physics and Chemistry should be taught in English at the secondary level in Saudi Arabia.	3.96	1.32
The teaching of English should start as early as the first grade in the Saudi Arabian primary schools.	4.48	1.06
Total	3.49	0.66
Attitudes towards the English language		
When I hear someone who speaks English well, I wish I could speak like him/her.	4.47	0.99
I think that English is a necessary international language or a language of international people.	4.54	0.94
Total	4.50	0.81
Attitudes towards the culture of the English-Speaking World		
English films/movies are more enjoyable than films/movies in any other language.	3.83	1.33
I usually search or read articles on the internet in English.	3.20	1.44
Total	3.51	1.09

Overall, results suggest generally positive attitudes toward English as a means of personal advancement and perhaps as a socio-political move towards advancing the economic and global status of Saudi Arabia.

Namely, shared agreement towards the idea that the development of Saudi Arabia depends on educated, English speaking citizens; and acknowledgement of the need for English at early levels of elementary school, reveal positive attitudes toward English as a catalyst for development and advancement at the national level. These attitudes align closely with recent promotion of the Saudi 2030 vision.

At the same time, the results show possible resistance to the idea of English becoming the dominant language of Saudi Arabia, where respondents indicated their lowest level of agreement to the suggestion that government and business offices would get "things done easily" if English were the shared language. The results also showed that while students tended to agree that some subjects be taught in English, there was less agreement to the idea of English being the primary medium of education in secondary schools.

Results also show that although learners had a strong desire to speak English well, and indicated positive attitudes toward English movies over films in other languages, the average response to "I usually search for and read articles on the Internet in English" was closest to "I don't know."

Motivation and Attitude across Gender, Tracks and English Proficiency

The results of research questions one and two above provide a general overview of student motivation and attitude across all students. Through Univariate, Chi-square and t-test analyses, research questions three and four explored significant differences between respondents with regard to gender, tracks and English proficiency. Tables 6 and 7 provide a summary of the results for the variance of motivation across all three groups, and Tables 8 and 9 summarize the results of the variance of attitude.

Table 7

Univariate analysis of the variance of motivation

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	15.372[a]	16	.961	1.834	.025
Intercept	2252.480	1	2252.480	4298.795	.000
Gender	4.406	1	4.406	8.408	.004
Track	4.670	2	2.335	4.456	.012
Level	.737	2	.368	.703	.496
Gender * Track	1.673	2	.836	1.596	.204
Gender * Level	.208	2	.104	.198	.820
Track * Level	3.515	4	.879	1.677	.154
Gender * Track * Level	3.259	3	1.086	2.074	.103
Error	202.256	386	.524		
Total	6684.309	403			
Corrected Total	217.628	402			
a. R Squared = .071 (Adjusted R Squared = .032)					

As Table 7 shows, there was a significant effect for gender (p = .004) in the case of motivation towards English language and learning, where females (M = 4.04, SD = 0.71) indicated higher levels of motivation to the male groups (M = 3.97, SD = 0.76). Significant differences also emerged with regard to the motivation of students in accordance with track (p = .012) where students in the health track (M = 4.07, SD = 0.60) indicated significantly higher scores than those in the scientific track (M = 3.81, SD = 0.90). Results also show no significant differences across proficiency levels (p = .496), and no significant differences in the level of motivation of students towards learning English across all three variables combined (p = .103). Table 8 provides an overall summary of the statistical analysis.

Table 8

Motivation to learn English across three independent variables: Gender, track and level

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Result
Motivation of students to learn English	Gender	Significant differences for female students
	Track	Significant differences between Health Track and Science Track students
	Level	No significant differences
	All three variables	No significant differences

With regard to attitudes, Table 9 shows no significant differences across gender groups ($p = .859$). However, significant differences did emerge with regard to track ($p = .005$). Further analysis (as presented in Table 10) revealed that health ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 0.50$) and engineering track students ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 0.53$) scored significantly higher than science track students ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 0.71$). In other words, science students scored significantly lower than health ($p = .000$), and engineering students ($p = .016$). However, there were no significant differences between the responses of engineering and health students ($p = .663$).

Table 9

Univariate Analysis of Variance of Students' Attitudes Toward Learning English Due to Gender, Track and Level Students in English

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	16.364[a]	16	1.023	3.367	.000
Intercept	1801.985	1	1801.985	5932.133	.000
Gender	.010	1	.010	0.32	.859
Track	3.204	2	1.602	5.275	.005
Level	1.519	2	.760	2.501	.034
Gender * Track	.264	2	.132	.434	.648
Gender * Level	.315	2	.158	.519	.596
Track * Level	5.547	4	1.387	4.565	.001
Gender * Track * Level	.956	3	.319	1.049	.371
Error	117.254	386	.304		
Total	5599.010	403			
Corrected Total	133.618	402			
a. R Squared = .122 (Adjusted R Squared = .086)					

Table 10

Analysis of Means and standard Deviations of Attitudes Across Gender, Tracks and Proficiency Levels

Attitude across		Mean	SD
Gender	Male	3.7076	.65971
	Female	3.7426	.42175
Track	Health	3.7652	.50410
	Science	3.4742	.70950
	Engineering	3.7037	.53112
Proficiency level	Beginner	3.5543	.74512
	Intermediate	3.6963	.56193
	Advanced	3.7497	.44497

Results also showed a significant effect with regard to proficiency levels ($p = .034$). Namely, significant differences emerged between beginner level students ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 0.75$) and advanced level students ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.44$), with the advanced level receiving statistically higher scores ($p = .021$). There were no significant effects in the attitudes of the students between beginner and intermediate level students ($p = .117$), or in the case of advanced and intermediate level students ($p = .672$). Table 11 provides an overall summary of the statistical analysis.

Table 11

Relationship between Attitudes of Students toward English and Gender, Track and Level

Result	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
Attitudes of students toward English	Gender	No significant differences
	Track	Significant differences between Health and Science Track students
		Significant differences between Engineering and Science Track students
		No significant differences between Health Track and Engineering Track students
	Level	Significant differences between advanced and beginner level students
	The three variables together	No significant differences

Taken together, the results of research questions three and four reveal that in terms of gender, Saudi female students showed significantly higher levels of motivation in comparison with their

male counterparts, but no significant differences emerged with regard to attitude across genders. Al-Oliemat (2019), at the same university, interestingly, found Saudi female students to have a more positive attitude towards English language and culture in comparison to their male counterparts. Greater motivation and attitude among female students across both studies perhaps reflects pressure on Saudi women to meet certain social norms. At the time of this research, job opportunities for women were often limited to hospital and educational positions in Saudi Arabia as these jobs were viewed as appropriate positions for educated women. Therefore, due to limited career choices and the need to be accepted into limited fields, the female students may have been more instrumentally motivated and more positive about learning English. This result was contradicted by an earlier study where male Chinese learners demonstrated higher levels of "instrumental orientation" over their female counterparts (Rahman, 2005). Certainly, sociocultural factors may play a key role in determining learner motivation and attitudes.

The results also showed significant differences in motivation and attitude across tracks. Students in the health track, in general, showed a higher level of motivation to learn English than those in the science track. They also indicated a more positive attitude toward English and learning English than respondents in the science track. Engineering students also revealed a more positive attitude than science students. The results also reveal statistically significant differences in student attitudes with regard to language proficiency. Namely, advanced students presented more positive attitudes toward English and English language learning than beginner students.

Conclusion and Implications

The aim of this study was to measure and compare the motivation and attitudes of preparatory students at one Saudi university across gender, tracks and proficiency levels. Despite common perceptions that Saudi students appear uninterested and ambivalent towards English, the results of this study showed a high level of motivation among preparatory students, especially instrumental motivation, toward learning English for personal motives and for reasons associated with the context of the university and wider socio-political context. However, since personal motivation, such as interest in English, emerged as the weakest form of motivation, university programs could invest more time in developing intrinsic levels of interest in English language learning among students and encourage greater self-awareness in order for learners to create meaningful personal goals. More extensive questionnaires could also explore a wider

variety of personal motivators that may be useful in enhancing motivation toward English language learning.

This study also emphasizes the role that tracks (i.e. future career paths) and proficiency levels may have on learner motivation and attitudes. In particular, the results suggest that a student's field of study may greatly influence motivation and attitudes toward English and English language learning; therefore, instructors allocated to specific colleges may need to more precisely tailor lessons in line with future career objectives and spend more time motivating students toward English language learning goals. Students from tracks where motivation is not as high may also benefit from awareness programs and information technology that reinforces positive attitudes towards learning English.

Learners at the beginner level may also require incentives or rewards to generate greater instrumental and personal motivation and more positive attitudes. Moreover, given that the respondents showed little interest toward reading articles on the Internet in English, results also suggest that students may need more guidance gaining access to and engaging with articles in order to be motivated to write academically – a key skill in succeeding at the tertiary level across all tracks. With more research into the motivation and attitude of learners, educational institutions may be better equipped to consciously develop, implement and evaluate effective English language programs in order to improve English language learning skills and abilities.

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Teaching compliments and compliment responses: An evaluation of Indonesian English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks

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Abstract

Undoubtedly, textbooks in an English as Foreign Language (EFL) context are still utilised as primary resources for language teaching and this is the current practice in the Indonesian context. However, there is limited systematic evaluation of the appropriateness of ELT textbook materials in developing pragmatic competence. In the era of communicative language teaching and English as a lingua franca, pragmatic competence is a necessary skill for EFL learners which enables them to interact effectively as global citizens. The present study aimed to investigate the extent to which there is sufficient and appropriate pragmatic input and practice opportunities for students on giving compliments and compliment responses in three Indonesian

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ELT textbooks. To this end, three Indonesian ELT textbooks were evaluated based on four criteria deriving from current research on compliments and compliment responses (CRs). The evaluation revealed that the textbooks provide limited linguistic structures of compliment making and responding. They also lacked sociopragmatic explanation on the factors affecting compliment making and receiving. The study offers pedagogical recommendations for teachers, textbook writers and students to assist the students' development of pragmatic competence.

Introduction to ELT textbook evaluation

In the era of continuously evolving digital technology, learning materials can be obtained from various sources, such as textbooks, audio/visual materials, and internet sources. However, in many countries, textbooks continue to play a significant role and sometimes constitute the whole syllabus. This trend is followed by many teachers in Indonesia who rely heavily on English textbooks as the primary sources of learning materials.

In language learning, the main sources of language input are conversations/dialogues and exercises provided in the textbooks (Kim & Hall, 2002; Vellenga, 2004). However, extensive research on textbook evaluation has revealed the limitations of ELT textbooks and recommended the need to improve the materials. Amongst the many drawbacks, textbooks include unrealistic/scripted dialogues, (Gilmore, 2004; Nguyen & Ishitobi, 2012) limited authentic interactions and inadequate oral authentic practice (McGroarty & Taguchi, 2005; Nguyen, 2011; Petraki & Bayes, 2013; Vellenga, 2004; Wong, 2002). In the domain of pragmatics, research has shown that there is a mismatch between textbook representations of speech acts and their spontaneous realisation; as a result, pragmatic activities are scripted and decontextualised (Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Diepenbroek & Derwing, 2013).

Considering the weaknesses identified in ELT textbooks, continuous evaluation of ELT textbooks is necessary as they are major sources of positive evidence for learners (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). In the context of Indonesia, the ELT textbooks have been recently and specifically designed to implement the curriculum 2013, with an important aim being students' achievement of communicative competence.

Communicative competence is an important aim of language learning, and can include several competencies, dependent on the classification/approach (Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia, 2007): linguistic, sociolinguistic/ pragmatic, interactional, strategic, discourse and

sociocultural/pragmatic competences. Sociocultural/pragmatic and discourse competencies have a certain degree of overlap in that they comprise students' understanding of pragmatic appropriateness which relates to their use of language and its dependency upon a range of social factors, such as age, gender status, culture and politeness (Celce-Murcia, 2007). These skills are often characterised in the literature as pragmatic knowledge and skills (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Nguyen, 2011).

Pragmatic competence encompasses two aspects: pragmalingusitics and sociopragmatics (Marmaridou, 2011). The former relates to "particular resources that a given language provides for conveying pragmatic meaning (illocutionary and interpersonal)" while the latter "relates pragmatic meaning to an assessment of participants' social distance, the language community's social rules and appropriateness norms, discourse practices, and accepted behaviour" (Marmaridou, 2011, p. 77). Incorrect use of linguistic resources is often ascribed to transfer of L1 (first language) rules into L2 (second language) and results in pragmalinguistic failure, while misunderstanding of the rules of appropriateness, level of politeness and imposition results in sociopragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983). Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge, therefore, are considered essential components for building effective communication skills in second language learning (Kasper, 1997).

Given the significance of teaching pragmatic knowledge and skills, this research aims to expand previous textbook evaluation research by examining the quality of pragmatic information found in ELT textbooks in the Indonesian high school context. Simultaneously, it addresses the call of the Minister of Education and Culture who has openly invited evaluation and suggestions for the betterment of the textbooks (Wachidah, Diyantari & Khatimah, 2017).

Literature review

Textbook evaluation research

Previous research on ELT textbooks evaluation has offered significant insights and recommendations on a variety of ELT textbooks and curricula. This review will mainly focus on pragmatic related research considering that this is the focus of the present study. Pragmatic input and instruction are necessary for developing learners' sociolinguistic/sociocultural and discourse competence and their ability to communicate effectively (Safdarian & Afghari, 2011). This input is even more important in countries where English is not a second language and there are limited opportunities for oral communication. A study by Petraki and Bayes (2013) evaluated the presentation of requests in five internationally recognised ESL textbooks commonly used in Australia and Asia. Their study highlighted that textbooks did not provide

sufficient variety of oral requests, focused specifically on positive request responses, downplaying the most culturally sensitive types of requests, negative request responses, and lacked examples of the context of request making. Cross-cultural information about differences in oral requests was also absent from the five ESL textbooks rendering the textbooks quite unsatisfactory.

A similar study by Limberg (2016) examined apologies in German EFL textbooks and revealed that there is insufficient pragmatic input on apologies, a highly sensitive and face threatening speech act. He suggested that textbooks do not offer many examples of apologies and the exercises did not provide enough metapragmatic input to assist in the development of students' pragmatic competence. Examining Korean ELT textbooks, Park (2010) also reported many limitations as regards the position and form of invitations and called for more research in this domain. Finally, a more recent research study evaluated the range of compliments and complaints in the Touchstone series, an international textbook (Jalilian & Roohani, 2016). The authors revealed the limited frequency of complaint and compliment strategies in the textbooks, thus depriving students of important pragmatic input.

With respect to the Indonesian context, a few studies have focused on evaluating different aspects within ELT textbooks. Elmiana (2018) investigated the presentation of communicative language teaching tasks in the new senior high English textbooks and found a preference for linguistic over cognitive tasks. In the field of pragmatics, Dewi (2016) examined the level of cultural diversity in one Indonesian ELT textbook and recorded absence of global cultural content and insufficient promotion of intercultural perspectives for Indonesian students. Parlindungan et al (2018) investigated the representation of Indonesian's cultural diversity embedded in the Indonesian middle school ELT textbooks and concluded that there was limited representation of Indonesian's cultural values, a preference for presentation of the values of dominant ethnic groups. Nurdiana's study (2016) examined the types and the frequencies of speech acts based on Searle's speech act taxonomy and lamented the insufficient provision of metapragmatic information in discussing speech acts. The aforementioned review highlighted that studies in the ELT textbook evaluation addressing L2 pragmatics are still scarce. It also demonstrated that previous research focused on offering a quantitative picture of the level of pragmatic content in Indonesian ELT textbooks, thus outlining the need for more in depth and qualitative investigation of pragmatic skills embedded in textbooks. This study therefore addresses a significant gap in the field of textbook evaluation research, by first extending the textbook evaluation work on the Indonesian ELT textbooks, addressing the level of pragmatic

input which is necessary for intercultural communication and last, by examining the function of compliment making and responding both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Research on compliments

As the focus of textbook evaluation is on compliments and compliment responses, it is important to discuss current pragmatic research relating to this speech act. In this section we first present definitions of the act of complimenting introduced by key researchers in the field, followed by recent empirical studies on the structure of compliment and compliment responses. Holmes (1988, p. 454) claims that in order for an utterance to be held as a compliment it "must refer to something which is positively valued by the participants and attributed to the addressee''. Hobbs (2003, p. 49) defines compliments as "a speech act which explicitly or implicitly bestows credit upon the addressee for some possession, skill, characteristic, or the like, that is positively evaluated by the speaker and addressee''. Compliments are positive evaluations of someone's appearance, personal quality or actions of other participants (Keisanen & Kärkkäinen, 2014). Compliments are complex social acts used for maintaining social relationships (Tatsuki & Nishizawa, 2005) and oiling "the social wheels, paying attention to positive face wants and thus increasing or consolidating solidarity between people'' (Holmes, 1988, p. 462).

Compliments and compliment responses are selected for evaluation in this study for a number of reasons. The first motivation was the inclusion of the compliments and responses as an important topic of instruction in the Indonesian high school syllabus and curriculum and hence it was expected that attention to compliments would be integrated in the textbooks. According to Rose (2001), they are among "the most widely-studied speech acts" (p. 312), frequently used in social interaction but also highly problematic social acts (Yun, 2012). They need to be executed carefully as they can pose a dilemma for the compliment addressee who has to comply with two opposing principles: the agreement maxim on the one hand, and self-praising on the other (Pomerantz, 1978). Tang and Zhang (2009) also argue that compliment responses are culturally specific, thus, if EFL learners do not understand the language norms and protocols of the target language this could lead to serious misunderstanding. Last, compliment responses have not been the subject of previous textbook research except Jalilian's and Roohani's (2016) study which only evaluated the structure of compliments thus ignoring compliment responses, an innovation of the present study.

In daily interaction, giving and responding to compliments are common, not only in English but also in other languages. It is worth noting that each language has different norms

and protocols of making and responding to compliments which increases the likelihood of miscommunication between multilingual speakers. A significant body of research has been conducted on compliments and compliment responses either from an intracultural (e.g. Pomerantz, 1978; Holmes, 1988) or cross-cultural perspective (e.g. Chen, 1993; Cedar & Setiadi, 2016; Golato, 2005; Melin, 2014; Tang & Zhang, 2009; Wolfson, 1981; Yun He, 2012). The above research studies offered insights into a range of issues comprising the function of complimenting, their syntactic structure, topics, compliment response strategy variation, and sequential organization. Some of the key findings include the research by Manes and Wolfson (1981) who identified nine syntactical structures used for making compliments. By analysing examples from the British National Corpus (BNC), they found that there are three frequently used syntactic structures—occurring more than 80% of all the syntactic patterns in their collection of compliments.   These were (1) NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ (e.g., your blouse is/looks (really) beautiful); (2) Pronoun is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP (e.g., that's really a nice wall hanging); (3) I intensifier like/love NP (e.g., I (really) like/love your car). This finding indicates the need for including these structures in ELT textbooks as well as familiarizing students with the additional six syntactic structures of compliments through textbooks.

With respect to compliment response strategies, Pomerantz's pioneering study (1978) distinguished between two main categories of compliment responses: acceptance/rejection and agreement/disagreement. She further elaborated that participants use a range of strategies to resolve the dilemma between self-praise and agreement comprising praise downgrades, referent shifts, and self-praise avoidance. Holmes (1988) developed a compliment response taxonomy, called a tripartite system—Acceptance, Deflection/Evasion, and Rejection while Herbert (1990) offered a highly detailed classification system identifying twelve types of compliment responses. Holmes' (1988) and Herbert's (1990) key taxonomies have been considered instrumental and highly applicable in most recent research (Yun He, 2012; Tang & Zhang, 2009) and are used for the present textbook evaluation. The integration of these authentic strategies in ELT textbooks, therefore, is desirable in improving students' L2 pragmatic input.

Limited research has been found on Indonesian speakers' complimenting strategies. Ibrahim and Riyanto (2000) was the only study found which examined compliment responses among Indonesian native speakers and they were compared to American English native speakers. Using Herbert's (1990) elaborate taxonomy, this study found that the American and Indonesian respondents have both similar and different ways of expressing responses to compliments. The differences are attributed to the different cultural backgrounds. Indonesian respondents used ten types of compliment responses, including eight of Herbert's types of

compliment responses and two new compliment responses, promise ('I will improve my achievement next time') and hope ('I hope you can get along well'). In contrast, Americans used eight types of compliment responses found in Herbert's, including Appreciation Token, Comment Acceptance, Praise Upgrade, Reassignment, Return, Scale Down, Question, and No Acknowledgment. Out of the eight types of compliment responses, appreciation token and comment acceptance were the top two most popular strategies employed by both Indonesian and American respondents. Based on the respondents' status, appreciation token was used more by Indonesian and American subordinates, while comment acceptance was used by both the Indonesian and American superiors. Indonesian respondents used scaling down the compliment and reassignment much more frequently than Americans. It has also been suggested that the most common response strategy in English is acceptance, and rejection/disagreement in Asian cultures (Chen, 1993; Gajaseni, 1994; Tang & Zang, 2009).

A number of research studies have been found on the use of compliment responses by Indonesian EFL learners. Cedar and Setiadi (2016) highlighted that Indonesian EFL learners tend to deny compliments while Thais are prone to accepting compliments. Further, Indonesian EFL students tended to be more positive towards compliments on ability and more negative on possession. In contrast, Thais tended to be more positive towards possession and more negative on appearance. Another interesting finding identified in both Cedar and Setiadi (2016) and Sari (2009) was that Indonesian EFL learners employed some uncommon compliment response strategies such as hope, joking and promise not identified previously in English, which confirms findings by Ibrahim and Riyanto (2000).

The Indonesian society is a highly religious society and Islamic traditions are adopted in everyday interactions. Previous studies examining linguistic patterns in Muslim populations argued that religion is a key factor in influencing sociolinguistic behaviour (Khan & Rustam, 2017). Khan and Rustam identified the use of appreciation tokens, invocations to Allah, prayers that the complimenter may be blessed from Allah and he /she 'may get whatever they want' as central to Pashto community. In pragmatic research involving Persian speakers, prayers and blessings to the complimenter as well as 'scaling down' of the compliment were typical strategies employed by Iranian speakers which were discussed as examples of the participants' Islamic faith and values (Razmjoo, Barabadi & Arfa, 2013; Yousfyand, 2010). Agreements and rejections to compliments were found to be equally possible responses to the compliments amongst Persian and Pakistani speakers with no significant differences detected between male and female respondents (Shehzad, 2010; Razmjoo et al., 2013). It is expected that Indonesian speakers follow these patterns in their behaviour. This is because Indonesians, especially

Javanese people hold cultural values called as andhap-asor (lowering oneself, while exalting the others), tata karma (etiquette), and tanggap ing sasmita (understanding the hidden meaning) in communication (Sukarno, 2015). Consequently, in responding to compliments, Javanese people tend to display humility and "tanggap ing sasmita" so as to maintain the harmony of the conversation (Sukarno, 2015, p.91).

Based on relatively recent corpora of compliments among status equals collected between 2008 and 2010 in a Midwestern campus in the US, Rees-Miller (2011) revisited Holmes (1988) finding that women are more prone to giving and receiving compliments. She collected data in two settings: unstructured and goal-oriented settings. In addition to applying Holmes' framework, she found that in the unstructured corpora, compliments on appearance between women were predominant and were used as phatic communication. However, in goal-oriented settings, men and women offered and responded to compliments on a nearly equal basis, with men making and responding to slightly more compliments than women. This suggests the contextual nature of complimenting behaviour.

From the perspective of the sequential organisation, Golato (2005) explained that the sequence of compliment and compliment responses might be highly complex. She explained that "compliments can occur as second pair parts in which a dispreferred action is being performed" to mitigate the face threatening value of the dispreferred sequence (2005, p. 99). More than that, Alfonzetti's (2013, p. 284-285) analysis of compliments revealed six types of compliment response sequences: (i) no sequence; (ii) adjacency pairs; (iii) three/four turn sequences; (iv) pre-sequence (vi) expanded sequence; and (vi) choral sequences. This suggests that while adjacency pairs are the minimal sequences in which compliments and compliment responses occur, there are various other sequences. It is assumed therefore, that providing various examples of multi turn sequences of compliments and compliments responses in the textbooks is desirable.

In another study, Billmyer (1990) conducted experimental research to investigate the effectiveness of classroom instruction on the EFL students' production of compliments and compliment responses. The study compared two groups of English as Second Language (ESL) learners learning how to compliment. The study revealed, first, that formal instruction of social rules of language use can help ESL learners to communicate appropriately with native speakers of target language. Second, it demonstrated that pragmatic instruction on complimenting should focus on providing students with (1) compliment forms, (2) discussion of their social and discourse functions, (3) sociolinguistic and pragmatic variables of complimenting and (4)

discussion of sociocultural similarities and differences. These findings have formed the basis of the evaluation criteria of the Indonesian textbooks to be discussed in the next section.

The review of empirical studies on compliments and compliment responses revealed the differences in the organisation of compliment making and responding between English native speakers and Indonesian native speakers and other Asian nationalities. This further highlights the importance of offering sufficient authentic pragmatic input on compliments and compliment responses to develop Indonesian learners' pragmatic competence and to avoid negative L1 discourse and paragmatic transfer (Safdarian & Afghari, 2011). It also. It is desirable that as English is used as a lingua franca among ASEAN members (Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam) (Zein, 2018) students should be exposed to a variety of compliments and compliment responses as well as cross cultural metapragmatic information to develop intercultural competence and avoid miscommunication.

For the aforementioned reasons, this research aimed to address the following research questions.

- What kind of pragmatic input do the Indonesian EFL textbooks offer on compliment making and responding, and how does this compare to empirical research findings?
- What kind of metapragmatic/sociolinguistic information do the Indonesian EFL textbooks provide on the sociolinguistic factors affecting compliment making/responding?

Methodology and criteria for ELT textbook evaluation

This section provides the context in which the textbooks were written as well as the methodology used to analyse three current Indonesian EFL textbooks.

Description of textbooks

In 2013, the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture implemented a new curriculum called the Curriculum 2013. As part of the implementation of the curriculum, the ministry conducted a textbook writing project for all courses, including English as a foreign language courses. Since the textbooks were published, the textbooks have been revised once. The textbooks under investigation in the present study are the revised editions published in 2017, except grade 9 textbook which was published in 2015 and did not undergo any revisions. For this study, three out of the total 6 textbooks were purposively selected because the syllabus prescribes compliments to be part of the syllabus for these years. Moreover, only these 3

textbooks (years 8, 9, 10) exemplified compliments in the conversations while the remaining 3 (years 7, 11 and 12) did not include any compliment examples. The choice of the textbooks of the three consecutive years would also enable possible examination of progressive development in the compliment presentation of the textbooks. The three textbooks are *Bahasa Inggris, When English Rings a Bell for grade 8* (BI 8; Wachidah, Gunawan, Diyantari & Khatimah 2017), *Bahasa Inggris, Think Globally Act Locally for grade 9* (BI 9; Wachidah, Diyantari & Khatimah, 2015), and *Bahasa Inggris for grade 10* (BI 10; Widiati, Rohmah & Furaidah, 2017). The target learners' age ranges between 14 and 16 years and proficiency level of beginner to pre-intermediate.

Approach to data analysis

The analysis focused on the presentation of compliments and CRs in all texts, including interpersonal and transactional texts (e.g., request, apology, and compliment) and functional texts (e.g., descriptive, recount, narrative). The textbooks are nationally used as the primary learning sources of the enactment of the new curriculum (Graves, 2008).

The textbooks were analysed according to four criteria, derived from the preceding literature review and which addressed the 2 research questions. The criteria were derived from empirical research on compliments and compliment responses and were therefore validated by previous authentic pragmatically-driven research findings. Specifically, the criteria employed taxonomies identified by a number of previous researchers (Alfonzetti, 2013; Billmeyer, 1990; Herbert, 1990; Holmes 1988; Manes and Wolfson, 1981), with the aim of offering a comprehensive evaluation of the presentation of compliments and compliment responses in ELT textbooks and combining both a quantitative and a qualitative analysis. The first three criteria addressed the first research question and included: linguistic presentation of compliments, range and frequency of CR strategies, the sequential organisation of Cs and CRs, and the fourth criterion addressed the last research question focusing on sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of complimenting. These four criteria examine whether and the extent to which the textbooks:

1. Expose students to appropriate and adequate syntactical structures of compliments: (1) *NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ,* (2) *PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP,* (3) *I intensifier like/love NP,* (4) *You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP,* (5) *You V. NP. (really) ADV,* (6) *You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP!,* (7) *What (a) ADJ. NP!,* (8) *ADJ. NP!, and* (9) *Isn't NP. ADJ?* (Manes & Wolfson, 1981);

2. Provide students with a range of CR strategies, including macro (e.g., accept, reject, evade) and micro strategies (e.g. appreciation token, agreeing utterances, downgrading/qualifying utterances, disagreeing utterances, question accuracy, challenge sincerity, return compliment, shift credit, informative comment, request reassurance) (Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1988);

3. Expose students to varied CR sequences, including no sequence, adjacency pairs, three/four turn sequence, pre-sequence, expanded sequence, and choral sequence (Alfonzetti 2013); and

4. Adequately discuss sociopragmatic aspects of complimenting, such as appropriate contexts and topics, effect of social and situational variables (such as gender, age, status, social distance, setting) (Billmyer 1990).

The data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Firstly, the texts were scanned in order to identify and collate the total range of compliments and CR strategies in the three textbooks. This was combined with a qualitative analysis of the appropriateness and range of examples, compared with the findings and suggestions of current research on compliments and CRs (e.g., Nguyen, 2011; Pomerantz, 1978) to shed light on the quality of the pragmatic input identified in the textbooks.

Textbooks analysis of compliment and compliment responses

The following section presents the findings of the textbook evaluation against the 4 criteria identified with reference to current/research. In summary, this study found that the Indonesian ELT textbooks provide pragmatic input in two ways: firstly, through conversations and dialogues and secondly by offering some limited metapragmatic information. To provide an overview of the total compliment examples found in the 3 textbooks, there are 24 conversations in three textbooks, comprising nine conversations in BI 8, five conversations in BI 9, and ten conversations in BI 10 which contain compliments and compliment responses. Of the three textbooks, only BI 10 offers a small introduction on compliments, with very few examples of linguistic formulae and includes two practice tasks (Widiati et al. 2017, p. 20-37).

Criterion 1. Appropriateness and adequacy of syntactic structures for making compliments

The number of compliments and compliment responses does not correspond to the number of the conversations in the textbooks. This is because in one turn, there is more than one syntactic

structure used by the speaker. There are also compliments that have no responses as seen in BI 9, where the addressors pay a compliment after the addressee has done a certain job (Figure 1).

Figure 1. An example of complimenting in BI 9 (p. 11)

Interestingly, the most common syntactic structure used for complimenting is *NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ* which account for 50.4% out of 36 compliments in three textbooks. The second rank belongs to the syntactic structure of *What (a) ADJ NP* (19.4%). When looking at dialogues more closely, out of nine syntactic structures commonly used in American English corpus based on Wolfson and Manes's (1981) study, there are three syntactic structures that are absent in the textbooks, including *You V. NP. (really) ADV; You have (a) really ADJ NP; and Isn't NP ADJ.* However, given the low proficiency level of the students, perhaps the existence of frequently used expressions for complimenting is deemed appropriate for the students in these years. Table 1 gives detailed information about the complimenting structures provided in three ELT textbooks.

Table 1

Overview of explicit compliment input in three Indonesian ELT textbooks for junior and senior high school students in Indonesia.

Compliment syntactic structure	BI 8	BI 9	BI 10	Total
NP looks/is (intensifier) ADJ. *Your story is very interesting*	5 (45)	5 (50)	4 (27)	14 (50.4)
PRO is (intensifier) (a) ADJ NP *He is a diligent student*	3 (27)	1 (10)	1 (7)	5 (13.8)
I intensifier like/love NP *I like it (an invitation card)*	1 (9)	2 (20)	3 (20)	6 (16.6)
You V. (a) (really) ADJ. NP. *You really did a great job*	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (7)	1 (2.7)
You V. NP. (really) ADV	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
You have (a) (really) ADJ. NP!	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
What (a) ADJ. NP! *What a nice dress!*	1 (9)	0 (0.0)	6 (40)	7 (19.4)
ADJ. NP! *Good work (boys)*	0 (0.0)	2 (20)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.7)
Isn't NP. ADJ?	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Total	**11**	**10**	**15**	**36 (100)**

Notes. BI 8= English book for grade 8; BI 9 = English book for grade 9; BI 10 = English book for grade 10. The number in the bracket is the percentage of the compliment syntactic structure. The taxonomy of compliments above is based on Wolfson's and Manes's (1981) study.

Holmes and Brown (1987) argue that ESL/EFL learners need to develop pragmalinguistic competence in complimenting. This is because compliments constitute a formulaic speech act that has certain patterns (Manes & Wolfson 1981) and not all expressions that follow the syntactic structure could be categorised as complimenting (Holmes & Brown, 1987).

Unfortunately, very few syntactic structures used for compliments are presented in the ELT textbooks of this study and are only included implicitly in the dialogues. In addition, none of the textbooks explicitly offer students opportunities to practice the range of syntactic structures through communicative activities or learn about the differences in their use, which is essential for improving the students' communicative ability (Billmyer, 1990).

Furthermore, according to Wolfson (1984), there are certain lexical items employed when making compliments, including adjectives (such as nice, good, beautiful, lovely, and wonderful) and verbs (such as like, love, enjoy, admire, be impressed by). An investigation of the three textbooks shows that the textbooks use the aforementioned words but also introduce lexical items that are not found in Manes and Wolfson (1981) data, such as *super, amazing, interesting, diligent, excellent*. These expressions may be an example of Indonesian

complimenting expressions but lack of elaboration or selective attention to these expressions could lead to inappropriate use and cause misunderstanding.

Criterion 2. Variety of CR strategies

Based on the quantitative analysis, most compliment responses exemplified in the textbooks are acceptance with appreciation token accounting for 74 % out of 27 compliment responses across three textbooks. Surprisingly, there are only four CR strategies presented in the dialogues, including acceptance with appreciation token, acceptance with agreeing utterance, and evading with request assurance and informative comment. In fact, BI 10 provides more CR strategies than others (Table 2), including dialogue, acceptance with appreciation token, acceptance with downgrading utterance, and evasion with shift credit and informative comment. This can be explained by the increasing complexity or proficiency of the learners, however, without drawing students' attention to these expressions it is unlikely to lead to any pragmatic uptake or output (Nguyen, 2011).

Table 2

Compliment response strategies used in the textbooks.

CR Strategies		BI 8	BI 9	BI 10	Total
Macro Level CRs	Micro Level CRs				
Accept	Appreciation Token	8 (80)	2 (66.7)	11 (78)	20 (74)
	Agreeing utterances	1 (10)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.7)
	Downgrading/qualifying utterances	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (7)	1 (3.7)
	Return compliment	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Reject	Disagreeing utterances	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	Question accuracy	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	Challenge sincerity	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Evade	Shift credit	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (7)	1 (3.7)
	Informative comment	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	1 (7)	2 (7.4)
	Request reassurance	1 (10)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.85)
Total		**10 (100)**	**3 (100)**	**14 (100)**	**27 (100)**

Notes. BI 8= English book for grade 8; BI 9 = English book for grade 9; BI 10 = English book for grade 10. The number in the bracket is the percentage of the compliment responses. The macro and micro level of CR strategies are based on Holmes's (1988) study.

The Indonesian ELT textbooks provided most compliment responses using acceptance with the appreciation token, which is a common strategy found in previous research. However, when examining the role of compliment responses in conversation, Billmyer (1990, p.43) suggested that responding to compliments by acceptance with the appreciation tokens "thanks", "thank you very much" is considered a polite response, but it does not sustain talk. As a consequence, mere exposure to this type of response would prevent students from maintaining and expanding talk in interaction.

More than that, the dialogues in the ELT textbooks occur in two turns as seen in Figure 1. There are compliment responses using evading with informative comment and shifting credit and requesting assurance in BI 9 and 10, but the quantity is very limited. The lack of evasion as a CR strategy in the textbooks is an area that needs improvement in the textbooks. This is because evading is one of the solutions participants employ (Billmyer, 1990; Pomerantz, 1978) in order to balance being impolite on the one hand and avoiding self-praise on the other.

Another area that needs to be revisited is the frequency of rejection as the CR strategy. Research suggests that disagreement and rejection are common strategies in Asian cultures (Chen, 1993; Gajaseni, 1994; Tang & Zang, 2009), yet such examples are absent in the textbooks. Rejection in compliments is a potentially face-threatening act and may require complex formulations (Billmyer, 1990). Therefore, providing examples of rejections comprising disagreeing utterances, question accuracy, challenge sincerity is necessary as it equips students with strategies for minimizing the face-threat of the act and can avoid breakdown in interethnic communication (Al-Eryani, 2007).

The textbooks provide insufficient compliment response strategies and do not comply with research on Indonesian complimenting which suggests that most Indonesians use evasion, downgrading the compliment but also utilize praise/prayers and hope, reflecting the Indonesian culture (Ibrahim & Riyanto, 2000). Not only are the books deficient in such examples, but when cultural information is presented, it has the potential to create confusion. In BI 9, there is a compliment, but it is preceded by a statement of praise to God.

Figure 2. A complimenting dialogue in BI 9 (p. 10)

In the above example, it can be assumed that the addressee avoided self-praise by using a familiar expression to Muslim participants "Thank God", (El-Dakhs 2017) and shifted credit to God assuming whatever he has done is inevitably related to God's blessings (Khan & Rustam, 2017). Edo seems to display the Indonesian cultural values of *andhap-asor* and *tata krama* demonstrating modesty. Interestingly, Edo seems to have anticipated the compliment which is observed in the second turn, but the dialogue is short and does not reflect the typical sequential organization found in research (Alfonzetti, 2013). The unusual sequence of the dialogue containing a compliment, devoid of appropriate explanation can lead to students' misinterpretation and misunderstanding.

Criterion 3. Diversity in CR sequences

The finding of the criterion 3 are closely related to criterion 2. Since most of the CR strategies used in the textbooks are acceptance with appreciation token, adjacency pairs dominate the CR sequences. Alfonzetti (2013) identified six possibilities of compliment response sequences which the textbooks do not meet (see Table 3)

Table 3

Compliment response sequences provided in the textbooks.

Types Compliment response sequence	BI 8	BI 9	BI 10	Total
No sequence	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Adjacency pairs	9 (100)	5 (83)	4 (57)	18 (81.8)
Three/four turn sequence	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Pre-sequence	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	(0.0)	0 (0.0)
Expanded sequence	0 (0.0)	1 (16)	3 (43)	4 (18.18)
Choral sequence	0 (0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)	0 (0.0)
Total	**9 (100)**	**6 (100)**	**7 (100)**	**22 (100)**

Notes. BI 8= English book for grade 8; BI 9 = English book for grade 9; BI 10 = English book for grade 10. The number in the bracket is the percentage of the compliment response sequences. The CR sequences above are based on Alfonzetti's (2013) study.

Based on the quantitative analysis, the sequence of compliment responses used in the textbooks mostly include adjacency pairs. Very few expanded sequences are found in the dialogues thus depriving students from a deeper understanding of the role of compliments and their placement in the interaction. This finding may be understood in the context of the limited proficiency of the learners. However, the lack of expanded sequences could also distort the illocutionary force of compliments (see Billmyer, 1990; Cohen, 2017; Hobbs, 2003; Holmes, 1988) which are typically embedded in talk and are used as a means of creating social harmony, solidarity, and giving encouragement. Billmyer (1990) goes on to suggest that compliments could function as a way to initiate and sustain talk, especially with English native speakers. However, CR sequences exemplified in the textbook dialogues by way of adjacency pairs may give a false/distorted representation of the role of compliments in an interactional sequence. More than that, the students may be deprived from learning techniques for initiating or sustaining conversations since they are only exposed to two-turn sequences.

> Teacher: Thank you Lina. Your story is very interesting. I like it.
> Student: Thank you, Ma'am. (BI 8, p. 10).

Textbook writers therefore, need to provide dialogues with elaborate sequences of talk to allow students opportunities for developing communicative competence, especially in the senior high school levels.

Criterion 4. Adequacy of discussion of sociopragmatic factors

In regards to the sociolinguistics and pragmatic aspects of complimenting, the findings of the textbook analysis reveal that the textbooks do not discuss sociopragmatic aspects explicitly. It is only through the conversations in the textbooks that students are implicitly exposed to sociopragmatic variables such as variation in complimenting topics, gender differences, social

status and settings (Rees-Miller, 2011). From the analysis, the topics of the compliments in the textbooks include performance/ability, appearance, possession, and personality amongst which performance or ability is the most common topic used in the complimenting conversations. The percentage of performance topic accounts for 53.8% of 24 compliments. In terms of the gender variable, the textbooks exemplify many interactions between females as compliment givers and receivers respectively (41.7%). Similarly, based on the status, the conversations in the textbooks are dominated by the same age or equal status (75%). There are only a few compliments given by higher status to the lower status interactants, such as from a teacher to a student and from parents to children and vice versa (for about 30 %). In terms of setting, the complimenting dialogues mostly occur in goal-oriented activities, such as the classroom and camping ground, while a smaller amount occurring in unstructured setting, such as at home or at a concert. The details of the quantitative analysis based on criterion 4 can be seen in Appendix 1.

Sadly, none of the textbooks explicitly discuss how sociolinguistic variables affect complimenting, thus depriving students from having a clearer picture of the appropriateness of linguistic responses/compliment responses. The majority of the compliments is also offered by women, which may give rise to negative stereotyping. Equally disheartening is that all compliments on appearance are given by women such as in BI 10 (p. 34) and this representation is also criticized in other research (Setyono, 2018). This also contradicts research by Rees-Miller (2011) who demonstrated that men and women give and receive complements in almost the same proportion, with men slightly more often giving and receiving compliments in goal-oriented settings. This negative stereotyping could be avoided if there was additional elaboration, metapragmatic information and discussion of sociopragmatic rules.

Regarding the metapragmatic aspects of the three textbooks, only BI includes two interactive and engaging tasks offering students opportunities for practicing compliment making. However, there is no explicit attention to linguistic formulae associated with complimenting, neither any explanation in the teacher's or the students' book on sociolinguistic variables affecting compliment making. On a positive note, BI 10 ends the task by asking students to reflect on their experiences of complimenting, which may be conducive to initiating student discussion of sociolinguistic variables and their relationship with linguistic expressions used for complimenting.

Task 1:
Let's play rock-paper-scissors.

Work in pairs. Play scissors, rock, and paper. The winner chooses a situation from which he/she creates an expression of compliment. The partner responds to the expression. After that, do the scissors, rock, and paper again. Continue doing that with all the situations provided below.

Compliments
Situation 1 You see your friend with her new haircut.
Situation 2 Your sister drives very well.
Situation 3 Your best friend handled a problem successfully.

Figure 3. Compliment tasks in BI 10

Discussion

Overall, the evaluation of the three newly published Indonesian EFL textbooks reveals that there is limited pragmatic and almost non-existent metapragmatic input on the topic of complimenting. For the majority of textbooks, pragmatic input is presented implicitly; conversations are the only medium of introducing students to syntactic structures of compliments, CR strategies, and CR sequences. There is no explicit lesson on complimenting, nor any explanation of sociolinguistic rules affecting compliment use which would encourage students' attention and awareness of the rules.

In addition, based on quantitative analysis, the variety and frequency of the compliments and compliment responses are unsatisfactory. Very few syntactic structures of complimenting are addressed and compliment response examples are limited, with insufficient cultural information or cross-cultural comparisons between the Indonesian culture and other cultures.

More than that, variation in the sequential organization and sequence presentation of compliments is insufficient thus limiting students' insights into the role of compliments in conversations and when/how to initiate a compliment in a sequence of talk (Billmyer, 1990).

The strict presentation of compliment responses in adjacency pairs appear decontextualised and may lead to students' misinterpreting the role of compliments in sustaining talk.

In terms of metapragmatic input, which answers the second research question, the sociolinguistic factors impacting strategy use are not explicitly discussed, except in one textbook. Therefore, the sociopragmatic nature of the compliments is hardly grasped by the students if they rely heavily on the ELT textbooks as learning materials. The above limitations overall deprive Indonesian students from developing pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence to communicate effectively with other speakers.

This study is consistent with the findings from other studies which have revealed that textbooks are inadequate in providing authentic examples of speech acts and pragmatic information, especially related to cross-cultural information of speech acts (Nguyen, 2011; Petraki & Bayes, 2013; Vellenga, 2004). It is surprising that this study finds that there are some cultural norms of L1 in complimenting included in the textbooks. However, there are insufficient opportunities for students to develop an in depth understanding of the variation in compliment making and responding and no opportunities for comparison between their own culture and the target culture.

These findings have important implications for EFL learners, teachers as well as textbook writers.

For EFL learners, employing these textbooks might offer some exposure to compliment structures and CRs but these textbooks do not guarantee the EFL learners will be able to produce compliments, let alone make compliments in various settings. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) and Rose (2005) maintain that implicit teaching by modelling pragmatic language functions, such as speech acts is important, but it does not bring about long-term effect, especially when there is no specific focus our attention drawn to this randomly presented pragmatic input.

For EFL teachers, considering the aforementioned weaknesses of the textbooks, they need to expand the materials by designing lessons on complimenting using authentic materials and additional real-life examples. In the digital era, learning sources could be obtained easily from the internet in the form of audio-visual materials (Cheng & Liang, 2015). Teachers also need to find authentic dialogues where compliments play different functions as added input of the compliment sequences or parts of everyday casual conversations. Another recommendation, supported in the literature, is that teachers should facilitate discussions about L1 and L2 cultural norms of complimenting and allow students freedom to make choices in their acquisition and use of target language pragmatics (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Thomas, 1983). Additionally, it is important that teachers expose students to expanded sequences of conversation containing

compliments, as well as examples covering different settings and topics, and these could gradually increase from grade 8 to grade 10 textbooks as students' proficiency improves. This would allow students opportunities to examine the range of functions and positions compliments play in a conversation (Billmyer, 1990) and to learn strategies for socializing and initiating talk. Casta and Hafana (2016) propose use of explicit and implicit pragmatic tasks for teaching language functions and localising the material provided to students to increase their engagement.

Collaboration between textbook writers and researchers is desirable to make learning materials align with empirical research findings. In practice, when revising the textbooks, additional variety of compliment topics, compliment structures and responses as well as localisation of instructional materials could strengthen the presentation of the textbooks and improve students' pragmatic awareness.

Conclusion

This article addressed a significant gap in textbook evaluation research and offered insights into how the speech act of complimenting is presented and explained in three Indonesian EFL textbooks. The results confirmed previous studies highlighting the inadequacies of ESL/EFL textbooks in providing students with authentic materials and sufficient and varied pragmatic input (McGroarty & Taguchi, 2005; Nguyen, 2011; Petraki & Bayes, 2013; Vellenga, 2004; Wong, 2002). The study raises significant concerns over the sole use of the three Indonesian EFL textbooks especially in effecting a change on learners' pragmatic competence development. In the first instance, a revision of the textbooks is recommended to increase the frequency of compliment examples, expand the range of appropriate linguistic forms and strategies used in complimenting and develop sociocultural awareness. It is also strongly recommended that Indonesian EFL teachers provide additional opportunities for sociocultural discussion of L1 and L2 norms, offer examples of compliments, compliment structures and other social actions and practice opportunities in the form of implicit and explicit pragmatic tasks across a variety of settings and topics to complement existing materials. Students' awareness raising and noticing of complimenting as well as other social acts such as disagreements, apologies, requests is necessary as it has been found to lead to students' pragmatic development (Bardovi Harlig, 2001; Basturkmen & Nguyen, 2017).

Despite the effort put forth here, this study has some limitations. Firstly, the focus of this research is limited to compliments and compliment responses in the three Indonesian textbooks and can only be applied to that domain. Secondly, the number of textbooks that were analysed

are only three out of the six ELT textbooks endorsed by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture to identify to what extent it matched the students' need to develop the curriculum aims of complimenting. Thus, it is recommended that this research is extended to the evaluation of other speech acts and other EFL textbooks to assess the extent to which sufficient pragmatic input is offered to students to facilitate their development of communicative competence. Based on the findings of this research, a revision of the textbooks is recommended to offer more authentic and varied examples of pragmatic input and additional explicit instruction on complimenting.

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Appendix 1. Sociolinguistic variables presented in the textbooks

Table A.1 Frequency of compliments in the textbooks based on interlocutors' gender

Giver→receiver	BI 8	BI 9	B10	Total
M → M	3 (33.3)	1 (20)	2 (20)	6 (25)
M → F	1 (11.1)	1 (20)	1 (10)	3 (12.5)
F → M	1 (11.1)	1 (20)	2 (20)	5 (20.8)
F → F	3 (33.3)	2 (40)	5 (50)	10 (41.7)
M&F→M	1 (11.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (4.1)
Total	9 (100)	5	10 (100)	24 (100)

Table A.2 Frequency of compliment topics

Topic	BI 8	BI 9	BI 10	Total
Appearance	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (63.6)	7 (26.9)
Performance	8 (80)	3 (60)	3 (27.3)	14 (53.8)
Possession	0 (0.0)	2 (40)	1* (9)	3 (11.5)
personality	2 (20)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (7.7)
Total	10 (100)	5 (100)	11 (100)	26 (100)

Table A.3: Frequency of the interlocutors' status

Status	BI 8	BI 9	BI 10	Total
equal	6 (66.7)	3 (60)	9 (90)	18 (75)
unequal	3 (33.3)	2 (40)	1 (10)	7 (29.2)
Total	9 (100)	5 (100)	10 (100)	24 (100)

Table A.4 Variation in the compliment setting

Setting	BI 8	BI 9	BI 10	Total
Unstructured	1 (11.1)	2 (40)	7 (70)	11 (44)
Goal-oriented	8 (88.88)	3 (60)	3 (30)	14 (56)
Total	9 (100)	5 (100)	10 (100)	25 (100)

Note. Notes. BI 8= English book for grade 8; BI 9 = English book for grade 9; BI 10 = English book for grade 10. The number in the bracket is the percentage of the sociolinguistic variables. The sociolinguistic variables above are based on Rees-Miller's (2013) framework.

L2 motivational self system as predictors of in-class and out-of-class willingness to communicate in a multicultural context

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Abstract

Despite a growing number of studies on the link between second language motivational self-system (L2 MSS) and learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) in the target language; there is still scanty research on the relationship between these two constructs among pre-service ESL teachers in two contexts: in and out of class. Thus, by employing the quantitative research design, the current study attempts to address this research gap. It involved 111 pre-service ESL teachers in Malaysia, a multicultural country. It is found that even though proficient, the participants' level of WTC in the two contexts was moderate. There was a moderate strength of relationship between their ideal L2 self with their in-class WTC. However there was no significant relationship between this variable and their WTC outside the classroom. For the ought-to self, findings indicate that there was no significant relationship between this construct and the learners' inside and outside class WTC. Further analysis shows that the ideal L2 self was the stronger predictor of WTC in both contexts. A possible conclusion is that being pre-service ESL teachers in a multicultural country, issues such as identity and solidarity might impinge upon their WTC. It is therefore suggested that teacher educators need to find ways to facilitate the trainees' WTC by creating opportunities for them to provide emotional support to each other.

Introduction

Numerous empirical studies have proven the link between oral communication and success in second language learning (Goh, 2014; Long, 2015; Swain, 2000). It means that the failure or success of language learning is very much influenced by one's WTC. It is defined as "*the probability of engaging in communication* (i.e. speaking) *when free to choose to do so*" (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement & Noels, 1998: 546). Though WTC is an issue that is commonly more pronounced among less proficient learners, recent studies have shown that unwillingness to communicate is a noteworthy concern even among proficient and advanced speakers of the target language (Baghaei, Dourakhshan, & Salavati, 2012; Ketabdar, Yazdani, & Yarahmadi, 2014; Mystkowska & Pawlak, 2016; Öz, 2016; Öz, Demirezen, & Pourfeiz, 2015).

In Malaysia, researchers have begun to explore this issue among pre-service ESL

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teachers (Fahim & Dhamotharan, 2016; Yousef, Jamil & Razak, 2013). This is because the government, through the 11 Shifts of Transformation, is in the midst of improving its education system (Ministry of Education, 2015). In line with Shift 2: upskilling of teachers, ESL Teacher Education Programmes in the country are responsible to produce teachers who are linguistically competent to teach effectively. Kepol (2017), referring to the standards established by the Ministry of Education, states that quality among Malaysian ESL teachers is defined as having sound pedagogical competence and high proficiency of the target language.

Following this, pre-service ESL teachers need to have high WTC because of two reasons. First, reluctance to engage in verbal activities might hinder further mastery of the target language. Second language teachers need to have a high sense of WTC so that they will be able to guide and become the role models for their own students (Yousef et al., 2013). Öz (2016) suggests that there could be a link between learners' L2 MSS and their WTC; and that "future self-images and the ideal L2 self-identity can motivate L2 learners for a long time process of learning an L2, increase their intended effort, and enhance their willingness to communicate in the language" (p. 164).

The present study seeks to explore the relationship between WTC and L2 MSS (Dörnyei, 2010) among pre-service ESL teachers. In Malaysia, the opportunities to verbally engage in English can be found not only in class but also out-of- class context as there are 8 million speakers of the target language (Hansen Edwards, 2017). Nonetheless, being a multicultural country, issues such as identity and solidarity might impinge upon one's willingness to speak in English (Rajadurai, 2010). Thus, Norton's poststructuralist perspectives of motivation (2000) and imagined community (2001) are used to further understand the issues of WTC in a multicultural context.

In relation to the above, it is the intent of the study to investigate the link between WTC and L2 MSS in two contexts: in-class and out-of-class. A better understanding of the extent to which their ideal and ought-to selves affect their WTC in these two environments can be beneficial for teacher educators in finding ways to facilitate WTC among pre-service ESL teachers. The findings generated in this study will help to address the knowledge gap in the area of WTC among pre-service teachers; which can be beneficial for ESL researchers and practitioners.

Malaysian society and the use of English

Before reviewing the relevant literature on WTC and L2 MSS, it will be helpful to have some understanding of the Malaysian society and how this has several impacts on the use of English

in the country. With a population of about 32.6 million, Malaysia is made up of several ethnic groups namely Malay, Chinese, Indian, Iban, Kadazan, Orang Asli, and other indigenous groups; each with its own language, religion, and cultural practices (Ahmad Tajuddin & Zulkepli, 2019). Even though English is the second official language in the country, the reality is that it has the features of first, second, and foreign languages; depending on each individual's preference. Rajadurai (2010) observes that compared to other ethnic groups in the country, the Malays are found to be the most resistant to use the language where "Malays are expected to speak Malay". The resistance emerges from their strong community ideology that upholds loyalty towards their religion, language and culture (Rajadurai, 2010). In terms of the learning of English, studies (Rajadurai, 2010; Razak, Nimehchisalem, & Abdullah, 2018) have found out that learners' willingness to engage in verbal communication using the target language are affected by these compounding factors; which lead to them not fully optimising the abundant language learning opportunities that are available outside the classroom.

Willingness to Communicate

Burgoon (1976), and McCroskey and Baer (1985) were among the scholars who spearheaded the research on WTC where WTC in L1 was attributed to personality traits; among others: "communication apprehension, perceived communication competence, introversion-extroversion, and self-esteem" (Zarrinabadi & Tanbakooei, 2016: 31). About a decade later, scholars like MacIntrye and his associates (1998) started researching WTC in the domain of second language acquisition. In their works, these scholars argue for a conception of WTC that was beyond personal traits. Thus, they added situation as a variable in the framework to understand WTC in L2 where it is defined as "a readiness to enter discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547). Several empirical studies have shown how learners' WTC varies across situations as well as time (Joe, Hiver & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Khajavy, Ghonsooly, Hosseini, Choi, 2016).

Building on from the earlier works by MacIntyre and associates, other researchers have begun to include other relevant constructs in their attempts to understand WTC (Khajavy et al., 2016; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2016). Khajav et al. (2016) propose a WTC model where both personality traits such as motivation, attitudes towards learning communication confidence, and English language achievement; and a situational variable i.e. classroom environment were employed as the variables. Their quantitative study that investigated the relationship among WTC and the aforementioned variables reveal that communication confidence is one of the strongest predictors of WTC among advanced level ESL learners in

Iran. Based on the situated nature of WTC and the more recent understanding of this construct, the present study focuses on willingness to speak in English inside and outside the classroom, and its relationship with L2 MSS among a group of pre-service ESL teachers in Malaysia.

Motivational Self System

Prominent L2 scholars have investigated motivation in language learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner & MacIntrye, 1993) and it has gone through major theoretical advancements (Dörnyei, 2005, 2010; Gardner, 1985; Norton, 2000). From the Gardnerian tradition that views one's motivation of learning a second language as mainly for two purposes: to communicate and to integrate with members of the community of the target language to Norton's (2000) poststructuralist view where she introduces the term investment to capture the complexity of second language learning that is influenced by factors like power and identity. Recent developments in understanding motivation have led to the view that it is linked to learners' self-imagery and ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005; 2010). This notion of imagination is akin to Norton's concept of imagined community. Imagined community refers to seeing oneself belonging to a community beyond the present one. Through different manner of participation, individuals in a sense create their identities in relation with their membership of the imagined community (Norton, 2001). One's identity emerges from two intertwined factors: the general social structures, and individual agency and subjectivity (Norton, 2000; 2001; Wenger, 1998). Due to this, the construction of identity is perceived as a "site of struggle" (Norton, 2000). In the present study, the trainee teachers' WTC is seen as a reflection of the "struggle" that they face in and out-of-class.

Dörnyei's (2005) proposes a L2 Motivational Self System that has three important elements: *ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self* and *L2 learning experiences.* The first element: the ideal L2 self refers to "the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess" (Dörnyei, 2010: 78). Kim (2009) states the ideal L2 self as the desirable future images of the learners after they have acquired the second language; while Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) explain the ideal L2 self as the motivation for positive outcomes that relates to the individuals' objectives, goals and hopes to achieve professional and personal success in the L2. The second element: the ought-to L2 self refers to the attributes that should be possessed in order to fulfil obligations, responsibilities and duties towards the family and society (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). In short, the ought-to self is characterised as a learner's avoidance from negative consequences imposed by the society if he or she does not sufficiently reach the desired L2 proficiency.

Past studies on WTC and L2 MSS

Researchers in countries like Turkey (Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016; Öz & Bursali, 2018), Thailand (Darling & Chanyoo, 2018), Iran (Pourhasan & Zoghi, 2017), China (Peng, 2015), and Japan (Munezane, 2015) have carried out studies investigating the link between WTC and L2 MSS. Öz and Bursali (2018) carried out a quantitative study where a questionnaire consisting of items on ideal and ought-to selves, and in-class WTC was administered to 105 students in a Turkish university. The results obtained indicate that there was a statistically significant relationship between the ideal L2 self and L2 WTC. Findings from the survey also reveal that the ideal L2 self was the strongest predictor of L2 WTC. Darling and Chanyoo (2018) carried out a study on L2 MSS among a group of university students using the mixed-methods study. The three L2 MSS components: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experiences constituted the 37-item questionnaire that was distributed to 330 respondents. The results reveal that the ideal self was the strongest predictor; followed by learning experience and finally the learners' ought-to selves. They also recommended "Past L2 experience" to be added as the fourth component of L2 MSS since the qualitative findings suggest that learners who had past experience working in an English-speaking context had higher tendency to converse in the L2.

Other than focusing on the language learners, several studies have also been conducted investigating the link between WTC and MSS among ESL in-service teachers (Bursali & Öz, 2017; Öz, 2015; Valmori & De Costa, 2016). These studies investigated L2 MSS in relation to in-service teachers' willingness to improve their target language proficiency. Employing the grounded theory approach, a study by Valmori and De Costa (2016) involved 9 in-service EFL teachers in Italy. One of the important results is that a discrepancy between their actual and ideal selves heightens the teachers' willingness to participate in professional development courses to improve their language proficiency. While there are several studies on in-service teachers, those on pre-service ESL teachers are rather scanty. Using survey as the research method, a questionnaire containing items measuring WTC and its related variables: perceived communication competence and apprehension, attitudes, motivation, and ideal self was administered to a sample of pre-service EFL teachers (n= 134) in Turkey (Bursali & Öz, 2017). Findings show that the strongest predictors of WTC are communication competence and comprehension apprehension; while the motivational factors influence WTC indirectly. Despite a growing interest to study WTC and L2 MSS among ESL teachers, it has not taken much consideration into pre-service teachers and the two contexts: in and out-of-class. Thus, the present study tends to address this research gap. Below are the research questions:

i. What are the levels of in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC among the pre-service ESL teachers?

ii. Is there any significant relationship between the participants' in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC, and their L2 MSS (the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self)?

iii. Which one is the stronger predictor of the in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC among the pre-service ESL teachers (the ideal L2 self or the ought-to L2 self)?

The study

Research design

Situated in the quantitative paradigm, the present study employed an adapted questionnaire to collect data on the participants' levels of L2 WTC and L2 MSS, as well as their demographic information i.e. gender and age.

Participants

Through convenient sampling, this study involved a total of 111 ESL pre-service teachers (n = 111). The participants consisted of 16.2 % males (n = 18) and 83.8% females (n = 93). Their reported home languages were: Bahasa Malaysia (84.7 %), Mandarin language (3 %), Tamil language (4 %), English language (5 %) and other languages (5 %).

Research procedure

Before the questionnaire was distributed, the researchers explained the research to the participants and asked for their consent. The data collection was done during class hours; the participants completed the questionnaire anonymously, without any discussion among them.

Research instrument

An adapted questionnaire by Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2016) was used. This questionnaire was chosen as it was designed for advanced-level university students, similarly the participants in this study were pre-service ESL teachers who were advanced language learners. The required data were collected through the following scales: in-class WTC (Peng & Woodrow, 2010), out-of-class WTC (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996), ideal self (Dörnyei, 2010), and ought-to self (Dörnyei, 2010) as cited in Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2016). A reliability test was administered to ascertain the internal consistency of the item constructs. The Cronbach Alpha was calculated and analyses were done to determine the number of items

relevant to the present study. The following sub-sections report the items that were retained for each of the WTC components.

In-class WTC

In this study, five items from a five-point Likert were utilised. Out of the five, only two items were retained: "I am willing to take part in a discussion in a small group" and "I am willing to take part in a discussion in a pair". Three new items were added.

Out-of-class WTC

For this component, seven statements were presented in a 5-point Likert scale format. One statement was retained. Two statements that contained the term "computer mediated communication" were rephrased to "video call". Four new statements were added.

The ideal L2 self

For this WTC component, only four out of six items were retained. Another four new items were added to reflect the participants' obligations as future ESL teachers.

The ought-to-self

The ten-item ought-to-self measurement (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2016) was adapted to a five-item scale in the present study. Two statements were rephrased. The statement: "If I fail to learn English I'll be letting other people down" was rephrased and divided into two statements: "If I fail to be proficient in English, I will let my students down" and "If I fail to be proficient in English, I will let the society down". Two new items were added.

Data analysis

Several statistical methods of analysis were carried out to answer the research questions. First, one-sample t-test was run to examine the WTC of these pre-service teachers with regard to in-class and out-of-class environments. Next, to answer the second research question the Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between the in-class and out-of-class components and these pre-service teachers' L2 Motivation Self-System. To find out the stronger predictor of the WTC components among the pre-service teachers (Research Question 3), a simple regression analysis was done.

Preliminary analyses

Preliminary analysis was conducted on the data (n=111) through Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) where no violation of normality and linearity assumptions was found. A reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha was also conducted for each WTC construct, prior to testing its structural model. The outcome of the test is indicated in Table 1. The results showed that the reliability score is larger than 0.7, which implies that the items have acceptable consistency (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2007) except for the ought-to self construct. Although the reliability coefficient for the ought-to self is .590, it is deemed as almost reliable as this questionnaire was newly developed (Field, 2013). Statisticians agreed that newly developed items may face limitations in reaching the standard threshold value of 0.7 (Field, 2013). Table 1 summarises the reliability analysis of the constructs.

Table 1

Reliability Analysis of the Study Variables

Scale	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
In-Class WTC	5	0.752
Out-of-class WTC	7	0.754
Ideal L2 Self	8	0.887
Ought-to L2 Self	3	0.590

Findings and discussion

Descriptive analysis

Table 2

Descriptive statistics on 'in-class WTC' items

No.	Items	M	SD
1.	I am willing to voice my ideas to the rest of the class.	3.25	.90
2.	I am willing to voluntarily answer questions posed by the lecturer.	3.12	.90
3.	I am willing to take part in a discussion in a small group.	4.41	.58
4.	I am willing to take part in a discussion in a pair.	4.59	.58
5.	I am willing to ask questions to my lecturers.	3.40	.94

Table 2 shows that only 2 items from 'in-class WTC' construct received mean score higher than 4. Item no. 4 which states 'I am willing to take part in a discussion in a pair' received the highest mean score (M = 4.59, SD = .58). Meanwhile, the mean score with the lowest value was item no. 2 'I am willing to voluntarily answer questions posed by the lecturer' (M = 3.12, SD = .90). Similarly, a study done by Chen (2003) reveals that a participant reported she avoided asking questions in class for she feared about the "appropriateness of the question". The same concept could be applied here where the participants were willing to discuss with their peers but were unwilling to answer questions posed by the lecturers. This might be due to the fact that they were less concerned about "appropriateness" when talking with peers; which indicatively raised their level of WTC in that situation. However, answering lecturers' questions (those who are viewed as more knowledgeable) might heighten the need to be "appropriate"; which possibly leads to a low level of WTC.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics on 'out-of-class WTC' items

No.	Items	M	SD
1.	I am willing to have a video call to talk to an acquaintance of mine.	3.55	1.07
2.	I am willing to have a video call to talk to a group of my acquaintances.	3.38	1.08
3.	I am willing to initiate communication with someone I met in the street.	3.30	1.02
4.	I am willing to speak to someone who needs assistance (e.g., help find directions).	4.19	.83
5.	I am willing to initiate communication with a group of people met in the street.	3.03	1.05
6.	I am willing to speak to a group of people who need assistance.	4.05	.78
7.	I am willing to use English to speak to my friends out of class.	4.13	.90

For the 'out-of-class WTC' section, only three items showed mean score higher than 4: item no. 4, 6 and 7. The obtained results show that item 'I am willing to speak to someone who needs assistance' obtained the highest mean score (M = 4.19, SD = .83). However, 'I am willing to initiate communication with a group of people met in the street' obtained the lowest mean score (M = 3.03, SD = 1.05). This reveals that they were willing to speak when obliged to. This shows that even though proficient speakers of English and that they were in the environment where opportunities to speak English was abundant, the participants were selective in when and with whom to speak the language. This is supported by a study done by Peng (2014) where she

observes that outside the classroom, only learners who were already members of the global community through their past L2 learning experience were willing to speak; while many others chose not to since in the out-of-class context they were not obliged to engage in verbal activities.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics on 'ideal self' items

No.	Items	M	SD
1.	Whenever I think about my future career, I imagine myself using English.	4.53	.62
2.	I can imagine myself speaking English as I were a native speaker of the language.	3.87	1.09
3.	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	4.50	.69
4.	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	4.55	.66
5.	I imagine myself becoming a proficient English teacher.	4.52	.71
6.	I can imagine a situation where I explain things in English to my students.	4.59	.64
7.	I imagine taking part in a discussion with other English teachers.	4.41	.80
8.	I imagine conducting out-of-class activities in English with my students.	4.45	.77

For the 'ideal self' component, all items indicated mean score higher than 4 except for item no.2. Item no. 2 'I can imagine myself speaking English as I were a native speaker of the language' showed the lowest mean score (M = 3.87, SD = 1.09). From the second language learning perspectives, Pavlenko (2006) carried out a qualitative investigation on being multilingual. The participants in his study reported feeling empowered by being multilingual. Similarly, the participants' low mean score on the need to speak like natives implies that they embrace the fact that they are multilingual speakers and the ability to speak near-native is not a required criterion to become effective English teachers.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics on 'ought-to self' items

No.	Items	M	SD
1.	As a future English teacher, people expect me to be very proficient in the language.	4.86	.42
2.	The society believes that I must be proficient in English to be an effective teacher.	4.77	.56
3.	Mastering English is important because other people will respect me when I am proficient in the language.	4.34	.94

Table 5 reveals that all of the items for the ought-to self section show mean score higher than 4. Item no. 1 received the highest mean score; 'As a future English teacher, people expect me to be very proficient in the language' with Mean = 4.86, SD = .42. Meanwhile, item no. 3 'Mastering English is important because other people will respect me when I am proficient in the language' obtained the lowest mean score (M = 3.32, SD = 1.11). This signals that the participants felt the need to fulfil the society's expectation of English teachers i.e. to be fully proficient in English. This corroborates with findings from several studies done in Asian contexts that highlight the importance of ought-to L2 self (Kim, 2012; Rattanaphumma, 2016; Taguchi et al., 2009) in learning the target language.

Inferential analysis

The levels of in-class WTC

Findings reveal that the sample mean of 3.751 (SD = .566) was significantly different from the test value. With alpha set at .05, the one sample *t* test was significantly different from 3, with *t*(110) = 13.99, p=.000. Furthermore, the effect size *d* of 1.327 indicated a large effect (Green & Salkind, 2005). Therefore, the obtained results indicate that the level of in-class WTC among the pre-service ESL teachers is moderate as the mean score (M = 3.751) was higher than the acceptable degree of the test value (with the test value set at 3) and the effect size of 1.327 implies that the mean score of 3.751 is statistically significantly different from the test value.

The levels of out-of-class WTC

Results indicate that the sample mean of 3.659 (SD = .614) was significantly different from the test value (3). With alpha set at .05, the one sample *t* test was significantly different from 3, with *t*(110) = 11.30, p=.000. The effect size *d* of 1.073 indicated a large effect (Green & Salkind, 2005). Thus, based on the obtained results, it can be inferred that the level of out-of- class WTC among the pre-service ESL teachers is moderate as the mean score (M = 3.659) was significantly higher than the test value (with the test value set at 3). Furthermore, the effect size of 1.327 signified that the mean score of 3.659 was statistically significantly different from the test value.

The above findings on in-class and out-of-class WTC show that even though these pre-service ESL teachers are proficient speakers of the target language, their willingness to verbally communicate in English is not as high as expected. This differs from the findings in a study done by (Kho-Yar, Rafik-Galea & Kho, 2018) on a group of tertiary level ESL learners in Malaysia where they conclude that proficient L2 learners possess a high level of WTC.

The Relationship between in-class WTC and ideal L2 self

The correlation result shows that the participants' ideal self was significantly correlated with in-class willingness to communicate; $r = .314$, $p = .00$ at .05 alpha level. The findings suggest that there is a moderate strength of correlation ($r = .314$) between the participants' in-class WTC and their ideal selves. This supports findings from previous studies (Bursali & Öz, 2017; Öz & Bursali, 2018; Öz, 2015; Teimouri, 2017) indicating that learners' ideal selves contribute to their in-class WTC.

The Relationship between out-of-class WTC and ideal L2 self

Findings show that there was a significant correlation between out-of-class WTC and ideal L2 self, $r = .289$, $p = .001$ at .05 alpha level. Findings indicated a low correlation (.289) between these two variables. It is not possible to compare these findings with the findings obtained from past research since there is no known study that explored the components of out-of-class WTC and ideal L2 self. However, a quantitative study done by Lucas, Bernardo and Rojo-Laurilla (2016) could be referred to in order to shed some lights on the issue. Lucas et al. (2016) studied WTC among ESL learners in Philippines from the amotivation lens. Amotivation, the absence of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000 as cited in Lucas et al., 2016), occurs when an individual finds it difficult to handle the outcomes of his or her behaviours. Instead, the outcomes are controlled by external factors. In their study, the researchers concluded that learners' frequency of practising the English language out of class could be a factor that leads to amotivation. Similarly, the low correlation between out-of-class WTC and the learners' ideal selves might be due to their low frequency of using English outside the classroom. Even though English is widely used in many social domains in the country, the actual use of the language differs across each individual.

The Relationship between in-class WTC and ought-to self

Results reveal that participants' in-class WTC was positively correlated with ought-to-self. However, the relationship was not significant, $r = .088$, $p = .180$ at .05 alpha level. Thus, there was no significant correlation between the two variables. This corroborates the findings from the study done by Öz & Bursali (2018) that show there was no significant relationship between his respondents' in-class WTC and their ought-to self.

The Relationship between out-of-class WTC and ought-to self

Correlation result reveals that there was a minimal positive relationship between these two variables, however, the relationship was not significant, r = .071, p = .229 at .05 alpha level. Thus, it can be inferred that there was no significant relationship between out-of-class WTC and ought-to self among the pre-service ESL teachers. Comparison with findings from previous research is not possible due to the lack of known study on the relationship between these two constructs. Nevertheless, the evidence presented thus far supports the conclusion made by Teimouri (2017) in his study that investigated the relationship between L2 selves, emotions, and motivated behaviours. In his study, Teimouri (2017) postulates that when not obliged, learners with strong sense of ought-to selves will most possibly avoid situations that require actual use of the target language. This is due to their strong preventional focus. Similarly, in the case of the present study, the pre-service ESL teachers avoided talking in English outside the classroom since they were not obliged to do so in such situation.

Predictors of WTC

Preliminary investigation of the correlation between the predictors and in-class and out-of-class WTC

Following Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) standard of procedure, prior to the regression analysis, the correlation between the predictors and each outcome was tested to ensure that all predictors were sufficiently related to the outcome variable before they were included in the regression model.

Predictor of in-class WTC

The correlation analysis found that only ideal self was significantly correlated with in-class WTC (r = .314, p = .000). Therefore, ought-to self was not included in the regression model as it showed no significant relationship with the in-class WTC. Results of the simple linear regression showed that ideal self was a significant predictor of in-class WTC, R= .317, R square = .101, p = .001 and standardised beta = .336.

Predictor of out-of-class WTC

The correlation analysis found that only ideal self was significantly correlated with out-of-class WTC (r = 2.89, p = .001). Hence, ought-to self was excluded in the regression model as it reveals no significant relationship with the out-of-class WTC. The obtained result from simple

linear regression analysis suggests that out-of-class WTC is a predictor for ideal self with the significant value of R = .294, R square = .087, p = .002, beta = .314.

The above findings reveal that the ideal self is the stronger predictor of L2 WTC for both in-class and out-of-class contexts. In relation to in-class WTC, this corroborates findings from past studies (Darling & Chanyoo, 2018; Henry & Thorsen, 2017; Öz & Bursali, 2018) on L2 MSS.

Conclusions and pedagogical implications

The main aim of the present study was to investigate L2 MSS and its relationship with WTC among pre-service ESL teachers in Malaysia. Acknowledging the dynamics of the context, it explored the relationship between the two variables: in-class and out-of-class environments. Despite some limitations, this study adds the literature on this area and contributes to a better understanding of the relationship between L2 MSS and WTC among pre-service ESL teachers in two contexts (in and out-of-class).

Findings reveal that ideal self was the stronger predictor for in-class and out-of-class WTC among the participants. This is not surprising as being pre-service teachers, they are still in the process of developing their identities where their concern is more on fulfilling their own desire to become proficient speakers of the language; not so much on what is expected by the society (the ought-to self). According to Dörnyei (2010), the ideal self is a manifestation of learners' internalised desire to become competent L2 speakers. In the current study, the descriptive analysis shows that the trainees' sense of ideal selves is quite high; which means that they could picture themselves using English in their future profession as teachers. What is intriguing here is that their reported level of in-class and out-of-class WTC is just moderate. The contradicting findings mean that even though they were aspired to become proficient teachers of English, they were quite unwilling to engage in verbal activities that were beneficial for their L2 acquisition. From Norton's concept of imagined community (2000), it could be said that their reported level of WTC reflects that the process of creating their identities to become members of the imagined community of proficient ESL teachers is "a site of struggle" (Norton, 2000).

In-class, the "struggle" possibly emerges from the presence of more linguistically competent others that can cause social anxiety (Lachica, 2019) and adversely affect the trainee teachers' WTC. Several studies have shown that higher level of proficiency correlates with a high level of anxiety (Marcos-Llinás, & Garau, 2009; Marzec-Stawiarska, 2015). Being proficient in a second language does not mean that one speaks the language without stress, especially in the presence of others who are viewed as more competent and having more

advanced knowledge of the target language. Zhong (2013) in his study on WTC among Chinese ESL learners in New Zealand discovers that accuracy is one of the most influential factors that impedes speaking in class. Similarly, these trainee teachers, though proficient speakers of the language, are still in the process of further improving their language competency, thus they might feel anxious of making grammar errors. This could be a plausible explanation why these participants reported low level of WTC when it came to voicing ideas openly in class, asking questions to the lecturers, and volunteering to answer questions posed by the lecturers. As such, knowing the extent or level of learners' confidence and anxiety can therefore assist lecturers to know their learners better and take necessary actions to improve their WTC (Ockert, 2019). Zhong (2013) concludes that learners who were reluctant to join a discourse in the target language "did not perceive themselves as having the competence to speak up with ease in front of others" (p.749). Consequently, they become reticent in class: "subordination or a potential handicap in activating such communicative skills" (Bao, 2014: 13). Marzec-Stawiarska (2015) in his study on EFL trainee teachers advances that the participants in his study who were future English teachers might be overly concerned with language errors as they were aware of their future role as language models for the students. Similarly, in the case of the present study, the participants who were future ESL teachers might tend to be very concerned about committing language errors to such an extent that this adversely affected their WTC.

Out-of-class, the "struggle", from the Ethnic Group Association (EGA) perspective, might have transpired from the fact that Malaysia is a multicultural country. EGA refers to "intimate feelings towards one's own ethnic culture and language" (Razak, Nimehchisalem, & Abdullah, 2018: 207). Investigating WTC through the lens of EGA, Razak and her colleagues carried out a quantitative study on a group of Malaysian undergraduates who were from the Malay, Indian, and Chinese ethnic groups. The obtained findings show that there was a high level of EGA among the research participants that resulted in them having a low level of WTC. The researchers conclude that the participants felt obliged to protect and maintain their ethnic groups and this was achieved by being unwilling to communicate in another language i.e. English. In relation to the present study, in the out-of-class setting the participants who were predominantly Malays (84.7%) might feel the need to identify themselves in their ethnic group. This was done by being less willing to speak in English and opting to using the Malay language instead.

This study has some limitations that need to be addressed. First, it is a quantitative study that lacks rich data for a deeper understanding of the phenomenon being investigated, as the questionnaire employed only provides a snapshot of the situation. This study could be more revealing if other sources of data are included such as observation and interview. Second, this

study looked at the relationship between L2 WTC and L2 MSS; focusing only on two components: ideal self and ought-to self. For future research, it is suggested that the third component of L2 MSS: L2 learning experiences to be included so as broader judgements can be made about the relationship between L2 WTC and L2 MSS.

The implication of this study to teacher educators is to consider the role of motivation in encouraging ESL teacher trainees to improve their language proficiency through participating in communicative opportunities available in various social settings. This is aligned with one of Dörnyei's (2018) motivational strategies; a group building technique where learners learn, interact and build a mutual relationship with others to achieve the desired outcome. This technique is seen as beneficial for ESL pre-service teachers as they share the common proclivity of becoming proficient English teachers. The emotional support that they obtain could potentially alleviate the challenges faced in in-class and out-of-class environments.

In relation to out-of-class environments, ESL pre-service teachers could also utilise technology as a tool for language learning. Creating an online community could provide these learners with the opportunity to connect and practise the language with others in the virtual realm. Online platforms such as Facebook provide features that allow such interaction to occur through video sharing and live streaming. By exploiting these features, language learners have the opportunity to practise speaking the target language with others from other parts of the globe. This finding is supported by Ibrayeva and Fuller's (2014) study, where they observed that learners can become more proficient in the English language when they are given more opportunities to utilise it in out-of-class settings.

Another benefit of utilising technology in language learning lies in the nature of the online community where connectivity is a forefront. This platform enables learners to obtain emotional support and encouragement by connecting with other users that face similar challenges of learning the target language. This support is integral to facilitate their WTC and motivation to become proficient English language practitioners. Dörnyei (2018) in his recent discussion on the importance of motivation in language learning states "Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals" (pg. 1). This highlights the importance of motivation even among advanced language learners.

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Digital writing and English teachers' attitudes towards its non-standard conventions

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Abstract

The language that internet users use in digital writing, which is a product of the facilitations and limitations of technological tools utilized in computer-mediated communication (CMC), involves linguistic features that diverge from the rules of standard written English or academic writing. In order to understand the nature of digital writing conventions and the attitudes of internet users towards the non-standard conventions, the present study analyzed the digital writing features in Internet Philippine English (IPE) and the attitudes of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers towards the non-standard

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usage in digital writing. The present investigation used a corpus of 30,000 words which were extracted from Facebook statuses and Twitter tweets of Filipino high school teachers. The present analyses drew on the descriptions of Crystal (2001, 2004); Turner, Abrams, Katic, and Donovan (2014); and Gustilo, Tocalo, and Calingasan (2019) regarding internet language. The present study found 20 digitalk conventions and predominantly non-sentence structures which were used across two social networking sites, Facebook and Twitter. The Filipino high school ESL teachers who participated in the language-attitude test believe that the digital conventions which diverge from the standard usage of the English language are confined to the use of informal writing. The present study suggests that digital writing can be used as an authentic teaching-learning resource and that cross-cultural investigations involving larger data be undertaken in future studies. Finally, an investigation focusing on how English language teachers utilize digitalk as authentic and supplemental resources in teaching academic discourse would be a valuable contribution in understanding the link between digitalk and other norms of language usage.

Keywords: digital writing, Internet Philippine English (IPE), Internet English

Introduction

In the digital age, many scholars have described the nature of linguistic revolution in the internet because of its persistent development which introduced new orthographic, graphic, lexico-grammatical, syntactic, and discourse features (Crystal, 2001). The rapid increase of electronic communication due to the advent of the internet in the 1960's has changed the way people communicate and the manner in which they form and use language. Those who have access to the internet make business, educate, and influence people using the facilitations and limitations of digital technology, which give rise to a variety of language that digresses from the standard form of speech and writing. This linguistic revolution is characterized by coinages, localized lexical terms, speech-like forms, and informal and ungrammatical constructions which proliferate in electronic communication, erasing the clear demarcation between the conventions of speaking and writing. The creation of the words *selfie, twofie, ussie, threefie,* and *groufie;* the use of acronyms for online laughter such as *LOL* (laughing out loud), *ROFL* (rolling on the floor laughing), *LQTM* (laughing quietly to myself), and *HAHAHA* (transcription of laughter); the utilization of capital letters to show emphasis (e.g., *I HATE YOU*); the use of fragment sentence and subject-less sentence; the utilization of rebus form of writing (e.g., *l8er* for later);

and the use of emoticons and emojis in sentences are only a few examples of this linguistic phenomenon.

Such changes in the form and use of language have created opposing views among different stakeholders. Many parents and educators expressed concerns that spelling, punctuation errors, shortened forms, and grammar lapses are erroneous, carefree, degrading, and lax, which diverge from the conventions of standard written English (Lenhart, Arafeh, Smith, & Macgill, 2008). However, there are those who dismiss the view that digital writing is a representation of students' deteriorating literacy. Instead, they view the modifications in digital language as characteristics of advanced literacy skills (Turner, Abrams, Katic, & Donovan, 2014). David Crystal (2001) views the linguistic revolution in the internet as an emergence of a new language variety with its own distinctive features. In the Philippine setting, some scholars (e.g., Gustilo, Tocalo, & Calingasan, 2019) have argued that digital writing by Filipinos has given birth to the existence of the Philippine English variety in the internet which is referred to as Internet Philippine English (henceforth, IPE).

Using a descriptive research design, the present study takes Crystal's (2001) view of internet language as a new language variety and describes the non-standard localized and digitalk forms of writing in IPE. In addition, it documents the attitudes of high school ESL teachers in the Philippines towards the non-standard forms in electronic communication. These trajectories of research were chosen for the present study given that documentations on the features of Filipino digitalk and attitudes of ESL teachers towards its non-standard conventions are scant. The present study will be a valuable contribution to the literature of new varieties of English in which Internet English is regarded as one of the sub-varieties of the English language (Crystal, 2001).

Literature Review

Characteristics of digitalk

In his book, *Language and the Internet*, David Crystal (2001) characterized the internet as an electronic, global, and interactive medium which influences the type of language established in such medium. The global audience using the internet and the physical features of the technological medium have contributed to the type of language produced and used in the digital world. As Crystal (2001, 2004) pointed out, a user's communicative activity is highly influenced, if not constrained, by the nature of the hardware used to access the internet. For instance, the limited characters in a keyboard determines the type of information that the user can send (productive linguistic capacity); while the size and the configuration of the gadget's

screen determines the amount and the type of the information that can be seen by the receiver (receptive linguistic capacity). Hence, both the sender and the receiver are considered linguistically constrained by the properties of the software and the hardware of the internet that they use. Herring, Stein, and Virtanen (2003) viewed computer-mediated communication (CMC) as a medium characterized by superficial structures such as acronyms, abbreviations, and emoticons because of the affordances and limitations of the properties of the internet and the gadget used in CMC (Crystal, 2011; Kress, 2003, 2010).

As early as mid-1980s, linguists started investigating the linguistic characteristics of internet language (Bieswanger, 2013; Cherny, 1999). One of the fundamental issues they examined is the question on whether internet language complies with writing or speech conventions (Ferrara, Brunner, & Whittemore, 1991; Herring, Stein, & Virtanen, 2013). One of the most respected and pioneering works which investigated the classification question of internet communication is Crystal's (2001) *Language and the Internet*. This book did not only describe the transforming effects of the internet to language; it also gave a comprehensive comparison of internet communication to speech and writing, claiming that internet language showcases the emergence of a new language variety with orthographic, graphic, lexico-grammatical, and discourse features different from speech and writing. Crystal's (2001, 2004) analysis of emails, instant messaging, web sources, chatgroups, blogs, and virtual worlds (i.e., MOOs and MUDS) yielded him proofs that internet talk displays both speech and writing features with its' own unique characteristics that neither speech and writing can accomplish, making Crystal conclude that electronic communication can be considered as a third medium. Adopting a narrower term for this new language variety, Crystal (2001, 2004) termed it *Netspeak*. Other names that have been used to refer to the language communicated electronically include digitalk (Turner et al., 2014), e-talk, e-language, CMC talk, internet talk, and many more. He sounded a call to investigate the language of the internet using different speech situations and large-scale investigations.

Responding to the call of Crystal (2004), empirical studies involving different nationalities across English varieties have been undertaken by scholars who are interested in characterizing the new medium. Using the case of six bilingual students of University of Hongkong, Bodomo (2010) investigated the linguistic features of digital writing in Facebook. He found that shortenings, number homophones (e.g., 2 for too), letter homophones (*t* for tea), character homophones (@ for at), code-mixing, and coined Cantonese Romanizations characterize the texts of bilingual students in Facebook. Time saving, self-expression and convenience were the identified factors for why students communicated the way they did in Facebook.

Focusing on the characteristics of adolescent writing in digital communication and the reasons for their choices when they send text messages and write in their social networking sites, Turner et al. (2014) undertook a mixed-method study involving 81 American adolescents from private and public schools in a metropolitan area in the north eastern United States. They found 17 discourse features that can be considered digitalk; four of those features complied with the conventions of standard written English. The rest of the features were considered non-standard, which includes the following: missing end period, non-standard capitalization, abbreviations, acronyms, use of letters to represent sounds, logograms, missing apostrophe, fragment, non-capitalization of I, run-on, multiple consonants, multiple vowels, ellipses, and compound words. Self-expression, meeting expectations of the audience in a community of practice, and efficient communication were the identified reasons for why teenagers experimented in digital writing that diverges from standard written English.

The description of the linguistic features of internet talk was also investigated from the standpoint of New Englishes which aim at documenting the local forms and structures that have been used as means to expand a particular variety's lexicon and usage of the English language. To investigate the creativity of Malaysian internet English, Hassan and Hashim (2009), who analyzed a 2-million corpus of internet talk by multilingual Malaysians, recruited internet users belonging in different age groups who communicate online via blogs, instant messages, emails, and text messages. Results of their analyses indicated that code-switching, code-mixing, discourse particles, affixed words, newly-coined words, borrowings, abbreviations, acronyms, and blendings abound in Malaysian electronic communication. Hassan and Hassim claimed that abbreviations and acronyms serve as   space-saving devices and indicate membership in a group. Discourse particles have multiple functions; they replace grammatical functions, soften a statement, and emphasize a word or a statement. Borrowings are used for culture or religious concepts and for words that have no English equivalence. Hassan and Hassim concluded that Malaysian electronic communication has a distinct variety which enables the users to communicate in the online community.

Likewise, Gustilo and Dino (in press) argued for the existence of IPE variety used in the internet communication of Filipino netizens which helped substantiate the claim of scholars that Philippines has reached the Stage 4 Endonormative Stabilization status based on Schneider's (2007) categorization of Post-colonial Englishes due to the prevalence of localized forms and structures in its English usage in the new medium. This claim was based on the consolidated findings of their studies on the linguistic features of Filipino internet talk or Filipino digitalk (Gustilo & Dino, 2017a, 2017b). They documented digitalk features through

their study involving six internet genres: Instagram, Facebook, Online Gaming, Edmodo, Twitter, and Blogs. Their study investigated the linguistic features and their functions in the discourse of Filipino internet users from a 500-thousand corpus extracted from the online interaction of 63 Filipinos in different age groups. Their analyses yielded 30 types of different linguistic features. For the word-formation processes used by the internet users in forming their lexicon, the study found acronymy, repetition of letters or words (e.g., *nice nice, missss youuuuu*) compounding, punning, affixation, borrowing, blending, conversion, coinage, capped expression (GO NOW), and transcription of emotions (e.g., *sigh, argh*). In the syntactic level, Gustilo and Dino's (2017a, 2017b) investigations found sentences with no punctuations, elliptical constructions, and grammatical reductions. Apostrophes and end punctuations were not used by many of the users. They also combined punctuations in describing their emotions. In the discourse-pragmatic level, they found discourse particles, emoticons and hashtags. Gustilo and Dino (2017a, 2017b) concluded that Digitalkers used the digitalk features to build solidarity with their interlocutors, transmit information efficiently, add emphasis to their message, and replace the non-verbal cues in face-to-face communication.

In a more thorough analysis of their corpus on Facebook, Dino and Gustilo (2018) focused on the word-formation processes used by Filipino digitalkers in forming transcription of emotions and physical activities, affixation, punning, capped expressions (i.e., words in capital letters), blending, and compounding. They found five types of acronyms: (1) word initials (e.g., *T. Joan* for Teacher Joan), (2) phase initials (e.g., *LOL* for league of legends), (3) phrase initials (e.g, *Idk* for I do not know), (4) syllable shortening (e.g., *Cher* for teacher), and (5) alphanumeric (*2log* for tulog, a Tagalog word for sleep). Dino and Gustilo (2018) also noted non-standard usage of punctuations. Elliptical constructions were formed by using two dots only or with three dots, but they were used in the beginning of the sentence. Contracted words (e.g., *can't* or *won't*) did not have an apostrophe. Asterisk was inserted in the middle of the sentence to signal correction. Combination of punctuation marks (e.g., question mark and interjection) were used as end marks. Ampersand (&) was used in place of the word *and.* Dino and Gustilo (2018) concluded that Filipino digitalk/internet language features should be regarded as indications of hybrid competence which can be viewed as a benefit and can be used as an authentic tool for teaching and language learning.

Attitudes towards Digitalk

Conflicting attitudes have been documented regarding the linguistic revolution in the internet which deviated from the standard rules of written English. One side of the issue refers to some

who express concerns that the increased use of shortened forms, slang, carefree spelling, abused or missing punctuations, and non-grammatical structures in digital writing will soon influence school writing (Lenhart, Arafeh, Smith, & Macgill, 2008), ruin the language, and produce a generation of illiterate students. Many adults who observe the writing of teenagers in digitalk see it as erroneous and degrading (Turner et al., 2014). The other side of the controversy celebrates the language of the internet as enabling, a sign of advanced literacy (Barton, 1994, 2001), an emergence of another language variety (Crystal, 2001), and an additional competence (Gustilo & Dino, 2017a, 2017b). In fact, in the Philippines, it is viewed by some scholars as a sub-variety of Philippine English—Internet Philippine English (IPE)—which is the development of a local variety of English in the Philippines (Gustilo et al., 2019), putting Philippine English in the endonormative stage of Schneider's (2007) model for post-colonial Englishes. The endonormative stage (Stage 4) is characterized by the existence of new language forms, gradual recognition of local forms, and burgeoning of literary creativity using nativized forms of the English language. The present study draws on the second perspective, viewing Filipino digital writing as part of IPE that creatively expands Philippine English words and structures through localized lexicon and structures.

Despite the positive verdict of linguists and scholars on the linguistic revolution happening in the internet, it is necessary that empirical research regarding the attitudes of users towards the conventions of digital writing are investigated and understood (Gorlach, 1995). Attitude studies regarding the acceptability or non-acceptability of words and structures in the Philippine context had been conducted in the early part of the 21st century (Bautista, 2000, 2001, 2011). However, one of the most related studies which informed the methodology of the present study is the investigation of Gustilo and Dimaculangan (2018) who produced a wordlist of Philippine English from a newly-built 500-word corpus representing early 21st century writing in the Philippines. They selected 99 lexical items and presented them to 200 English teachers coming from 15 universities in Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao regions in the country. The English teachers were asked to indicate their attitude regarding the acceptability or non-acceptability of the 99 lexical items in informal writing, formal writing, informal oral communication, and formal oral communication; they were also asked if the lexical items under study were not acceptable at all in all four domains. Gustilo and Dimaculangan's (2018) findings revealed that English teachers have a negative attitude towards Philippine English words. Only five of the 99 lexical items were accepted for formal writing, while two were favored which can be used in informal writing. No lexical item was accepted for formal oral discourse, but 33 were accepted for use in informal oral discourse. Twenty words were considered unacceptable in all four

language domains. Gustilo and Dimaculangan (2018) concluded that many English teachers still lack awareness regarding the existence of Philippine English as an English language variety and that the teachers, acting as watchdogs of standard English, safeguard the formal academic use of English vocabulary by refusing to accept the lexical items that were newly formed or that have meanings that deviated from the meanings associated with the use of native speakers of the English language.

The most recent and relevant investigation on the attitudes of netizens in the local setting for IPE is the study of Gustilo et al., (2019) who analyzed the intelligibility and acceptability of localized lexicon in Philippine English. They identified 47 localized Philippine English lexicon from online celebrity news and subjected these lexical items to intelligibility and acceptability tests using a group of ESL teachers belonging in different age groups from the three major regions of the country: Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao. The acceptability instrument collected the attitudes of the teachers as to whether a word was acceptable in formal writing, informal writing, formal oral discourse, and/or informal oral discourse. A column was also provided that allowed the participants to indicate if the word is not acceptable at all in all four domains. Their findings revealed that all the identified IPE words had been understood by the teachers. The younger generation of ESL teachers were more open to the use of localized lexical items in all four domains.

In spite of the existence of previous research on digitalk, literature on the features and functions of digitalk in the New Englishes and empirical descriptions documenting the attitudes of English teachers towards the non-standard conventions in digitalk remain scant. The motivation for the present study is justified by this gap in research. It draws on the theoretical underpinnings of Crystal (2001, 2004), Turner et al. (2014) and Gustilo et al. (2019). The present study is considered a continuation of the investigation of Gustilo et al. (2019). While the previous study collected the attitudes of Filipino ESL teachers towards IPE lexicon, the present study investigated the ESL teachers' acceptance or rejection of non-standard structures of IPE in terms of their sentence structures, punctuation usage, and other graphic and graphological features that are found in digitalk.

Research questions

The present study aimed at analyzing the written structures found in the discourse of Filipino high school teachers in IPE and the ESL teachers' attitudes towards non-standard usage. The main goal of the present investigation is to seek answers to the following questions:

1. What non-standard conventions are found in the IPE discourse of Filipino high school teachers? What are their functions?

2. What types of sentences are found in the IPE discourse of Filipino high school teachers?

3. What are the attitudes of Filipino high school ESL teachers regarding the non-standard conventions of digital writing in IPE?

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilizes descriptive research design. As descriptive research aims at documenting the 'what is' or characteristics of the variables that are being investigated (Knupfer & McLellan, 1996), the present study describes the features, non-standard conventions, and the attitudes of high school ESL teachers towards non-standard writing in IPE, making use of both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data are needed in order to describe the types or categories of non-standard conventions and sentence structures. Quantitative data, such as the frequencies of non-standard conventions and percentages of sentence structures and acceptability test results, were provided in order to quantify the claims made in the qualitative analysis.

Participants of the Study

Two sets of participants were recruited for the study. The first set of respondents provided the corpus for text analysis. They are Filipino high school teachers from different parts of the Philippines who belong in the younger generation. All the 15 teacher participants (12 females and 3 males) were 21-25 years old at the time of data gathering. The choice of the younger generation is influenced by previous findings indicating that the younger generation are the most active users of social media (Dino & Gustilo, 2017). They teach varied subjects in junior and senior high school divisions in their respective schools. Because certain criteria have to be met in the selection of respondents, purposive sampling was utilized. First, all participants must declare at least two social media that they use most frequently. Then their activeness (length of hours spent every day) in these social media was considered. Finally, for them to be included in the sampling, they must have regular posts written in English from 2016 to 2017 which, in total, consisted of about 1,000 words per account.

To secure the privacy and the confidentiality of the respondent's identity, a coding system was devised by the researchers in storing the participants' posts from their Facebook and Twitter accounts, as shown below:

[Facebook Participant_1FB_FT1]

[Twitter Participant_ 1TWEET_MT1]

In the given code, the terms 'FB' and 'TWEET' were particularly used to distinguish the posts analyzed from the two social media platforms. The first numerical value assigned before the said terms indicates the number of the participant to facilitate consistent storing and analysis of data. The letters 'F' and 'M' indicate the gender of the respondent. The letter 'T' represents the designation of the participants as teachers. Lastly, the number on the end part of the code represents the time spent by the participants in using the social media. The following is the legend used for the time allotment of the respondents in social media:

   1 – 1-5 hours a day

   2 – 6-10 hours a day

   3 – 11 and above hours a day

The codes were particularly used to protect the identity of the participants and to secure effective organization of the extracted data from the participants' accounts.

The second set of participants were recruited for the language attitude test. They are 25 Filipino high school ESL teachers (16 females and 9 males) from different parts of the Philippines. They were 20-30 years old at the time of data gathering. Again, the choice of a younger generation is influenced by our intention to validate the findings of Gustilo et al. (2019) that the younger generation is more accepting of non-standard writing. They teach English communication courses (e.g., reading, writing, oral communication) and English research subjects in high school. The decision to employ only English language teachers in the present attitude test was informed by the methods used in previous studies. The motivation for this is that English teachers have been considered the gatekeepers in preserving the structures of standard Philippine English (Bautista, 2001; Gustilo & Dimaculangan, 2018; Gustilo et al, 2019).

Datasets and Data Collection Procedure

The present study employed two datasets: (1) the 30,000-word corpus utilized for the text analysis of the features and conventions of digital writing collected from 15 Filipino high school teachers, and (2) perception data collected from 25 Filipino high school ESL teachers who participated in the attitude test.

The first dataset was collected with permission from the tweets and statuses of 15 high school teachers on Twitter and on Facebook over a period of one year (i.e., 2016-2017). The choice of Facebook and Twitter was based on the survey conducted among the participants that these two social networking sights (SNS) have been their most-frequently used sites. In

addition, these social media reflect spontaneous productions of language speakers who are not restricted by any specific topics (Herdagdelen & Marelli, 2015).

Initially, an online survey was sent to 50 high school teachers to determine their most frequently used social media platforms and their time spent in these social media. Twitter and Facebook emerged as the most-frequently used accounts of the initial respondents. The researchers then selected 15 participants who have been active on both Twitter and Facebook and sought their permission through a consent letter sent to them. Upon the participants' approval, the researchers started collecting their posts and statuses for compilation. All the tweets and statuses of each participant were compiled in a single word file. There were about 1,000 words extracted from each of the 15 participants' social networking site, yielding a total of about 30,000 words of textual data for analysis. These collected posts constitute the first dataset utilized for text analysis in the present study.

The second dataset, which is a perception data on the attitudes of high school ESL teachers, was collected using a modified survey questionnaire adapted from Dimaculangan's (2017) attitude test on Philippine English lexicon by Filipino English teachers. Instead of using vocabulary items in the attitude test, the researchers used the non-standard orthographic and grammatical items found in the first dataset. The researchers coded each instance of non-standard usage of punctuation, spelling, capitalization, sentence structures, and other items found only in digital writing (e.g., emoticons, emojis). Then the researchers selected only the non-standard forms used by all participants across two texts. Examples of the non-standard forms were placed in the attitude test instrument which was administered to the 25 participants of the language attitude test. Both online and face-to-face administration of the survey were used. Those who preferred to do it online were given access to Google forms that the researchers made available online. The responses of each participant were consolidated and tabulated in an Excel file.

Instruments

Two questionnaires were prepared for the present study. The first questionnaire, which was sent to 50 high school teachers, asked the respondents' consent and their demographic information such as email, name, affiliation, designation, language at home, age, gender, number of hours spent in social media, and social media platforms used (See Appendix B). The second questionnaire which was modified from Dimaculangan's (2017) attitude test contains 20 non-standard conventions in digital writing which were extracted from the written corpus of tweets and statuses of the participants. The respondents were asked to decide whether these digital

writing conventions are acceptable in formal or informal writing, or totally unacceptable in Philippine English (See Appendix C). The present study did not include the acceptability/non-acceptability of the non-standard conventions in informal and informal discourse, which Dimaculangan (2017) included in her study, because many of the items under investigation are not applicable to oral discourse (e.g., the use of punctuations, spelling errors, etc.).

Data Analysis Procedure

From the printed texts, the researchers identified and highlighted instances of non-standard usage of vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, capitalization, sentence structure, and other features that are only found in digital writing such as the use of emoticons and symbols. Following Crystal's (2001) four of the five types of distinctive features for written language, the researchers then classified the structures that diverged from standard written academic English into lexical (e.g., *adulting, info*), grammatical/syntactic (e.g., *Can't sleep. Am tired.*), graphic (use of emoticons and other illustrative symbols such as ✍💬☺), and orthographic/graphological features (e.g., emphasis such as italics, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation such as *Cubee, THIS IS AWESOME, meeeeepreeeaaaaccchhhhh!*). To decide whether a feature is a convention, the researchers drew on Turner et al.'s (2014) guidelines in analyzing digitalk conventions: (1) a feature should be found across two texts (i.e., in tweets and statuses), and (2) it should be used by all participants. The researchers found 20 conventions that are present in all the tweets and statuses of all the participants. These 20 conventions were used as the items in the attitude test.

Then the analysis on sentence/non-sentence structures started with the identification of sentences and non-sentences through manual identification and with the aid of a sentence parsing program called *ZZCad Parsing Sentence Program*. This program was used to confirm if the string of words is a phrase or a sentence.

The sentences were further analyzed according to the types of sentences: simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex sentence, following Quirk, Greenbaum, Svartyik, and Leech's (2010) framework. After categorizing the structures, the frequencies of non-sentence and sentences according to type were counted and tabulated.

The attitudes of ESL teachers towards the 20 conventions in digital writing were determined by using frequency counts and percentages. The respondents' votes for each convention which they rated as either acceptable or unacceptable in formal or informal writing or totally unacceptable in Philippine English were counted and tabulated. Following the

methodology of Dimaculangan (2017), the non-standard conventions were considered acceptable if 50 percent of the total respondents (N=25) voted for their acceptability.

Results and Discussion

Non-standard conventions in Filipino ESL Teachers' Digital writing in IPE

Results of our text analysis showed 20 non-standard conventions used by all participants in both their FB statuses and Twitter tweets: (a) ellipses, (b) multiple punctuations at the end of a sentence, (c) emoticons, (d) repetition of letters, (e) coordinating conjunctions starting a sentence, (f) capitalization, (g) repetition of words, (h) contractions, (i) shortening or clipping of words, (j) subject-less sentences, (k) discourse particles/transcription of laughter, (l) single-word sentence, (m) phrasal sentence, (n) fragment sentence, and (o) inter-sentential and intra-sentential code switching. Of the twenty conventions, 45% were classified as orthographic; it corroborates Turner et al.'s (2014) findings that non-standard orthographic conventions/features or manipulations in spelling, capitalization, and punctuation dominate digital writing.

Table 1 presents the 20 non-standard conventions across two social media which are common to all 15 participants and their examples.

Table 1

Conventions in Filipino digital writing in IPE

Non-standard conventions	Examples (extracted from the corpus)
1. The use of ellipses to start a new idea within the utterance.	*You are careful...I have a new plan...Change is coming.*
2. The use of ellipses in the beginning of the utterance to show there are unwritten thoughts.	*.... Are you aware of it?*
3. The use of ellipses instead of a period at the end of an utterance to show non-closure.	*Bye for now...*
4. The use of ellipses in the middle of a sentence to show long pauses in the utterance.	*I can't seem to decide yet...let me see tomorrow.*
5. The use of multiple punctuation marks to show emphasis of idea.	*Are you here????*
6. The use of two types of punctuation marks at the end of a sentence to show suprasegmental features.	*He is pregnant??!!!???!!!*
7. The use of emoticons instead of punctuation marks to show the feelings of a person.	*Thank you very much for the help* ☺
8. The use of emoticons in the middle of the sentence or between sentences to show the suggested emotion of the speaker.	*Been super proud of you since day 1* 👏👏💚 *Keep that up.*
9. Repetition of letters in the sentence to show emphasis and suprasegmental features.	*Let meeeeepreeeaaaaccchhhhh!*
10. Sentence starting with conjunctions.	*And you need a bow and a practice time.*
11. The use of all-caps in the entire sentence or within a word.	*THIS IS AWESOME.* *Cubee was my CuBAE in kindergarten.*
12. Repetition of words to show emphasis within the utterance.	*Don't quit. Don't quit.* *Nice, nice.*
13. Contraction of some words within the sentence to show informality.	*No you don't.*
14. Shortening/Abbreviation of words to show informality.	*Give me the info about the person.*
15. Omission of the subject in a sentence to show informality.	*Can't sleep. Am very tired.*
16. Use of discourse particles such as transcription of laughter 'hahaha' in the sentence.	*I do not mean to hurt you... hahaha.... I will make up.*
17. The use of a single-word sentence to show informality and quick response.	*Adulting.*
18. Phrasal utterances as sentences to show informality.	*Cool glasses!*
19. Fragment sentence to show informality.	*When I am in the middle of something.*
20. Use of code-switching in sentences	*Are you aware <u>na ang ibang tao</u> (Translation: that some people) are stressed because of you?*

Confirming the results of previous studies, the present study affirms that the non-standard usage of Filipino high school teachers in IPE were for purposes of self-expression. On the whole, the teacher respondents in this present study appeared to have used non-standard structures in their social media account in order to freely express their opinions, feelings and ideas. The social media seemed to be a tool for teachers to engage with their friends rather than a tool for student-teacher interactions in a formal learning environment. In addition, due to the limitations of the physical characteristics of the medium being used (i.e., computer or gadgets), the teacher participants used non-standard writing for efficiency sake. The non-standard language usage and other digitalk conventions (e.g. emojis and other visual characters) helped the participants to deliver their intended message despite the language constraints in CMC.

Non-sentence/Sentence Structures

Using manual counting, *Count Wordsworth, and ZZCad Parsing Sentence Program,* our analysis reveals that out of 30,000 words and 3,595 generated utterances from the written dataset collected from 15 teachers, a total of 2,253 or 63% of the syntactic structures were constructed as non-sentences, while 1,342 or 37% were written in complete sentence forms. The sentences collected were further classified into the different types of sentences (refer to Table 2).

As can be seen in Table 2, all participants across the two social media produced both sentence (37%) and non-sentence structures (63%). However, it is in Facebook in which they produced most of the non-sentence structures as 33% of their structures are in this form. In the corpus collected, it has been observed that the compiled non-sentences are composed of one-word, phrasal and fragment sentences.

It can be deduced from the present results that the participants preferred fragment structures rather than completing them using the basic elements of a sentence (Subject, Verb, Object). This finding is consistent with the results of previous studies that netizens favor the informal conventions of writing in CMC to build virtual in-group community solidarity (Bodomo, 2010; Turner et al., 2014). Regardless of the participants' profession being teachers, they manifested the use of the said language conventions (Crystal, 2004; Danet, 2001; Werry, 1996) to better connect with other people and to fit in the e-community. However, this same finding also challenges the findings of Turner et al. (2014) who revealed that the American teenagers in their study appeared to have broken the stereotypes associated with digital writing as majority of them wrote in complete sentences in their social media. Future investigations involving different sets of participants may prove beneficial in confirming or challenging these conflicting findings.

Table 2

Non-Sentence and Sentence Structures in IPE by Filipino Teachers

Participant	Non-sentence			Sentence			Total
	FB	Tweet	(NS)	FB	Tweet	(S)	
1FB_FT1	123	103	226	21	34	55	285
2FB_FT1	26	41	67	42	39	81	164
3FB_FT1	82	94	176	33	65	98	297
4FB_FT1	40	50	90	47	91	138	244
5FB_MT1	62	40	102	51	71	122	232
6FB_FT1	172	96	268	21	54	75	385
7FB_FT1	131	80	211	17	39	56	274
8FB_FT1	75	83	158	15	25	40	203
9FB_FT1	86	111	197	16	49	65	265
10FB_FT1	48	58	106	18	46	64	203
11FB_MT1	64	105	169	67	91	158	299
12FB_FT1	54	55	109	26	54	80	202
13FB_FT1	108	62	170	35	66	101	295
14FB_FT1	63	29	92	30	70	100	203
15FB_FT1	41	71	112	58	51	109	266
TOTAL:	1175	1078	2253	497	845	1342	3595
Raw (%)	(33%)	(30%)	(63%)	(14%)	(23%)	(37%)	100

The next stage of the analysis yielded frequencies of the four types of sentences, which are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Types of Sentences in Digital Writing in IPE

Participant	SIMPLE		COMPOUND		COMPLEX		COMPOUND-COMPLEX	
	FB	T	FB	T	FB	T	FB	T
1FB_FT1	15	28	3	1	1	5	2	0
2FB_FT1	29	14	3	2	10	20	0	3
3FB_FT1	23	51	4	5	6	7	0	2
4FB_FT1	34	73	8	7	4	10	1	1
5FB_MT1	39	47	3	5	6	17	3	2
6FB_FT1	15	43	0	3	2	6	4	2
7FB_FT1	11	35	3	3	3	1	0	0
8FB_FT1	7	19	3	2	2	4	3	0
9FB_FT1	8	44	1	3	6	2	1	0
10FB_FT1	11	35	2	4	4	6	1	1
11FB_MT1	54	79	6	3	7	9	0	0
12FB_FT1	17	40	1	3	5	11	3	0
13FB_FT1	29	52	4	10	0	4	2	0
14FB_FT1	23	48	2	6	5	15	0	1
15FB_FT1	38	35	6	6	8	9	6	1
Total Frequency	353	643	49	63	69	126	26	13
Percentage per sentence type (Frequency divided by 1,342 x 100)	74%		8.5%		14.5%		2.9%	

As can be seen in Table 3, majority of the participants produced almost all types of sentences across two social media. However, 74% of their written sentences were expressed in simple sentence. All the participants very rarely used the compound-complex sentence. This finding may be attributed to the constraints in the said platforms and intentions of the users. As Crystal (2004) claimed, shortcuts which include fewer strokes became a practice among internet users to immediately respond to the virtual conversation they are engaged in.

Examples from the corpus are shown below. The statuses, which were written in simple sentence construction, vary from having a simple subject and a simple predicate and having a simple subject and compound predicate.

[1] Simple subject and simple predicate:

5FB_MT1: *He writes me.*

5TWEET_MT1: *This laptop creates wonders.*

[2] Simple subject and compound predicate:

11FB_FT1: *Marissa writes and publishes for that company.*

7TWEET_FT1: *I will go to school and check papers.*

It is also observed that some of the posts written in simple sentence construction start with the conjunction *And*.

6TWEET_FT1: *And I try to say what's on my mind.*

1FB_FT1: *And you need a bow and practice time.*

In terms of compound sentence structure, almost nine percent of the written sentences were written in this form. Below are the example sentences from both *Twitter* and *Facebook*:

1FB_FT1: *The spirit is willing, but the flesh is weak.*

2FB_FT1: *She will go to Singapore, or she will decide to stay.*

3FB_FT1: *I love you, and I'll wait for you.*

8TWEET_FT1: *She asked me if I was working, and I said "Yes, I did."*

9TWEET_FT1: *We're growing, but we're growing apart.*

Moreover, complex sentences constitute almost 15% of the total sentence structures. Complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses (Quirk et al., 2010). The following are examples of complex sentences found in the corpus:

14FB_FT1: *If it all goes wrong, darling justhold on.*

13FB_FT1: *The characters are really playing quite an epic game because of their politicking and battle strategizing.*

8TWEET_FT1: *When you meet me, you will know that you are complete.*

9TWEET_FT1: *I survived because the fire inside me burned brighter than the fire around me.*

Compound-complex sentences, the least of all sentence forms in the corpus, were also observed from the posts of the respondents. This type of sentence is characterized by having both a complex sentence and a compound sentence. Examples are as follows:

4FB_FT1: *I wonder…if it's you reminding me, I am here, and I am loved.*

2TWEET_FT1: *I'm a people pleaser, and I've always had a hard time hearing when someone didn't like me.*

Teachers' Attitude towards Non-standard Digitalk structures in IPE

The attitude test was administered by using a language-attitude questionnaire which was based on the instrument of Dimaculangan (2017) on the acceptability of Philippine lexicon. The researchers used the 20 identified non-standard conventions extracted from the gathered corpus.

The attitude test has three columns opposite the items for the respondents to indicate their acceptance or non-acceptance of the given conventions (see Appendix A for the results).

Following the methodology of Dimaculangan (2017), the non-standard conventions were considered acceptable if 50 percent of the total respondents (N=25) voted for their acceptability. As seen in Appendix A, majority of the respondents accepted all the 20 non-standard conventions in informal writing. None of the non-standard conventions were accepted for formal writing by 50% of the respondents. Only 20% of the respondents favoured the use of fragment sentences in formal writing, and only 36% favored the use of conjunctions in the beginning of sentences. Very few respondents indicated that the non-standard conventions are totally unacceptable in both informal and formal writing in the Philippine context.

The present study contradicts the findings of Gustilo et al. (2019) on the acceptability of 47 localized IPE words by ESL teachers in their study. To recall, the younger age-group in their study were more accepting of the localized, non-standard usage of IPE lexicon as some of the words which they subjected to acceptability were accepted in all four domains including formal writing. In the present study, all the identified non-standard conventions were deemed unacceptable in formal writing by ESL teachers. In addition, the results of the present analysis both corroborate and challenge the findings of Gustilo and Dimaculangan (2018) on the attitudes of Filipino English teachers towards Philippine English words. To recall, in their study, the Filipino English teachers did not welcome the use of the majority of the words in their wordlist for formal writing and informal writing. In the present study, not a single non-standard convention was accepted by 50% of the respondents in formal writing, but all 20 items were accepted in informal written context. A follow-up investigation is necessary in order to provide more understanding regarding these conflicting findings. What is clear, however, is that both previous (Gustilo et al., 2019) and present findings seem to suggest that there is a gradual welcoming attitude that is being developed among the younger generation of ESL teachers regarding the use of these non-standard forms in different domains of language.

Conclusion

To summarize, the present study has established that technology has definitely changed the way people use and produce the language in the internet resulting in a linguistic revolution that diverged from the established standard conventions for writing. This new way of communicating has divided the users into two schools of thought: (1) those who view that digital writing is a representation of deteriorating literacy, and (2) those who view that internet language is a new variety of language with its distinctive graphic, orthographic, grammatical,

lexical, and discourse features, representing advanced literacy among its users. The present study allies with the latter school of thought, viewing the non-standard conventions in Filipino digitalk as part of the lexical and structural creativities in IPE, corroborating the claims of previous research regarding the continuous expansion of Philippine English through the user's literary creativity and validating the claim that Philippine English is now in the beginning stage of endonormative stabilization or stage 4 of Schneider's (2007) *Dynamic Model for Post-colonial Englishes*.

However, the emergence of literary creativity or use of new local forms is not the only measure of the development or independence of a certain post-colonial English variety. The level or extent of the acceptability of these forms within the speech community is another gauge. Hence, the present study went beyond describing the non-standard forms by ascertaining the level of acceptability of the Filipino ESL teachers who are considered as gatekeepers of the usage of standard Philippine English. Although the ESL teachers use these non-standard conventions in digital writing, they still draw a line between the language used in informal writing and formal academic writing. It is apparent in the present findings that ESL teachers view the non-standard, localized conventions as acceptable primarily for informal contexts only. Generally, it is safe to tentatively claim that the ESL teachers of the present study still continue their roles as gatekeepers of the standard usage of the English language despite their prevalent use of these emerging structures in the internet. They are creative in their use of language; however, they are aware that these forms have to be confined to the limits of informal discourse and digital writing.

In addition, the findings of the present study attest to the advanced literacy of the participants—a type of competence that combines the conventions of both spoken and written speech situations in order to overcome the limitations of virtual communication, to serve relational goals with their readers, and to show fluency in the use of language in CMC. This kind of competence is needed as a teaching-learning resource in the academic context as students are presented with types of authentic discourses produced in different domains of language use.

Despite the restrictions imposed on the limited corpus, being small in size, still the present study was able to make important contributions in Filipino Digitalk and IPE because an empirical description of the non-standard orthographic and grammatical aspects of IPE and the attitudes of ESL teachers towards these forms had not been made prior to the present study. In addition, based on the review of literature and findings, the present study has suggestions for both ESL and EFL teaching and future research. First, the present analysis has established that

the most common type of sentence in the present corpus written by English language teachers is a simple sentence--meaning these are short sentences, lacking syntactic complexity, which is one of the characteristics associated with mature writing. Hence, it might prove beneficial if English language teachers could assess their own writing outputs, language teaching practices, and lesson content in order for them to see if they are producing mature writers or not in terms of syntactic complexity. Measures of syntactic complexity could be incorporated in a language syllabus which can be taught by teachers according to the different proficiency levels of their students. Moreover, instead of devaluing digitalk for fear that its conventions could diffuse into academic writing and undermine its formal characteristics, language teachers could bring digitalk into the classroom. They could utilize the non-standard forms as authentic materials in creating awareness among learners regarding the distinctives of spoken language, written language, and netspeak which blurs the gap between spoken and written conventions. In addition, using advanced corpus-linguistic approaches or simple observation, English language teachers could look for patterns of non-standard usage in digital writing and prioritize the instruction of the standard forms and functions of these language items in academic setting. More importantly, instead of viewing digitalk as a deficient language, English language teachers could start viewing it as a by-product of an additional linguistic competence that enables writers to make conscious choices in the efficient use of language that reflects the conventions used by communities of practice. By adopting such view, language instruction could incorporate strategies that motivate students to use their knowledge of self-expression, purpose, audience, and voice (Turner et al., 2014) in digitalk in developing their 21st century language skills.

As regards implications for future research, it is recommended that a larger corpus be collected in order to investigate other syntactic structures which have not been covered in this study. Such investigation can document the expansion of localized forms and structures that have been created by writers in the New Englishes. A cross-cultural examination of digitalk structures in different Englishes and the attitudes of users towards these structures will prove beneficial in understanding the development of new English varieties facilitated by internet language. Finally, an investigation focusing on how English language teachers utilize digitalk and digital writing strategies as authentic and supplemental resources in teaching academic discourse could increase our understanding of the link between digitalk and other norms of language usage.

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Appendices

Appendix A. English Teachers' Attitude Towards Non-standard Conventions in Filipino Digital Writing in IPE

List of non-standard conventions and their examples	Acceptable in informal written text (blogs, texting, messenger chats, FB posts, tweets, etc.)	Acceptable in formal written text (thesis, reports, academic outputs)	Totally unacceptable in Philippine context both in informal and formal writing
1. The use of ellipses to start a new idea within the utterance. *You are careful…I have a new plan…Change is coming.*	24	1	0
2. The use of ellipses in the beginning of the utterance. *…. Are you aware of it?*	23	1	1
3. The use of ellipses instead of a period at the end of an utterance. *Bye for now…*	19	3	3
4. The use of ellipses in the middle of a sentence to show long pauses in the utterance. *I can't seem to decide yet……..let me see tomorrow.*	22	2	1
5. The use of multiple punctuation marks to show emphasis of idea. *Are you here????*	23	0	2
6. The use of two types of punctuation marks at the end of a sentence. *He is pregnant??!!!???!!!*	23	0	2
7. The use of emoticons instead of punctuation marks to end the sentence. *Thank you very much for the help*	22	1	2
8. The use of emoticons in the middle of the sentence to show the suggested emotion of the speaker. *Been super proud of you since day 1 🖐✌❤ Keep that up.*	21	0	4
9. Repetition of letters in the sentence. *Let meeeee preeeaaaaccchhhhh!*	24	0	1
10. Sentence starting with conjunctions such as *and, but, so, when, because.* *And you need a bow and a practice time.*	15	9	1
11. The use of all-caps or irregular capitalization. *THIS IS AWESOME.* *Cubee was my CuBAE in kindergarten.*	22	2	1
12. Repetition of words to show emphasis within the utterance.	23	1	1

Don't quit. Don't quit.

Nice, nice.

13. Contraction of some words within the sentence. *No you don't.*	21	4	0
14. Shortening/Abbreviation of words *Give me the info about the person.*	21	0	4
15. Omission of the subject in a sentence. *Can't sleep. Am very tired.*	24	1	0
16. Expressions such as 'hahaha' in the sentence. *I do not mean to hurt you… hahaha…. I will make up.*	24	0	1
17. The use of a single-word sentence. *Adulting.*	21	4	0
18. Phrasal utterances considered as sentences. *Cool glasses!*	18	4	3
19. Fragment sentence *When I am in the middle of something.*	17	5	3
20. Use of code-switching in sentences. *Are you aware na ang ibang tao are stressed because of you?* *Translation: Are you aware that some people are stressed because of you?*	24	0	1

Appendix B. Initial survey sent to 50 respondents

Dear Respondents,

We intend to investigate the conventions of Internet Philippine English as used in the different social media platforms such as *Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Emails,* and *Edmodo* by initially building a corpus of 500,000 words from the Filipino internet interactions of both students and members of the academe. Hence, this study would not be possible without your help.

We are hoping for your utmost consideration in giving us your PERMISSION to include your private/public posts on the said social media platforms to our collection.

Should you allow us, we assure you that your PRIVATE/ PUBLIC POSTS will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Your photos will not be included in the data and your name will be changed into a respondent code.

We look forward to receiving your positive feedback. Thank you and God bless you!

Encircle the letter of the item that applies to you.

Part I			

Designation:
 	
  a.   Student
  b.   Teacher
	Language at home:
	
	  a. Filipino
	  b. English
		Age:
		
		  a. 15-25 c. 26-30
		  b. 31-50 d. 51-up
			Gender:
			
			  a. Male
			  b. Female

PART II			

How many hours do you spend in social media?
 	
  a.   1-5 hours a day
  b.   6-10 hours a day
  c.   11 hours and above
		What social media platforms do you use?
		
		Specify your username on the said accounts.
		
		  a. Facebook
		  b. Twitter
		  c. Instagram
		  d. Emails
		  e. Edmodo	

Please express your agreement that we could include your posts in your social media in our research data by signing your signature below:

_____
Name and Signature

Appendix C. Language Attitude Test

Dear Respondents,

Please express your attitude towards the non-standard conventions in digital writing. Three columns are presented to you opposite the conventions. Indicate if the convention is acceptable in informal written context and/or formal written context. Tick the third column if the convention is not acceptable in both informal and formal written context.

List of non-standard conventions and their examples	Acceptable in informal written text (blogs, texting, messenger chats, FB posts, tweets, etc.)	Acceptable in formal written text (thesis, reports, academic outputs)	Totally unacceptable in Philippine context both in informal and formal writing
1. The use of ellipses to start a new idea within the utterance. *You are careful…I have a new plan…Change is coming.*			
2. The use of ellipses in the beginning of the utterance. *…. Are you aware of it?*			
3. The use of ellipses instead of a period at the end of an utterance. *Bye for now…*			
4. The use of ellipses in the middle of a sentence to show long pauses in the utterance. *I can't seem to decide yet……..let me see tomorrow.*			
5. The use of multiple punctuation marks to show emphasis of idea. *Are you here????*			
6. The use of two types of punctuation marks at the end of a sentence. *He is pregnant??!!!???!!!*			
7. The use of emoticons instead of punctuation marks to end the sentence. *Thank you very much for the help*			
8. The use of emoticons in the middle of the sentence to show the suggested emotion of the speaker. *Been super proud of you since day 1 🫶💜 Keep that up.*			
9. Repetition of letters in the sentence. *Let meeeee preeeeaaaaccchhhhh!*			
10. Sentence starting with conjunctions such as *and, but, so, when, because.*			

And you need a bow and a practice time.			
11. The use of all-caps or irregular capitalization.			
THIS IS AWESOME.			
Cubee was my CuBAE in kindergarten.			
12. Repetition of words to show emphasis within the utterance.			
Don't quit. Don't quit.			
Nice, nice.			
13. Contraction of some words within the sentence.			
No you don't.			
14. Shortening/Abbreviation of words			
Give me the info about the person.			
15. Omission of the subject in a sentence.			
Can't sleep. Am very tired.			
16. Expressions such as 'hahaha' in the sentence.			
I do not mean to hurt you… hahaha…. I will make up.			
17. The use of a single-word sentence.			
Adulting.			
18. Phrasal utterances considered as sentences.			
Cool glasses!			
19. Fragment sentence			
When I am in the middle of something.			
20. Use of code-switching in sentences.			
Are you aware na ang ibang tao are stressed because of you?			
Translation: Are you aware that some people are stressed because of you?			

The effects of communication strategies instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' willingness to communicate

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Abstract

This quasi-experimental study investigated the differential effects of Communication Strategies (CSs) instruction on Iranian Intermediate EFL students' Willingness to Communicate (WTC). Through a purposive sampling from a pool of 245 participants, 67 Intermediate EFL learners were randomly placed in the experimental (n = 36) and control groups (n = 31). Both groups attended two preparatory sessions, two discussion sessions as the pretest, and two discussion sessions as the posttest and all sessions were audio/video recorded and observed. During five treatment sessions, the experimental group received the explicit instruction of CSs. The control group, however, received no treatment instead they followed their regular EFL curriculum. The results

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revealed that the amount of participants' speaking time or WTC and taking turns in speech for the experimental group were significantly higher than the control group. The teacher's immediacy behaviors as a moderating variable in this study was not confirmed. The Interactional and Indirect types of CSs were identified as the most frequent and useful strategies applied and perceived by the participants in the experimental group. A number of interrelated facilitative or inhibitive factors that affected participants' WTC including contextual, individual, and communicative competence factors or what can be referred to as "Tree-gyrate" model in the present study, were also identified through stimulated-recall interviews of the experimental group.

Introduction

Willingness to Communicate (WTC), which has recently attracted much attention from research into L2 communication, has been explained as the probability that a person will decide to communicate when free to do so (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). Many English learners are motivated to learn a language or proficient at language use remain silent and do not initiate or engage in communication when they are free to do so. In contrast, many others with less English language skills use their language and actively engage in communication. WTC is generally accepted in the literature as the construct to account for such ambivalence on the part of L2 learning (Bernales, 2016; Cao, 2011; MacIntyre, 2007; Zarrinabadi, 2014).

Given the fact that communication and language use have received considerable interest within Second Language (L2) teaching and learning in the past decade (e.g., Bernales, 2016; Cao, 2011) as necessary goals of L2 learning, WTC is considered a crucial concept in L2 teaching and learning. This is further emphasized by Ellis (2003) that if students do not use language, they may not be able to obtain necessary skills in order to communicate successfully. WTC in MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) definition was conceptualized as "a readiness to enter into a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using a L2" (p. 547) or "an individual's general personality orientation towards talking" (p.188) that is concerned with communication among two persons and the amount of communication they want to get involved with (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987). In this study, WTC is associated with not only initiating communication, but also sustaining communication.

English teachers commonly attribute students' unwillingness to communicate to their reluctance to take the risk of using what they have learnt but instead they just try to respond

spontaneously to their teachers when they are questioned. This is also because students have little linguistic resources, interaction skills, and needed communication strategies (CSs) to make themselves understood which leads to their inability in maintaining communication for an extended period of time which results in their unwillingness to communicate. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) defined CS as "a conscious technique used to achieve a goal" (1997, pp. 184–185). In other words, students are aware of the communication breakdowns and they use CSs to try to convey meaning and mutually understand their interlocutors what Canale and Swain (1980) called strategic competence. Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) CSs categories are of much interest in the present study. They grouped CSs into "direct", "interactional" and "indirect" strategies. There is a sense of hope that CSs will help EFL students to develop some WTC and a sense of self-perceived communication competence or at least be able to do something with what they have learnt so as to convey their intended meanings in an appropriate way. However, the role of verbal and non-verbal teacher immediacy behaviors which are referred to as physical and psychological closeness between people (Witt, Wheeless, & Allen, 2004) cannot be neglected and it is taken into consideration in this study as a variable that may moderate the effects of CSs on participants' WTC.

Willingness to communicate (WTC)

Primarily, a growing body of research on WTC come along with two conceptual clarifications in this area: trait-like and dynamic situational conceptualizations, each representing different perspectives (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). The trait-like conceptualization (e.g., individual variables such as learners' personality, inter-group relations) represents stable broad and typical patterns of long-lasting traits that continue across contexts. Regarding this conceptualization, some investigations have been conducted on the effect of an individual's factors on WTC (e.g., Cetinkaya, 2005; MacIntyre, 1994; Yashima, 2002). For example, Cetinkaya (2005) found that extroverted students compared to introverted ones who perceived themselves as being highly competent in communication led to an increased WTC. Many other factors, as well, have been identified in literature to predict WTC directly or indirectly including learners' motivation and the way learners perceive themselves as being competent communicatively (Hashimoto, 2002), learners' attitudes and perceptions (Yashima, 2002), and learners' anxiety in communication (Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003).

MacIntyre (2007), in relation to their previous WTC model (1998), suggested a new perspective - dynamic situational conceptualization - regarding L2 WTC, claiming that students WTC fluctuates rapidly with the situation. Therefore, MacIntyre et al. (1998) developed a six-

layered pyramid model of WTC in L2 by considering linguistic, social psychological, and communicative factors. Thus, in the dynamic situational conceptualization, as postulated by MacIntyre (2007), the focus is on the concepts that are determined over time and are grown within a context. Given this dynamic situational view, it is believed that the dynamic and non-linear processes of WTC fluctuates and dynamically changes over time and emerges through the interdependence between internal and external factors (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001) such as mood, physiological variables (e.g., arousal levels or capacity and mental factors available to an individual that helps or prevents an individual from performing well), environmental conditions (e.g., the presence of recording equipment), and many other factors.

In the literature, several studies have been conducted to further explain the predictors of WTC such as positive relationship between participants' WTC and their emotional intelligence level (Alavinia & Agha Alikhani, 2014), L2 self-confidence and attitudes towards the international community as predictors of WTC (Ghonsooly, Khajavi, & Asadpour, 2012), classroom environment and communication confidence as direct predictors of WTC (Khajavi, Ghonsooly, Hosseini Fatemi, & Choi, 2016), and openness to experience and extraversion as the main predictors of L2 WTC (Khany & Mansouri Nejad, 2016).

The present study also considers a dynamic approach to studying changes in WTC, i.e. it examines the participant's own rationale for the changes that occur from moment-to-moment by recording participants' communications and playing back, reviewing the recording and discussing the reasons for fluctuations in WTC by participants.

Communication strategies (CSs)

Some studies indicated a correlation between students' proficiency levels and their CSs use (e.g., Al Alawi, 2016; Maldonado, 2016; Tajjedin & Alemi, 2010). As those studies confirmed, less proficient learners who have a relatively small number of linguistic resources available tend to use a higher number of CSs. More proficient learners, on the other hand, do not seem to exploit CSs due to their extended linguistic repertoire. The context of use and task types also influence learners' use of CSs (Shih, 2014). However, many researchers (e.g., Alibakhshi, 2011; Cervantes, Carmen, & Rodriguez, 2012; Dörnyei, 1995, Ellis, 2003) advocate the effectiveness of teaching CSs in developing strategic competence or learners' proficiency in using CSs. For example, Dörnyei (1995) advocated a direct approach to CSs teaching and emphasized its effects on awareness-raising tasks. He considered CSs teaching in a broader

sense and argued that it was "teaching L2 reading skills to learners who can already read in their L1" (1995, p. 63).

Most of the existing research have been related only with identifying and classifying CSs, rather than studying their value as relevant tools to improve students' WTC. Of these rare studies examining CSs effects can be made reference to Saeidi and Ebrahimi Farshchi (2015) who investigated CSs teaching effects on learners' oral production or to Abdi and Varzandeh (2014) who examined learners' perceptions towards direct teaching of CSs. Furthermore, very little attention has been directed towards the effects of CSs on learners' WTC and little is known about learners' own accounts and perceptions about it and the role of teacher's immediacy moderation. Therefore, this study can be of much help in filling existing research gaps in the literature.

The current study

This study investigates the effects of CSs instruction on Intermediate EFL students' WTC based on their amount of speaking time on allocated discussion topics and number of speaking turns while minimizing the teachers' immediacy behaviors effects in an experimental group and a control group. Some detailed objectives that the study is expected to achieve such as the most frequent types of CSs applied by participants in their conversation, participants' overall perceptions of the most useful CSs influencing their WTC, and facilitative or inhibitive factors of participants' WTC. Accordingly, the present study investigates the following research questions:

Research Question 1: To what extent does communication strategies instruction affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' willingness to communicate?

Research Question 2: Do teachers' immediacy behaviors moderate the effect of communication strategies instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' willingness to communicate?

Research question 3: What is the frequency of the different communication strategies used by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

Research Question 4: What is the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' perception of the communication strategy that influences their willingness to communicate the most?

Research Question 5: What are the factors that facilitate and inhibit Iranian intermediate EFL learner' willingness to communicate?

Method

Participants

A purposive sampling procedure to select from Intermediate learners who had not been taught to use CSs was employed in this study and participants were recruited from 245 available EFL learners in English Language Institutes in Iran. After some exclusions due to participants' failure to participate in all tests of the study, 67 Intermediate learners were selected to participate in the study. The Intermediate learners from three classes totaling 36 participants were randomly assigned into an experimental group and 31 participants from another three classes were assigned into a control group. The learners were aged between 13-24 and the mean age for the participants in the experimental group and control group was 16.62 and 16.72, respectively. The experimental group included 28 female and eight male students and the control group included 23 female and eight male students. An independent-samples t-test was run on the scores obtained from the placement test namely Solutions Placement Test (Edwards, 2007), confirmed that there was no significant difference across the two participating groups, t $(65) = 1.69$, $p = .096$. This means that participants' scores in both groups were not discrepant in mean and they were homogeneous in terms of language proficiency.

Materials

Willingness to Communicate (WTC) Questionnaire (Appendix A)

WTC questionnaire (Appendix A) was adapted from McCroskey's (1992) study and aimed at ascertaining participants' predisposition toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication in foreign language, i.e. to determine participants' level of WTC for later analyses. The questionnaire contains 20 items; of which 12 items represent four types of communication contexts (i.e., group discussion, meetings, interpersonal, public speech) with three types of receivers (i.e., stranger, acquaintance, friend) with which an individual might come in contact with. The other eight items (1, 2, 5, 7, 10, 13, 16, 18) are fillers or are used to distract attention from the scored items. The internal consistency reliability analysis yielded the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of .86.

Verbal Immediacy Scale (VIS)

The VIS questionnaire (Appendix B) was adapted from Gorham's (1988) study and aimed to determine participants' perceptions of teacher's verbal immediacy. Participants were required to indicate the frequency in which the teacher applied the different verbal immediacy behaviors in the specific statements. The VIS consists of 20 verbal items in a 5-point Likert scale response.

As Gorham (1998) noted, items 9 (Refers to class as "my" class or what "I "am doing), 15 (Asks questions that have specific, correct answers), and 18 (Criticizes or points out faults in students' work, actions or comments) are considered non-immediate behaviors, so they were reverse coded before summing up for a total. The internal consistency reliability indicated the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of .90.

Nonverbal Immediacy Scale-observer Report (NIS-O)

The NIS-O questionnaire (Appendix C) was adapted from Richmond, McCroskey, and Johnson's (2003) study. This questionnaire consists of 26 items with a 5-point Likert scale response. It was used to measure teacher's nonverbal behaviors such as eye contact, proximity and etc. Of the 26 items, 13 are worded positively (1, 2, 6, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, and 25), where the agreement would show high immediacy, and 13 are worded negatively and reverse coded (3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 15, 18, 20, 23, 24, and 26), where the agreement would indicate low immediacy. The internal consistency reliability yielded the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of .80.

Self-report strategy (SRS) questionnaire

The SRS questionnaire (Appendix D) was designed according to Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) adopted Inventory of Strategic Language Devices. This was aimed to elicit information regarding the types of CSs commonly used by the participants and to examine the participants' perceptions of the usefulness of each CS. The SRS questionnaire comprised 40 items (for 40 CSs) with two 5-point Likert scale responses to measure participants' perceptions towards the usefulness of each CS and the frequency of using them. The questionnaire was translated into Persian language by the researcher. Then, a back translation (APA, 2010) method was applied to compare the items translations from English to Persian. The questionnaire was piloted on 53 participants for its internal consistency reliability which revealed the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of .82.

Systematic Observation Scheme

The Systematic Observation Scheme questionnaire (Appendix E) was adopted from Cao and Philp's study (2006). It was originally developed on the basis of observations of L2 learners' classroom behaviors revealing high WTC and motivation in class. This questionnaire was used in this study to observe the level of WTC or participants' behaviors relevant to WTC in the class. As a result of the pilot study, one subcategory "(b) Learner-responding" was excluded

from the Teacher/interaction section of the scheme. "Learner-responding" refers to a learner responding to a question addressed specifically to the learner him/herself, which was contrary to the WTC definition.

The observer also rated teacher immediacy behaviors based on his/her observation from the aspects of verbal immediacy and nonverbal immediacy aspects proposed in different studies in the literature (King & Witt, 2009; Özmen, 2011; Richmond, Lane, & McCroskey, 2006). The observers assessed the teacher's immediacy behaviors by indicating None = 0, Poor = 20%, Fair = 40%, Average = 60%, Good = 80%, and Excellent = 100%.

Procedures

This quasi-experimental study was conducted with an experimental group (n = 36) and a control group (n = 31) following the pretest and posttest design. A mixed method was applied to collect the data such as giving out questionnaires, observation and recordings, and stimulated-recall interviews. The data were collected over 11 sessions in total lasting one hour each. The 11th session lasted two hours more because interviews were carried out. All the sessions except the two preparatory sessions were recorded by the observers who observed the class performance as well.

In session 1, all participants were required to complete WTC questionnaire. In order to determine participants' favorite topics of discussions, a *topic familiarity and interest list* questionnaire was administered to both groups.

Session 2 was held as a preparatory session to familiarize participants with each other, the presence of the observer, recorder, and the classroom environment. Their teacher presented to the participants one of their favorite topics other than the four main discussion topics and they had a discussion about it which lasted for 50 minutes.

In pre-treatment sessions 3 and 4, both groups had communication based on their favorite topics without receiving any CSs instruction. The participants' WTC and the teacher's immediacy behaviors were also noted and marked by the observer using the observation scheme. Session 4 was conducted with another topic discussion following the same procedures as in session 3.

In treatment sessions 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, the experimental group received instruction (5 sessions, 60 minutes each) about three categories of direct, interactional, indirect CSs, totaling 40 CSs from Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) Inventory of Strategic Language Devices (Appendix F). The remaining time for the class was devoted to their own regular EFL curriculum and program. CSs instruction procedures were based on six interrelated procedures proposed by Dörnyei

(1995) and adapted activities suggested by Dornyei and Thurrell (1992). CSs instruction procedures were as follows:

a) the definition and concept of CSs were introduced to the participants to help increase their awareness of CSs use, i.e. they were explained on the functions and how to use CSs in their communication breakdowns. Each participant was given a handout with a list of CSs with their descriptions, definitions, and examples. A Persian translation of each CS definition, description and examples were also presented in the handouts to help the learners better understand the function of CSs. One such communication strategy is the use of an all-purpose word.

Description: Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.

Examples: The use of thing, stuff, make, do, as well as words like thing ie, what-do-you-call-it;

as in 'I can't work until you repair my ... thing'.

میتوانم درصحتکردن واژه موردنظرم راپیکنمبه جای آن اگلماتیمثل thing, stuff, make, do استفاده میکنم.

b) participants were encouraged to take risks and use strategies.

c) participants were provided with examples and models of using CSs; the teachers presented a sample dialogue by native speakers using CSs.

d) the cross-cultural differences in the use of strategies were explained; the participants discussed the differences in the use of CSs in their language and English language.

e) CSs were taught to the participants directly by providing them with linguistic devices; the teachers provided participants with useful phrases and expressions for the use of CSs, for example, useful structures for circumlocution: A kind of/ sort of … It's a kind of/ sort of … Something which you (can) … (with)…The thing you can use for … The thing you can … (with) … It's what you … (with) … Someone / the person who … It's a bit like … It's when you…You do/ say it when … It's something / the kind of thing you do/ say when…).

f) participants were asked to practice CSs; they practiced some speaking topics and used CSs in their speech whenever needed.

The three class groups receiving treatment (n = 36) were taught by their teachers following exactly the same syllabus of CS teaching. The participants in the control group who were also taught by their teacher did not receive any treatment during those five sessions instead they followed their regular EFL course and syllabus.

In post-treatment sessions 10 and 11 with 2 added hours, both groups had discussion based on their two other favorite topics following the same procedures applied for the pre-treatment sessions 3 and 4. In these sessions, the teachers and participants in the experimental group were asked to use CSs whenever needed. At the end of session 11, all participants were administered three questionnaires: SRS, VIS, and NIS-O. Then, the experimental group attended the next class for one-on-one stimulated-recall interviews. The researcher played back some parts of the participant's conversations from the recordings to a participant, stopped at any moment when his/her speech and WTC were influenced or changed by certain factors, and asked what s/he had been thinking at that particular point in time. Their responses were audio-recorded for later analysis.

Data Analysis

The sum for each participants' amount of speaking time in each turn on topic discussion was calculated in pretest and posttest sessions for both groups (speaking time in units of seconds). Audacity 2.3.1 software used for editing sound was employed and the recorded file was first prepared by some preliminary actions such as reducing background noise. Then, each participant's silent time (more than 1 second) while speaking was identified and truncated. Additionally, upon rechecking the participants' speech, the amount of time spent by them using successive pause fillers and hesitation devices (e.g., Well, Um, Uh, actually, you know, let's see, I mean) to fill pauses and gain time was truncated or deleted from the whole amount of speaking time. Furthermore, according to WTC definition in this study, the time that the teacher made the participant speak was not calculated. The stimulated-recall interviews were analyzed applying content tape analysis which involves taking notes while listening to recordings several times and coding data, discovering categories, sub-themes and themes, and making interpretations, and building theory (Dörnyei, 2007). The coding was conducted by employing NVivo 11 Plus Software. To check the inter-rater reliability of two coders, Cohen's kappa was run and the analysis revealed a .93% degree of agreement.

Results

Research Question 1: To what extent does the communication strategies instruction affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' willingness to communicate?

Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of the participants' speaking time during the pretest and posttest for the experimental and control group. Figure 1 illustrates the mean of speaking time during the pretest and posttest for each group.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Participants' Amount of Speaking Time

| Group		Pretest		Posttest		Mean Difference	
	n	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Experimental	36	142.61	57.73	135.33	53.99	-7.27	61.68
Control	31	163.67	57.07	111.12	40.42	-52.54	50.63
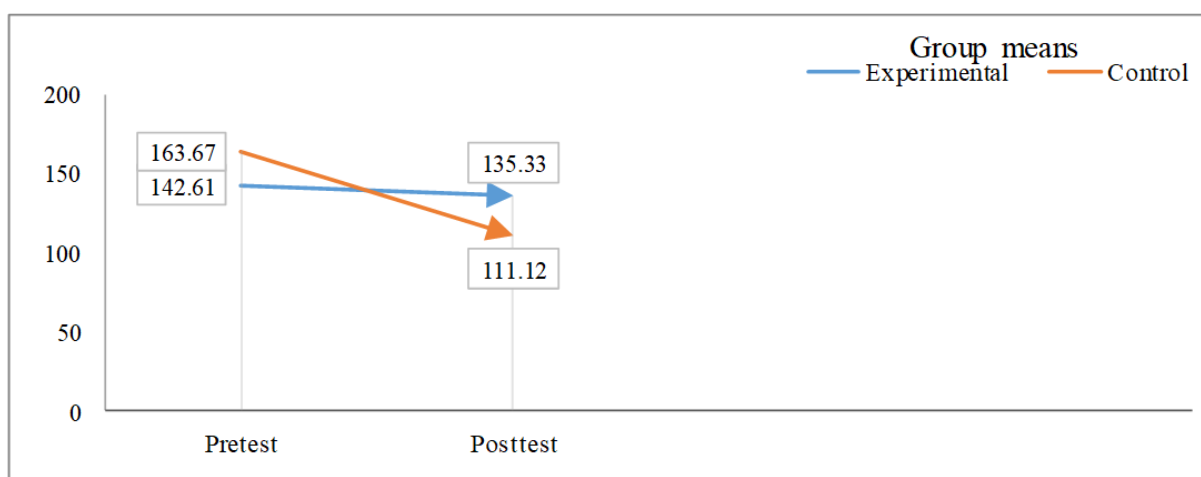
Figure 1. The mean of speaking time for pretest and posttest (Control and experimental Groups)

As shown in Figure 1, there is a decrease in the amount of speaking time for both the participating groups from the pretest to the posttest. However, the experimental group revealed a smaller mean difference (*M* = -7.27) compared with the control group (*M* = -52.54) from the pretest to the posttest.

The inspection of Q-Q Plots and Shapiro-Wilk analysis run on the posttest (*p* = .066) showed a normal distribution of the data for the experimental and control group. Also, as shown in Table 2, equal variances are assumed based upon results of Levene's Test, $F(65) = 1.02$, *p* = .316 > .05.

An independent-samples t-test was run on the data with a 95% confidence interval to compare the posttest scores for the experimental and control group. There was a significant

difference in the posttest scores for the experimental and control group, t (65) = 3.25, p = .002 < .05. This indicates that after five treatment sessions, the amount of participants' speaking time or WTC in the experimental group receiving CSs instruction was significantly higher than the control group in the posttest. Table 4.2 displays the results of the independent-samples t-test analysis run on the data to compare the mean difference in speaking time of the two participating groups of the study in the posttest.

Table 2

Results of Independent Samples T-Test to Compare the Two Groups in the Posttest

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of means		
	F	p	t	df	p (2-tailed)
Equal variances are assumed	1.02	.316	3.25	65	.002*

Results of systematic observation scheme for participants' WTC

The results of Shapiro-Wilk analysis revealed that the data was not normally distributed on the posttest (p < .05) for the experimental and control group. Therefore, a Mann-Whitney U Test was run on the posttest scores to compare participants' number of turns taking in their speech in the two groups. The results of analysis on the posttest scores indicated a significant difference between the experimental group and control group, U = 390, z = –2.13, p < .05. This means that, as shown in Table 3, taking turns in speech in the experimental group (Mean Rank = 38.67, n = 36) was higher than the control group (Mean Rank = 28.58, n = 31) in the posttest. Table 3 presents the results of the Mann-Whitney U test on number of speaking turns and mean ranks in the experimental and control group in the posttest.

Table 3

Results of the Mann-Whitney U Test on Number of Speaking Turns in the Posttest of the Two Groups

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mdn	U	z	p (2-tailed)
Experimental	36	38.67	1392	1.00			
					390	-2.13	.03*
Control	31	28.58	886	.00			

Research Question 2: Do teachers' immediacy behaviors moderate the effect of communication strategies instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' willingness to communicate?

Results of verbal and nonverbal teacher immediacy questionnaires

The assumption of normal distribution for performing parametric test was not met through the Q-Q Plots and Shapiro-Wilk analysis on the posttest scores from verbal and nonverbal teacher immediacy questionnaires ($p < .05$) in the experimental and control group. Therefore, a Mann-Whitney U Test analysis was conducted to compare the posttest scores of verbal and nonverbal teacher immediacy behavior in the experimental and control group. The results obtained from the posttest scores of the two participating groups revealed no significant difference in the verbal teacher immediacy behavior, $U = 495$, $z = -.79$, $p = .427$, and non-verbal teacher immediacy behavior, $U = 475$, $z = -1.03$, $p = .299$. This indicates that there was no difference in the teachers' immediacy behaviors between the groups and teachers' immediacy behaviors did not moderate the effect of CSs instruction on the participants' WTC behavior.

Teacher verbal and non-verbal immediacy behavior observation scheme

The normal distribution was not met for the posttest scores obtained from teacher verbal immediacy scheme through Shapiro-Wilk analysis ($p < .05$). A Mann-Whitney U Test analysis was run to compare the posttest scores obtained from the teacher verbal immediacy scheme in the experimental and control group. The analysis of posttest scores in the experimental and control group yielded no significant difference for teachers' verbal immediacy behaviors, $U = 144$, $z = -.61$, $p = .541$.

The assumption of normality was obtained through inspection of Q-Q Plots and Shapiro-Wilk analysis run on the posttest scores from teachers' non-verbal immediacy behavior scheme for both experimental and control group, ($p = .377 > .05$). Furthermore, equal variances were assumed based upon results of Levene's Test, $F(30) = 2.16$, $p = .151 > .05$. Therefore, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the posttest observation scores obtained from teachers' non-verbal immediacy behavior observation scheme in the experimental and control groups. The results obtained from the posttest observation scores of the experimental and control groups revealed no significant difference between the two groups, $t(30) = .42$, $p = .676$. and, thus the teachers' non-verbal immediacy behaviors did not moderate the effect of CSs instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' WTC in this study.

Research question 3: What is the frequency of the different communication strategies used by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

Analysis of the SRS questionnaire revealed that, of the 40 CSs, the participants in the experimental group "very often" used one CS, "often" used seven CSs, "occasionally" used 21 CSs, and "rarely" used two CSs, and "never" used nine CSs. Among the largest response, 16 participants (44.4%) "very often" used 'Response (repair)' strategy. Seventeen participants (47.2%) "often" used 'use of fillers'. Seventeen participants (47.2%) "occasionally" used 'Use of all-purpose words', 'circumlocution' and 'own-accuracy-check' strategies. Fourteen participants (38.9) "rarely" used 'omission' and 'retrieval' strategies. Twenty-five participants (69.4%) "never" used 'Foreignizing' strategy. The Interactional types of CSs were frequently used by most participants and reported as the most effective CSs that influence their WTC. The strategy used by most participants for each level of frequency is listed in Table 4.

Table 4

Communicative strategies used by most participants in the Experimental Group for each level of frequency (SRS Questionnaire)

	F	Percent	Item No
Very often			
Response (repair)	16	44.4	31
Often			
Use of fillers	17	47.2	36
Occasionally			
Use of all-purpose words	17	47.2	6
Rarely			
Omission	14	38.9	14
Never			
Foreignizing	25	69.4	10

Examples of some of the strategies used by the students in a discussion in session 3 are presented below:

Teacher: *Who wants to talk about her best wishes in her life.*

Student A: *May I talk…*

Teacher: *Yes, please.*

Student A: *From my perspective, if you want know …*

Teacher: *You wanttt…. (response repair)*

Student A: *You want to know (response repair) one person at first level, you should ask*

people about their wishes …Uh-huh… (use of fillers) always my mother says any wishes of

people actually…Mmm… this …Mmm… (use of fillers) is their formation of their progress and their purpose of living.

More examples of communication strategies used by the students are provided in an excerpt of the full discussion presented in Appendix G.

The top five communicative strategies based on the number of users in the experimental group

As indicated in Table 5, the top five CSs based on the number of users in the experimental group were "Use of fillers" (f = 29), "Self-repetition" (f = 17), "Response (repair)" (f = 15), "Self-repair" (f = 15), and "Approximation" (f = 13).   These CSs belong to the "Indirect" classification of CSs.

Table 5
The top five communicative strategies based on the number of users in the Experimental Group (SRS Questionnaire)

	f	Percent
Use of fillers	29	80.6
Self-repetition	17	47.2
Response (repair)	15	41.7
Self-repair	15	41.7
Approximation	13	36.1

Research Question 4: What is the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' perception of the communication strategy that influences their willingness to communicate the most?

As indicated in Table 6, among 40 CSs, the CSs that influence the WTC the most in the experimental group were Asking for clarification (f = 22), Asking for confirmation (f = 19), Direct help (f =18), Use of fillers (f = 17), Response (repair) (f = 16), Response (repeat) (f = 16), Asking for repetition (f = 16), Self-repetition (f = 16), and Own-accuracy check (f = 13).

Of the nine most useful CSs reported, seven CSs (Asking for clarification, Asking for confirmation, Direct help, Response (repair), Response (repeat), Asking for repetition, Own-accuracy check) belong to the Interactional types of CSs.

Table 6

Experimental Group Participants' Perception of the CS that influences their WTC the most (SRS Questionnaire)

Most useful			
	f	Percent	Item No
Asking for clarification	22	61.1	25
Asking for confirmation	19	52.8	26
Direct help	18	50.0	20
Use of fillers	17	47.2	36
Response (repair)	16	44.4	31
Response (repeat)	16	44.4	30
Asking for repetition	16	44.4	24
Self-repetition	16	44.4	37
Own-accuracy check	13	36.1	23

Research Question 5: What are the factors that facilitate and inhibit Iranian intermediate EFL learner' willingness to communicate?

Results for stimulated-recall interviews

Table 7 displays the factors that facilitate and inhibit the learners' WTC, proposed by the participants from the experimental group during the interviews. It also shows the number of respondents who reported that the factors influenced their WTC and the number of comments that reported that the factors enhanced or reduced the students' WTC. For a better understanding of the table, two important points need to be clarified. Not all 36 participants managed to be interviewed, thus the number of participants for the interview was only 31. The number of comments can be more than the number of participants. This is because each theme such as the teacher theme has sub-themes such as teachers' verbal and nonverbal behavior; therefore, one participant could mention both sub-themes during the interview.

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Table 7

Factors Influencing Experimental Group's WTC as Reported in Interviews

Dimensions	Factors	N=31 No. of participants	No. of comments Facilitative	N=31 No. of participants	No. of comments Inhibitive
Contextual	Topic	3	5	1	2
	Interlocutor	13	13	8	8
	Teacher	30	35	4	4
	Class situated pattern	5	6	10	13
	Class communicational pattern	25	29	0	0
Individual	Feelings	4	8	18	22
	SPCC*	25	25	4	4
	Perceived opportunity to communicate	7	7	9	9
Communicative Competence	Language ability	5	6	22	25
	CSs use	31	47	6	9

* According to MacIntyre et al. (1998), self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) is defined as a momentary feeling of confidence at a specific time in a particular context.

The teacher in the contextual dimension was the factor reported by most of the participants (30 out of 31) in the experimental group to have positive effect on their WTC. In the 35 comments, the participants mentioned that teacher verbal and nonverbal immediacy behaviors and teaching style during CSs instruction had positive effects on their WTC. They also reported that the teacher's personality type could either promote or inhibit their WTC. Class interactional pattern was also reported as a facilitative factor of participants' WTC. The majority of them favored teacher-fronted communication and group work. Some participants mentioned that their speaking skills being evaluated negatively by their peers could have a negative effect on their participation and led them to avoid expressing their opinion to the whole class. Meanwhile a few others evaluated peer influence positively as it could encourage them to perform better. Only a few participants cited topic (topical knowledge and familiarity with the topic) and interlocutor (personality and familiarity) as the factors either promoting or reducing their WTC. Class-situated pattern (recording and observer effect) was mentioned by a few participants as a factor that could enhance their WTC as they had been observed or recorded in the class. Some reported that recording and the presence of the observer in the class influenced their WTC negatively.

The factor that had positive effects on most participants' WTC in the individual dimension was SPCC. Of 31 interviewees, 25 of them who presented 25 comments on SPCC reported that after CSs instruction they perceived that their SPCC increased and they could solve any communication breakdowns that inhibited their participation in class discussions. Negative

feelings such as unrelaxed mood, apprehension, anxiety, embarrassment, self-evaluation, face-protection, and boredom were the factors that reduced their participation and were reported to exercise a negative influence on their WTC. For instance, some participants explained that they were nervous when speaking to the class or embarrassed of being volunteered to express their opinion to the whole class. Some others reported that they were afraid of losing face if they could not speak effectively or correctly, or other students might laugh at them if they made a mistake. Some students, on the other hand, highlighted positive feelings such as feeling relaxed and this promoted their WTC during class discussion. Almost one fourth of the interviewees felt that they should be the ones responsible for breaking the ice in the class when observing that others in the class were too quiet while some felt that their WTC was hampered when they did not perceive an opportunity as being proper for them to speak.

For the communicative competence dimension, 31 participants reported 47 times that CSs types and their practicality helped them overcome communication breakdowns and as a result increased their WTC. A few students mentioned that some types of CSs such as code-switching or message abandonment strategy are not applicable. For example, code-switching strategy is only applicable in the context where both interlocutors' L1 is the same. The majority of participants also mentioned that the lack of language ability or proficiency in speaking skills could influence their WTC negatively. For example, insufficient lexical resources on a topic and possessing less knowledge on sentence structure could decrease their WTC level and participation in class discussions.

Discussion

Participants' speaking time in both groups showed a decrease from pretest to posttest. This decrease was lesser for the experimental group than the control group. In this study, the topics were chosen according to the participants' common interest and familiarity (according to the elicited answers through topic familiarity and interest list questionnaire) in order not to confuse their likely WTC or UnWTC related to topics (Cao & philp, 2006). A possible explanation for this result is that the open-ended questions asking for reasons in the pretest caused speakers to come up with various viewpoints, language use, and more to say (Groenke & Paulus, 2007). Some previous empirical studies (e.g., House, 2004) also identified the topic of discussion as one of the influential factors that could change WTC in L2.

One the topics of speaking individually in the pretest was an open-ended question (the effect of technology on life) which led participants to have much to speak about and discuss the reasons and as a result caused the amount of speaking time to increase in the pretest. The topics

of discussion in the posttest were both descriptive in nature including the best wish and favorite job. This was also reported by a few participants during interview in the present study that the topic contributed to their WTC and participation in the class. For example, one of the interviewees mentioned in her comment that:

> *"when the topic is interesting and open-ended question I'd like to talk more and I have a lot to say about it. For example, one of the topic discussion was about technology that I was interested in and it was sort of topic everybody touches it regularly and can talk about it from different aspects."*

The amount of participants' speaking time or WTC in the experimental group was significantly higher than the control group and there was a statistically significant increase in taking turns in speech in the experimental group. This result is well supported by the belief that CSs promote students' WTC, enhance communication efficacy and despite negotiating meaning, CSs keep the communication channel open (Saeidi & Ebrahimi Farshchi, 2015).

The participants frequently used "Interactional" type of CSs in their communication breakdowns. Of the Interactional types of CSs, "Response (repair)" was the most frequently used strategy of all that the participants highlighted through SRS questionnaire. This strategy involves providing other-initiated self-repair, i.e. the speaker implies that he/she is unable to understand a message completely in the interlocutor's speech; then, the interlocutor repairs his/her speech. Since the participants' main interlocutor was their teacher and their preference was teacher-fronted communication, it reinforced the possibility of using Interactional types of CSs frequently by them, especially "Other-performance problem-related strategies" where the teacher would often provide other-initiated self-repair for the participants.

The most frequent CSs used by the participants in their speech after CSs instruction belonged to the "Indirect" classification of CSs. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) explained that indirect strategies are not strictly considered devices for solving communication problems; they do not give alternative meaning structures, rather they help to convey intended message by creating mutual understanding and keep the communication channel open. For example, "Use of fillers" strategy, which was the most frequent CS of all identified in the speech of the participants in the present study, is considered "processing time pressure" to gain time and plan the speech at the time of difficulty (e.g., well, you know, actually, okay). In the present study, the participants frequently applied this strategy to buy more time and plan their speech or to fill pauses in their speech. In Abdi and Varzandeh's (2014) study in the Iranian context, "Use of fillers" strategy was also perceived as one of the eight effective strategies by the participants. The majority of CSs (7 out of 9) which were perceived as the most useful CSs by the participants

also belonged to the "Interactional" type of CSs. For example, "Asking for clarification" strategy is referred to as requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure from the interlocutor. The Interactional CSs are associated with the interaction between interlocutors and mutual attempts of sharing a meaning. As teacher-centered approaches gave way to communication-oriented teaching approaches in the Iranian context, it is observed that teacher-dependency interaction is still dominant, i.e. the teacher as an authority and the main interlocutor of the students still direct the class in the interaction form of ask and answer. This affects the students' view towards CSs types and it can be a reason to explain the participants' perception of the Interactional type of CSs as the most useful strategies concerning their WTC.

Contrary to the participants' perception of the most useful CSs, it was observed that the most frequent CSs applied by the participants in their speech after CSs instruction, however, had largely shifted to the "Indirect" classification of CSs. This shift indicates that the CSs instruction could give confidence to the participants to go beyond teacher-dependency behaviors to apply other types of CSs as well, especially Indirect strategies.

Literature also reveals that SPCC has been determined as one of the important antecedents of WTC (e.g., MacIntyre, 1994). A review of studies on influencing variables of students' WTC in the Iranian context also lends support to the effects of SPCC on learners' WTC improvements (e.g., Riasati, 2012; Zarrinabadi & Haidary, 2014). As for the present study, the participants' WTC appeared to be influenced by their SPCC which in turn could be promoted by CSs instruction. This was also evident during where nearly all the participants mentioned that CSs instruction contributed to their increased SPCC which could lead them to think there was always another way to overcome their communication breakdowns. Furthermore, teacher's immediacy behaviors, although its moderating effects were rejected because of non-significant difference between the two groups, could affect the participants' SPCC as well. As reported during interview, the participants' attitudes towards teacher's immediacy behaviors affected their SPCC and WTC. For example, teacher's positive confirmation, encouragement, or friendly treatment gave participants confidence at a specific time which positively affected their WTC.

WTC is influenced by a number of interconnected factors that continuously affect each other and fluctuate over time and context. According to Ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), learner and context are inseparable, i.e. the learner is believed to be a part of the classroom context where a small change may bring large effects and vice versa. In this study, some interconneted factors influencing the participants' WTC were identified such as the communicative competence, contextual, and individual factors.

WTC model of the study suggested for EFL classroom context

With respect to all the findings, discussions, and identified WTC antecedents in the present study, a Tree-gyrate model of WTC, as presented in Figure 4, is suggested for EFL classroom context.
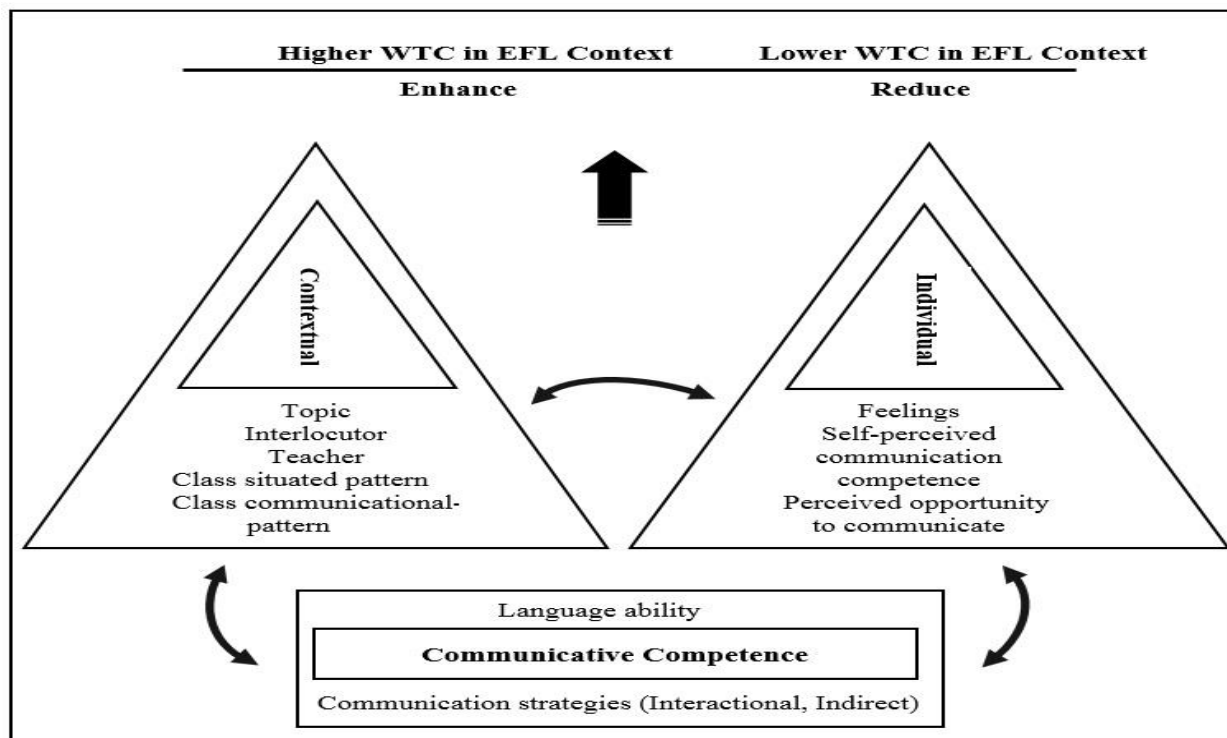

Figure 4. Tree-gyrate model of WTC for EFL classroom context

The reason for choosing the name for this model, Tree-gyrate, is because the identified factors influencing participants' WTC were found to be in gyrated, overlapping and interconneted relationship between the communicative competence, contextual, and individual factors bearing reciprocal effects. For example, when the class communication pattern (contextual dimension) was teacher-fronted communication it could cause apprehension (individual dimension) among some learners due to the teacher's negative evaluation and learners' losing face if they were unable to speak properly and as a result reduce their WTC and participation. The same pattern, on the other hand, could be considered a favorite pattern by some self-perceived confident (individual dimension) learners and thus enhance their WTC. The joint or reciprocal effects are created as a result of interaction between these factors, i.e. the effect of one contextual factor or another on learner's WTC depends on the individual characteristics or communicative ability and this effect can also be perceived in a different manner by another learner. The spawning reciprocal effects can play either facilitative or inhibitive role in the participants' WTC. Since dynamic-situational WTC is created through the antecedents that fluctuate from moment to

moment; this role can result in higher or lower levels of WTC respectively, as presented in the final stage in Figure 4.

Comparing this Tree-gyrate model of WTC with MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic pyramid WTC model shows that both consider WTC a situational construct. However, the Tree-gyrate WTC model suits EFL classroom context; whereas, MacIntyre's model is applicable in all communicational contexts and is comprised of enduring and transient factors influencing WTC. The relationship between these factors is one-dimensional and hierarchy; while on the contrary, the Tree-gyrate model bears recursive and interrelationship between factors which makes it difficult to differentiate the enduring and transient factors.

Succinctly, multiple interconnected factors contribute to WTC and these factors can be clustered in contextual aspects, individual aspects, and language ability. Therefore, teachers need to be aware of these different factors and work to create a healthy blend that results in optimal WTC among students. In particular, the teaching of CSs can improve or strengthen the individual factor of WTC.

Conclusions

The findings of this study support previous CSs teaching literature as well as provide more empirical evidence that CSs teaching is possible and desirable among the EFL learners. This study suggests that CSs teaching is beneficial and influential in increasing L2 learners' WTC. A Tree-gyrate model of WTC is suggested for EFL classroom context, which can be used as a model in examining and identifying the influencing variables of learners' WTC in EFL context.

There are still areas of uncertainty as a result of insufficient investigation or lack of studies on exploring participants' WTC and CSs patterns such as the most frequent use and participants' perceptions of the most useful CSs. Although the present study has some limitations, it is convincing that CSs, Interactional and Indirect types in particular, can be integrated effectively in the classroom activities to increase EFL learners' WTC and speaking abilities.

As a closing point, the present study suggests that teachers with what they want to teach through textbooks should consider what students want to learn, set their own learning goals, and create appropriate conditions for learning to take place. Therefore, teachers should listen to students' needs and preferences and consider various factors influencing learners' WTC. In addition, the theory of CSs should be implemented in practice. CSs instruction can effectively be implemented in the classroom.

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Appendix A

Willingness to Communicate Questionnaire (WTC)

Name: ……………………

Age:…………………………

Directions: Below are 20 situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice. Indicate the percentage of times you would choose to communicate in each type of situation. Indicate in the space at the left of the item what percent of the time you would choose to communicate.

**You can choose any percentage from %0 to %100

 Total WTC >82 = High WTC, Total WTC <52 = Low WTC, 52 to 82 = Mid WTC

_____1. Talk with a service station attendant.

_____2. Talk with a physician.

_____3. Present a talk to a group of strangers.

_____4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.

_____5. Talk with a salesperson in a store.

_____6. Talk in a large meeting of friends.

_____7. Talk with a police officer.

_____8. Talk in a small group of strangers.

_____9. Talk with a friend while standing in line.

_____10. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.

_____11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.

_____12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.

_____13. Talk with a secretary.

_____14. Present a talk to a group of friends.

_____15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.

_____16. Talk with a garbage collector.

_____17. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.

_____18. Talk with brother or sister.

_____19. Talk in a small group of friends.

_____20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

Appendix B

Verbal Immediacy Scale (VIS)

Directions: Please indicate in the space at the left of each item the degree to which you believe the statement applies to your teacher. Please use the following 5-point scale:

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Occasionally   4 = Often   5 = Very Often

_____ 1. Uses personal examples or talks about experiences she/he has had outside of class.

_____ 2. Asks questions or encourages students to talk.

_____ 3. Gets into discussions based on something a student brings up even when this

doesn't seem to be part of his/her lecture plan.

_____ 4. Uses humor in class.

_____ 5. Addresses students by name.

_____ 6. Addresses me by name.

_____ 7. Gets into conversations with individual students before or after class.

_____ 8. Has initiated conversations with me before, after or outside of class.

_____ 9. Refers to class as "my" class or what " I " am doing.

_____ 10. Refers to class as "our" class or what "we" are doing.

_____ 11. Provides feedback on my individual work through comments on papers, oral

discussions, etc.

_____ 12. Calls on students to answer questions even if they have not indicated that they

want to talk.

_____ 13. Asks how students feel about an assignment, due date or discussion topic.

_____ 14. Invites students to telephone or meet with him/her outside of class if they have

questions or want to discuss something.

_____ 15. Asks questions that have specific, correct answers.

_____ 16. Asks questions that solicit viewpoints or opinions.

_____ 17. Praises students' work, actions or comments.

_____ 18. Criticizes or points out faults in students' work, actions or comments.

_____ 19. Will have discussions about things unrelated to class with individual students or

with the class as a whole.

_____ 20. Is addressed by his/her first name by the students.

Appendix C

Nonverbal Immediacy Scale (NIS-O)

Directions: The following statements describe the ways some people behave while talking with or to others. Please indicate in the space at the left of each item the degree to which you believe the statement applies to your teacher. Please use the following 5-point scale:

1 = Never   2 = Rarely   3 = Occasionally   4 = Often   5 = Very Often

_____ 1. He/she uses her/his hands and arms to gesture while talking to people.

_____ 2. He/she uses a monotone or dull voice while talking to people.

_____ 3. He/she looks over or away from others while talking to them.

_____ 4. He/she moves away from others when they touch her/him while they are talking.

_____ 5. He/she has a relaxed body position when he/she talks to people.

_____ 6. He/she frowns while talking to people.

_____ 7. He/she avoids eye contact while talking to people.

_____ 8. He/she has a tense body position while talking to people.

_____ 9. He/she sits close or stands close to people while talking with them.

_____ 10. Her/his voice is monotonous or dull when he/she talks to people.

_____ 11. He/she uses a variety of vocal expressions when he/she talks to people.

_____ 12. He/she gestures when he/she talks to people.

_____ 13. He/she is animated when he/she talks to people.

_____ 14. He/she has a bland facial expression when he/she talks to people.

_____ 15. He/she moves closer to people when he/she talks to them.

_____ 16. He/she looks directly at people while talking to them.

_____ 17. He/she is stiff when he/she talks to people.

_____ 18. He/she has a lot of vocal variety when he/she talks to people.

_____ 19. He/she avoids gesturing while he/she is talking to people.

_____ 20. He/she leans toward people when he/she talks to them.

_____ 21. He/she maintains eye contact with people when he/she talks to them.

_____ 22. He/she tries not to sit or stand close to people when he/she talks with them.
_____ 23. He/she leans away from people when he/she talks to them.

_____ 24. He/she smiles when he/she talks to people.

Self-report Strategy Questionnaire (SRS)

Name: …………………….

Directions: Below are some statements pertaining to different communication strategies that you might use to assist you in speaking English. For each statement, please indicate to what extent and how often you use the strategy it describes. Please choose a number by marking (√) to indicate:

در زیر یک سری راهبردهای متنوع محاوره ای که در کلاس همکار مورد ارائه شده است. گزینه های زیر راهبردهای متنوع محاوره ای که در کلاس همکار مورد ارائه شده است. گزینه های زیر راهبردهای خواننده وبا توجه به فراوانی کاربرد آنها در مربع سمت راست و به میزان مفید بودن هریک از آنها در مربع سمت چپ با انتخاب شماره مورد نظر علامت بزنید.

a) How useful YOU think each of them is:						b) How often YOU use each of them:				
1= Not useful	2= Least useful	3= Neutral	4= Useful	5= Most useful		1= Never	2= Rarely	3= Occasionally	4= Often	5= Very Often
					1) I Leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty وقتی هنگام صحبت کردن کلمه مورد نظر را نمی دانم بگفتن "I don't know" و ... ادامه گفتگو را تمام ر ها میکنم.					
					2) I reduce the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources. وقتی گفتن جمله ای به زبان انگلیسی برایم دشوار و پیچیده است، منظورم را با استفاده از ساده تر کلمات تقریبیان میکنم و از کاربرد و ساختار های دشوار صرف نظر میکنم.					
					3) I substitute the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it. اگر در هنگام صحبت به جمله ای کلمه ای بر خورکنم که گفتن آن به زبان انگلیسی برایم مشکل باشد، اصل کلمه یا جمله را با کلمه یا جمله جدید جایگزین میکنم.					
					4) I exemplify, illustrate or describe the properties of the target object or action.					

				اگرکلمه ای را)ا عمزآزشی ء،مکان، چهوان ...(ندلم، سعی میکنمبات و صرف کردن کایبردو شکل آن فظورم رلیبانکنم.		
				5) I use a single alternative lexical item which shares semantic features with the target word or structure (*plate* instead of bowl). اگرکلمه ای)ا عم ازشیء،مکان، چهوان، ...(ربلبلدینناشم، ازکلمات هم خانواده آن ا تفاده میکنم (کلمه Bowl رانمی فنمبه جای ان ازکلمه Plate تفاده می کنم(.		
				6) I extend a general, 'empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (the overuse of *thing, stuff, make, do …*) اگرتوانم درصحتکردن واژه موردنظرم رلیبدکنمبه جای آنکلمماتی مثل thing, stuff, make, do استفاده میکنم.		
				7) I create a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word. اگرتوانم درصحتکردن واژه موردنظرم رلیبدکنم واژه جدیدی از خودابداع میکنم کلمه Flouriest بهمعنگلفروش را نمی دلم وبه جای آنکلمه Flower seller را از خودابداع میکنم(.		
				8) I abandon the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leave the utterance unfinished, and communicate the intended message according to an alternative plan. درهنگامصحتکردنبیبدلیدشواری ساختار جمله فناتوانی دربدکردن واژه فطلب در قالب انساختار ساختاراولی رانتمامگذشته وبایکساختار جدید وساده فظورم را می رسلم.		
				9) I translate literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2. گر معادلکلمه ای،اصط یاساختاری را به انگلیسی ندلم،انربلبصورت تحتاللفظی از فراسیبه انگلیسیبر میگردلم.		
				10) I use L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology and/or morphology. اگرکلمه ای را ندلم معادلفارسی آن رلبا اوا ول هنگفطلسی میگهم.		
				11) I include L1 word with L1 pronunciation in L2 speech. اگر درهنگامصحتبه جمله ایبکلمه ای بر خورکنمکگمفتن آنبه زبانگلیسی برلیم مشکلباشد، آن جملهوکلمه رلبفراسگفته بقیه صحتم رلبانگلیسی ادامه می د هم.		

					12) I compensate for a lexical item whose form I am unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item. اگر کلمه ای رفرم مشکر دنباشم، فقط وزن وبرخی از حروف آن را در خاطر دا شتم باشم، از کلمه ای که هم وزن وی ای مفی ه آن ست استفاده میکنم کلمه Pan را به خاطرنمی آورم کلمه Cap را میگویم(.)					
					13) I swallow or mutter inaudibly a word whose correct form I am uncertain about. اگر کلمه ای را ندلم، واژه ی نهفه ومی را بلرن زمز مه میکنم ویقتی صحبتم را ادامه می دهم.					
					14) I leave a gap when not knowing a word and carry on as if it had been said. اگر کلمه ای را ندلم، جای آن را خالی گذا شتته، و جمله را ادامه می دهم					
					15) In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item I say a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form (It's brake er…broken broked broke). گی فرم درست کلمه اهای صفت،قید،اسم، ...(را ندلم، از کلمه یاه فرم های مختلف گذشتته، حال صفتقید، ...(بیان میکنم تا دربین یکی از آ کلمه مورد نظر می داشود.					
					16) I describe whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration. گوکل مه ای را ندلم با در آوردن اداي ان با حکات ستو صورت منظور خود را می رسلم					
					17) I repeat a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase (I don't know the material…what it is made of…). دونگام صحکتکلماتی را ساایت استفاده از یک سری از عبارت های سساایت استفاده ازتفهنی الفاظ تکرار میکنم I don't know the material…. what it is made of…)					
					18) I make self-initiated corrections in my own speech (then the sun shines and the weather get be…gets better). هنگامی که نتو جمشوم جملهی کلمه ی ای را ا شتبگفته ام سعی میکنم آن را صاح کنم.					
					19) I correct something in the interlocutor's speech. وقتی مخاطبکلمه ی ا جمله ای را ا شتبمیگو ید، آن را ح میکنم.					
					20) I turn to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in my L2 knowledge.					

					وقتی برای گفتن کلمه ای دچار مشکل می شوم، فاصله را بطور واضح از مخاطب می پوشانم.					
					21) I try to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally (I don't know the name… rising intonation, eye contact …). وقتی برای گفتن صحبت کردن دچار مشکل می شوم به طور مستقیم لفظی یا غیرلفظی بالحن تلفظی چشمی و یا گفتن I don't know the name… از مخاطب کمک می خواهم.					
					22) I ask questions to check if the interlocutor can follow me. با پرسیدن سوال چون "آیا منظور را متوجه می شوید؟ درک مطلب مخاطب را ارزیابی می کنم.					
					23) I check that what I said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation. با پرسیدن سوال صریح)مثل، " Am I right?"یا "Is it correct?" یا با تکرار کلمه با لحن پرسشی درستی مطلب را از مخاطب می پرسم.					
					24) I request repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly (Pardon? What?). گر کلمه ای یا جمله ای را درست متوجه نشوم، از مخاطب می خواهم آن را تکرار کند با استفاده از کلماتی مثل:Pardon? What?					
					25) I request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. وقتی منظور مخاطب خود را متوجه نمی شوم از مخاطب می خواهم بیشتر توضیح دهد.					
					26) I request confirmation that I heard or understood something correctly (You said?... You mean? Do you mean...?). وقتی منظور مخاطب خود را درست متوجه نمی شوم، درک مطلب خود را با استفاده از سو)مثل You said…? You mean….?, Do you mean…?) از مخاطب چک می کنم.					
					27) I guess what I heard or understood something incorrectly. وقتی کلمه ای را درست متوجه نشوم آن را حدس می زنم.					
					28) I express that I did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.					

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					29) I use the extended paraphrase of interlocutor's message to check that I have understood correctly. درک مطلب خود را دوباره باز گویی مطابق مخاطب کلمات و ... دیگر چک می کنم.				
					30) I correct my message after repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form by the interlocutor (after an other-repair). با تکرار جمله مکالمه مخاطب بعد از که مخاطب تشخیص صحیح را ارائه کرد، اشتباه خود را فهمیده و آن را تصحیح می کنم.				
					31) I use providing other-initiated self-repair. قوتی متوجه اشتباه خود توسط مخاطب می شوم اصلاح آن را تصحیح می کنم.				
					32) I rephrase the interlocutor's trigger. قوتی مخاطب مرا متوجه اشتباه خود در کاربرد نادرست کلمه می کند به طله آن را با کلمات دیگر باز گویی توضیح می دهم.				
					33) I put a word into a larger context. قوتی مخاطب مرا متوجه اشتباه خود در کاربرد نادرست کلمه می کند، آن کلمه را در قالب مفهوم بزرگ تر ده ای قرار داده، و به تفصیل شرح می دهم.				
					34) I confirm what the interlocutor has said or suggested (You mean...?). در هنگام گفتگو قوتی مخاطب از عبارت استفاده (با You mean…? مثل: کلمات با بگو وی مطالب مورد نظر سخنان مرا چک می کند آن را تائید می کنم.				
					35) I reject what the interlocutor has said or suggested without offering an alternative solution. قوتی می خواهم سخنان یا پیشنهادات مخاطب را رد کنم بدون آنکه توضیح یا ... به گفتن کلمه "نمی کنم" استفاده می کنم.				
					36) I use gambits to fill pauses and to gain time in order to keep communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty (well, you know, actually, okay…). قوتی به مدت زمان بیشتری برای فکر کردن جهت ادامه گفتگو نیاز داشته باشم، از کلمات مثل well, you know, actually, okay… استفاده می کنم.				
					37) I repeat a word or a string of words immediately after they were said (which was made, which was made of concrete). قوتی به زمان بیشتری برای فکر کردن نیاز دارم،				

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					کلمه‌ها جمله‌ی‌قبلی خود را تکرار می‌کنم.					
					38) I repeat something the interlocutor said to gain time. وقتی‌که به زمان بیشتری برای فکرکردن نیاز دارم کلمه‌ها جمله‌ی‌قبلی مخاطب را تکرار می‌کنم.					
					39) I use verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code (I don't really know what's it called in English, it's some kind of …). دون‌گام صحبت‌کردن کلماتی را که از کاربرد دل به‌ دلشان اطمینان ندارم با استفاده از یک سری عبارت های نشان دار لفظی (مثل: I don't really know what's it called in English, it's some kind of …) عدم اطمینان خود را از کاربرد آن‌ها بیان می‌کنم مثل یک نوع … تا منظورم تفهیم شود.					
					40) I make an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand. اگر منظور مخاطب را نفهمم و جمله‌ی مشمول متظاهر می‌کنم آن را فهمیده ام و به صحبت ادامه می دهم.					

Appendix E

Systematic Observation Scheme

Teacher/student Interaction	1. Volunteer an answer (including raising a hand)

	2. Give an answer to the teacher's question
	  (a) Provide information – general solicit
	  (b) Learner-responding
	  (c) Non-public response

	3. Ask the teacher a question
	4. Guess the meaning of an unknown word
	5. Try out a difficult form in the target language (lexical/morphosyntactic)
	6. Present own opinions in class
	7. Volunteer to participate in class activities
Pair/group Interaction	1. Guess the meaning of an unknown word
	2. Ask group member/partner a question
	3. Give an answer to the question
	4. Try out a difficult form in the target language (lexical/grammatical/syntactical)
	5. Present own opinions in pair/group

Note*: Adopted from Cao and Philp, 2006.

DIRECT STRATEGIES
Resource deficit-related strategies

Message abandonment

Description: Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.
Example: It is a person er... who is responsible for a a house, for the block of house... I don't know... [laughter]

Message reduction (topic avoidance)

Description: Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of
linguistic resources.
Example: [Retrospective comment by the speaker:] I was looking for "satisfied with a good job, pleasantly tired," and so on, but instead I accepted less.

Message replacement

Description: Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.
Example: [Retrospective comment after saying that the pipe was broken in the middle instead of "the screw thread was broken":] I didn't know "screw thread" and well, I had to say something.

Circumlocution

Description: Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action.
Example: It becomes water instead of "melt".

Approximation

Description: Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.
Example: plate instead of "bowl"

Use of all-purpose words

Description: Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.
Example: The overuse of thing, stuff, make, do, as well as words like thingie, what-do-you-call-it;

e.g.: I can't can't work until you repair my ... thing.

Word-coinage

Description: Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.

Example: [Retrospective comment after using dejunktion and unjunktion for "street clearing":] I think I approached it in a very scientific way: from 'junk' I formed a noun and I tried to add the negative prefix "de-"; to "unjunk" is to 'clear the junk' and "unjunktion" is 'street clearing'.

Restructuring

Description: Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.
Example: On Mickey's face we can see the... so he's he's he's wondering.

Literal translation (Transfer)

Description: Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.
Example: I'd made a big fault [translated from French]

Foreignizing

Description: Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.
Example: reparate for "repair" [adjusting the German word 'reparieren']

Code switching

Description: Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.
Example: Using the Latin ferrum for "iron".

Use of similar sounding words

Description: Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item.
Example: [Retrospective comment explaining why the speaker used cap instead of "pan":] Because it was similar to the word which I wanted to say: "pan".

Mumbling

Description: Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.
Example: And uh well Mickey Mouse looks surprise or sort of XXX [the 'sort of' marker indicates that the unintelligible part is not just a mere recording failure but a strategy].

Omission

Description: Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.
Example: then... er... the sun is is... hm sun is... and the Mickey Mouse.... [Retrospective comment: I didn't know what 'shine' was.]

Retrieval

Description: In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.
Example: It's brake er... it's broken broked broke.

Mime (nonlinguistic/paralinguistic strategies)

Description: Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.
Example: [Retrospective comment:] I was miming here, to put it out in front of the house, because I couldn't remember the word.

Own-performance problem-related strategies

Self-rephrasing

Description: Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.
Example: I don't know the material...what it's made of...

Self-repair

Description: Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.
Example: then the sun shines and the weather get be... gets better.

Other-performance problem-related strategies

Other-repair

Description: Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.
Example: Speaker:... because our tip went wrong... [...] Interlocutor: Oh, you mean the tap.
S: Tap, tap...

INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES
Resource deficit-related strategies

Appeals for help

Description: Direct help: Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.
Example: it's a kind of old clock so when it strucks er... I don't know, one, two, or three 'clock then a bird is coming out. What's the name?

Description: Indirect help: Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally.
Example: I don't know the name... [rising intonation, pause, eye contact]

Own-performance problem-related strategies

Comprehension check

Description: Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.
Example: And what is the diameter of the pipe? The diameter. Do you know what the diameter is?

<u>Own-accuracy check</u>

Description: Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.
Example: I can see a huge snow... snowman? snowman in the garden.

Other-performance problem-related strategies

<u>Asking for repetition</u>

Description: Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.
Example: Pardon? What?

<u>Asking for clarification</u>

Description: Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.
Example: What do you mean?, You saw what? Also 'question repeats,' that is, echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.

<u>Asking for confirmation</u>

Description: Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.
Example: Repeating the trigger in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question, such as You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?

<u>Guessing</u>

Description: Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.
Example: E.g.: Oh. It is then not the washing machine. Is it a sink?

<u>Expressing non-understanding</u>

Description: Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.
Example: Interlocutor: What is the diameter of the pipe? Speaker: The diameter? I: The diameter. S: I don't know this thing. I: How wide is the pipe? Also, puzzled facial expressions, frowns and various types of mime and gestures.

<u>Interpretive summary</u>

Description: Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.
Example: So the pipe is broken, basically, and you don't know what to do with it, right?

<u>Responses</u>

Description: Response (repeat): Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).
Example: See the example of other-repair.

Description: Response (repair): Providing other-initiated self-repair.

Example: Speaker: The water was not able to get up and I... Interlocutor: Get up? Where? S: Get down.

Description: Response (rephrase): Rephrasing the trigger. Interlocutor: And do you happen to know if you have the rubber washer?
Example: Speaker: Pardon? I: The rubber washer... it's the thing which is in the pipe.

Description: Response (expand): Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context.
Example: Interlocutor: Do you know maybe er what the diameter of the pipe is? Speaker: Pardon? I: Diameter, this is er maybe you learnt mathematics and you sign er with th this part of things.

Description: Response (confirm): Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.
Example: Interlocutor: Uh, you mean under the sink, the pipe? For the... Speaker: Yes. Yes.

Description: Response (reject): Rejecting what the interlocutor has said or suggested without offering an alternative solution.
Example: Interlocutor: Is it plastic? Speaker: No.

INDIRECT STRATEGIES
Processing time pressure-related strategies

Use of fillers

Description: Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.
Example: Examples range from very short structures such as well; you know; actually; okay, to longer phrases such as this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question.

Repetitions

Description: Self-repetition: Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.
Example: [Retrospective comment:] I wanted to say that it was made of concrete but I didn't know 'concrete' and this is why "which was made, which was made" was said twice.
Description: Other-repetition: Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.
Example: Interlocutor: And could you tell me the diameter of the pipe? The diameter. Speaker: The diameter? It's about er...

Own-performance problem-related strategies

Verbal strategy markers

Description: Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.
Example: (strategy markers in italic): (a) marking a circumlocution: On the next picture... *I don't really know what's it called in English*... it's uh this kind of bird that... that can be found in a clock that strikes out or [laughs] comes out when the clock strikes; (b) marking   approximations: it's some er... it's *some kind of* er... paper; (c) marking foreignizing: ... a panel [with an English accent], *I don't know whether there's a name in English or not* [laughter] just it's a panel flat; (d) marking literal translation: it's er... a smaller medium flat and in, we call them blockhouse, but it's not it's not made of blocks; (e) marking code switching: the bird from the clocks come out and say "kakukk" *or I don't know what*; see also the example for message abandonment.

Other-performance problem-related strategies

<u>Feigning understanding</u>

Description: Carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.

Example: Interlocutor: Do you have the rubber washer? Speaker: The rubber washer? ... No I don't. [Retrospective comment: I didn't know the meaning of the word, and finally I managed to say I had no such thing.]

A Transcribed Excerpt of Discussion in Session 3

Teacher: Who wants to talk about her best wishes in her life.

Student A: May I talk…

Teacher: Yes, please.

Student A: From my perspective, if you want know …

Teacher: You wanttt….[response repair]

Student A: You want to know [response repair] one person at first level, you should ask people about their wishes …Uh-huh… [use of fillers] always my mother says any wishes of people actually…Mmm… this …Mmm… [use of fillers] is their formation of their progress and their purpose of living. If two years ago, you asked to me what's your wishes and what's your plan for your future…. Mmm… [use of fillers] Actually [Verbal strategy markers] I say I want study mathematics …er [use of fillers] I want to be فضانورد (astronaut) [Code switching]

Student B: Astronaut

Student A: Oh…yes… astronaut [Other-repair] or English teacher. But my brain changed. And …. Mmm… [use of fillers] I believe that …Mmm… [use of fillers] if you are effective for all of the people in all over the world….er… [use of fillers] Actually [Verbal strategy markers] you be a successful. For example, if I help to people I feel so good myself. Actually [Verbal strategy markers] my friends say I'm so liberal person. I am agree with them

Teacher: You agree with… [Response repeat]

Student A: Yes, I agree with [Response repeat] them because I want a freedom for all over the world specially for my own country because I know that our people need a lot of help speacially in education part specially for girls. I don't want to …Mmm… [use of fillers] say just girls because being equal is the most important purpose of mine. In conclusion, being free is one of my best wishes.

Teacher: What and who are you thankful for in your life? Why?

Student A: I'm thankful in my life for one person….er…[use of fillers] actually [Verbal strategy markers]…Mmm… [use of fillers] there is a lot of important and effective person in my social and educational life but one of the most important person is Stephen Hawking. He has a lot of effects on my life… er… [use of fillers] actually [Verbal strategy markers] his…er… [use of fillers] his theory is really special and helpful for all of the…Mmm… [use of fillers] for

all of the science, community, specially astronomy, physics, and mathematics. And I have…er… [use of fillers] I... [use of fillers] Everyday I download a lot of videos about Stephen Hawking. And I always …Uh-huh… [use of fillers] I always [Self-repetition] watch documents about …er… [use of fillers] his family life.

Teacher: If you were to choose any of these, which one do you choose to have? Beauty, power, money, knowledge, and nice friends? why?

Student B: You choose money…huhhuh…[use of fillers]

Student A: …huhhuh… [use of fillers] If I want to choose one…er… [use of fillers] one of these [Self-repetition] …Uh-huh… [use of fillers] actually [Verbal strategy markers] I choose knowledge because knowledge can solve a lot of problems, and specially …er… [use of fillers] specially my own problems. For example, you know that [Verbal strategy markers] these days, teenagers have a lot of mental problems. Knowledge could be effective for them.